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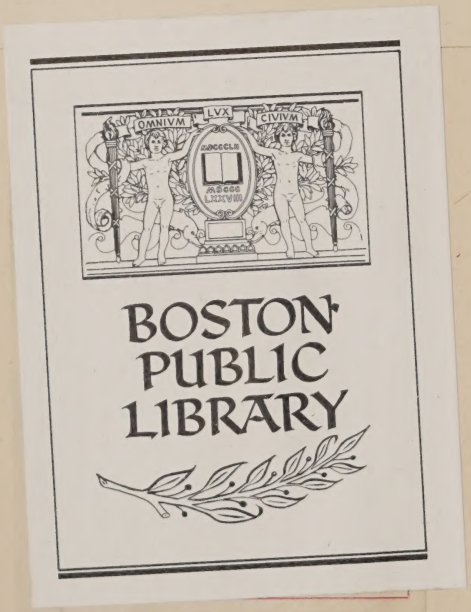

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The Week.

THE old year has closed, as it opened, in much doubt and misgiving, both in politics and business. The Presidential difficulty, which weighed on everybody's mind on the first of last January, was happily cleared away, and has been succeeded by the Silver movement, which nobody at that time anticipated, but which we cannot help believing will also pass by with less damage than many people now fear. The glowing anticipations with which many good souls fed their fancy about Mr. Hayes during the canvass have been supplanted by many depressing realities, but then it may be safely said to these excitable persons, that just as they were then mistaken in their elation they are now mistaken in their depression. He is now in the midst of the inevitable reaction, but it too will pass. Under the financial and political confusion which has marked the surface of affairs business has been slowly, very slowly it is true, recovering; the South has been pacified; it is not yet a model community, but life and property, including the wages of labor, are safer in it than they have been since the Revolution. The horrible corruption of the carpet-bag period has ceased, but it has unhappily been succeeded by a repudiation mania which promises to ruin the credit of those States for fifty years to come, and make them Federal beggars for all their internal improvements. Last January, Russia had just begun to threaten Turkey, and most people expected a feebler resistance and stronger attack, but the end now in plain view is what all anticipated—the virtual expulsion of the Turks from the European family of nations, to which they should never have been admitted, and the virtual extinction of their Empire, which has probably been the cause of more human misery than all other political evils put together during the last four hundred years. France has passed through a crisis which was utterly unexpected, and which, for a while, threatened the present form of government with ruin, but has ended by strengthening it enormously. In other quarters the old year has been one of unusual tranquillity. It is safe to say that on the whole it has been one of solid advance in civilization, for civilization comes not less through rude awakenings and undeceivings than through solid achievement. There seems nothing but the overthrow of the silver swindle needed for our entrance on several years at least of healthy prosperity.

The old year has left us a new form of fraud, which goes by the fine name of "rehypothecation," repledging being too common for the purpose. This linguistic ornamentation of rascality has become very common and amusing. To "scale a debt," or "readjust" it, means to cheat a creditor out of some part of what you owe him in any case in which he has no legal protection; to "remonetize silver," or "bring back the dollar of your fathers," means to cheat your creditor out of ten per cent., while apparently paying him the full amount due to him. This last is, however, the only case in which knavery is covered with a veil of sentiment. We may remark, while on this topic, that no advocates of the silver fraud are so repulsive as the ministers and religious editors who have taken it up, as many have done in the West, and probably none so mischievous, because they appear to make the movement all right on its moral or hinder part, while the "laics" are quibbling and lying out in front over "the finance" of it. None of their articles which have come under our notice, however, reveal even an imperfect knowledge of the subject, while the ethics of them look as if the authors had studied ethics in other worlds than ours.

Mr. Wm. E. Chandler, of New Hampshire, one of the most active of the Republican managers during the late Presidential count, has furnished the principal political topic of the week, in the shape of a long and elaborate attack on President Hayes, in a letter addressed to "the Republicans of New Hampshire." Mr. Chandler is not a great statesman, or a man to be much respected from any point of view, but he is undoubtedly an adroit and unscrupulous politician, and what he says is worth attention as a pretty good indication of what all the machine-men are thinking or intending. That he is not easily satisfied about the South may be inferred from the fact that after making a terrible uproar about Southern "outrages" on negroes before the late Presidential election, on finding after the withdrawal of the troops that the outrages had ceased, he declared that "to the thoughtful man" the absence of outrages was far more alarming and suggestive than their frequency, which drew from the Springfield *Republican* the very just observation—"What an ass Bill Chandler is!" The substance of "Bill's" accusation against Mr. Hayes is that he was distinctly nominated and elected as a "bloody-shirt" candidate; that he so understood it himself, as was shown in his letter of acceptance and the letter he wrote Nov. 8, when he thought he had been defeated, deploring the fate of the poor negro under Tilden. Chandler further truly remarks that the "campaign was carried on, as far as methods and utterances were concerned, in no respects differently from the campaigns of 1868 and 1872"; "the 'bloody shirt,' as it is termed, was freely waved, and Governor Hayes himself urged prominent public men to put forward as our best argument the dangers of a rebel rule and solid South." We shall only observe on this that, if Chandler and his kind had their way, the campaign of 1896, or even of 1916, would also be conducted "in no respects differently from the campaigns of 1868 and 1872."

He then goes on to show that this understanding was adhered to faithfully in the dealings of the Republican party with the Returning Boards, in which, we may add, Chandler himself was a prime mover. What these were in Louisiana he relates in a passage so remarkable for shamelessness and audacity that we reproduce it entire:

"In Louisiana, however, there had been thrown into the ballot boxes over 7,000 more votes for the Tilden than for the Hayes electors, and to make Hayes President it became necessary for the Returning Board, acting under peculiar local laws, to throw out more than 7,000 Tilden votes on account of alleged murder, riot, and intimidation preventing a fair and free election in certain parishes. To perform this extraordinary, even if justifiable, work in the face of an armed and infuriated Democracy, required men of undaunted courage; and such courage the Returning Board possessed. It required, also, that the Board should have assurances that the national exigency demanded its performance; that the moral sentiment of the North would approve it, and that they themselves should be protected from evil consequences to be apprehended from the violence of a mob government, which it was known would be established by one Nicholls, a pretender to the office of Governor against Stephen B. Packard, who was sure to be found elected Governor if the Hayes electors should be found to have been chosen."

He therefore accuses the President of a gross breach of faith. When one considers the character of the men composing the Returning Board from whom this "courage" was required, one has no difficulty in believing that they would have thrown out not 7,000 only, but 50,000, had "the national exigency required it." We recall nothing at this moment in political literature more impudent than the foregoing, and shall take leave of "Bill" and his revelations with the remark that Mr. Sherman denies, for himself and his associates of the Grant Commission, that there is any truth in Chandler's charge that they gave the Returning Board the assurances needed to keep up its "courage."

The Tennessee Legislature has adjourned without making any provision for the payment of the State debt, and Tennessee politics for some time to come seem likely to turn on repudiation, pure and simple. During the session a resolution was offered by Mr. Kindrick, a representative from Roane County, insisting that it was in-

compatible with the honor of the State to propose a compromise to its creditors, that any proposition they might make ought to be immediately accepted and faithfully carried out, and that no compromise should bind creditors not consenting to it. This resolution was laid on the table by a vote of 40 to 27, the vote in the affirmative being made up of 39 Democrats and 1 Republican. It is stated by the Knoxville *Chronicle* that only three East-Tennesseeans voted with the Repudiationists. Indeed, this division between the "State credit" party and the Repudiation party seems to be very much the same as between Republicans and Democrats. It would be difficult to exaggerate the infamy of which the Tennessee Legislature has been guilty. The State is rich and able to pay, but it is easier not to doso. In Virginia, on the other hand, Governor Holliday has taken strong and unequivocal ground in his inaugural in favor of maintaining the State credit unimpaired, and predicts "woe to the man" who, in the settlement of her obligations, "betrays the trust or sells the honor of Virginia."

Mr. H. V. Redfield, the well-known correspondent of the Cincinnati *Commercial*, has got hold of some of the late Andrew Johnson's private papers and has published many of the letters received by him when President. Most of them possess no special interest in themselves, but taken together they afford an illustration of the sort of "pressure" that the President is now subjected to, and may be taken probably as types of the letters which Mr. Hayes is now receiving. Many of them are office-begging letters—one from J. Madison Wells, of Louisiana, who in 1865 sends word to the President as follows: "I deem it the interest of Louisiana that I should be appointed Provisional Governor," and adds thoughtfully that "a uniform system of reorganization" is "nationally indispensable." Fernando Wood telegraphs April 5, 1867, to the President's secretary: "If I cannot have O'Callaghan and Dana, I want O'Callaghan and Thomas." Again, we find Amos Layman, who signs himself as "Editor Ohio *Statesman*," telegraphing that one Reid Johnson, "Congressional candidate for Mansfield district," wants one Glissner appointed postmaster "before the election." February 10, 1868, General Steedman suggests that Mr. Johnson "issue an order assuming personal command of the army and navy." June 18, 1867, W. H. C. King notifies the President from New Orleans that if given the Mexican mission, which the "urgency of friends" had determined him to ask for, he could leave at three hours' notice in a revenue cutter "which the Collector says he can place at my disposal." The mass of applications and recommendations brings out in a striking way what we suppose will form part of the grounds of Mr. Hayes's promised message to Congress on civil-service reform: the absolute necessity of taking off the President's shoulders the responsibility for the appointment of officials whose qualifications he cannot examine into, and the "urgency" of whose friends now exhausts nine-tenths of his time.

The Commissioners appointed by the Secretary of the Treasury to examine into the management of the Bureau of Statistics made a report, dated October 15, 1877, showing a scandalous state of facts. The Commission consisted of three Government officials, selected by Mr. Sherman especially for the work, and their report is therefore not open to the charge of partisanship. They show that Government publications, prepared at the public expense, were sold by the son of Dr. Young, the chief of the Bureau, the proceeds being pocketed by him; that private editions of such publications were printed by the doctor for his own benefit, certain corporations having made private arrangements with him in the enterprise with a view to profit on both sides; that the doctor used his time, paid for by the Government, for private business, privately paid. Out of a variety of improper transactions of this sort Dr. Young's son made money enough to take a European trip. In 1872 the doctor received as Government delegate to the International Statistical Congress at St. Petersburg, in addition to his regular salary of $2,500 for the whole year, $18 51 per diem for the time so employed, and, not satisfied with this, was paid other sums by English and American merchants; and he admitted that there were "some other parties who contributed to the expenses of my [his] family." Another little venture of his was a volume called 'Labor in Europe and America,' printed by the Government, but sold by Dr. Young for his private emolument. Altogether the report is a disgraceful exposure, and why it has not been followed by some action on the part of the Government is a mystery.

The Cincinnati *Gazette* propounds the painful enquiry whether Mr. Murat Halstead, the editor of the *Commercial* and one of the leading silver agitators, is insane. It points out that the beginning of insanity is monomania—*i.e.*, the bent of the mind to a single idea, the continual dwelling on one subject until the person affected becomes incapable of estimating the true relation of things. At first this is attended with a certain degree of rationality in other matters, but in time the reason is completely unsettled at all points. The *Gazette* then proceeds to trace these symptoms in Mr. Halstead's paper, showing that whereas it formerly had a cool, cynical tone, and treated subjects sometimes even with levity, always avoiding a tedious iteration of the same arguments, it has become characterized since it went into the silver movement by a marked seriousness, and a repeated and strenuous iteration of the belief that the safety of the country, its emancipation from debt, its material prosperity, its good morals, and the preservation of its religion hang on one thing—the restoration of the silver dollar. Another symptom which is alarming is the effect of remonstrances and arguments addressed to his reason. These only excite him to further insistance upon the truth of his hallucination, and arouse also his anger—a usually pretty sure sign—and produce further iteration until (we think this must be a Western exaggeration) he publishes "from twelve to sixteen articles every day" on silver. Moreover, there is not wanting an almost unfailing symptom—that of suspicion. With a mind diseased in this way there always exists an hallucination that the world is in league against the patient, and conspiring against him; and accordingly we find poor Mr. Halstead loudly exposing the designs of the British bullionists, the fraudulent secrecy by which the Coinage Act of 1873 was passed, the corruption of Congress, the banding together of the "creditor class," the machinations of the "money-power of the East" and of "Europe," the foreign gold plot to enslave America, and so forth. This has been going on so long now that it has reached the point at which the patient is unable to take a rational view of any subject, unaffected by the mania; has lost the sense of the distinction between truth and falsehood, and asserts as fact what is well known to all the world to be untrue. The *Gazette* makes out a strong case, but expresses the hope that the derangement is functional and not organic, and advises rest and a change of occupation.

The recent history of the Police Board in this city furnishes a curious commentary on the way in which our municipal affairs are managed. During the greater part of last summer the Tammany politicians, headed by John Kelly, made a furious assault on the Board, attempting to get into it one Purroy, an alderman, in place of Commissioner Erhardt, whose term had expired, but who was holding over. This was really a movement against General W. F. Smith, the President of the Board, who had disgusted the politicians by his manner of performing his duties. His offences were, 1st, that he was no politician, and consequently was opposed to using the police force as a political machine in the manner it had been used under Charlick and Matsell; 2d, that he tried to break up abuses, such as the practice of reinstating men, under pressure from "outside influence," who had been "broken" for misconduct; 3d, that he was a good disciplinarian, and by means of promotions for merit and removals for cause had brought the police to a pitch of effectiveness unknown before, which enabled the city in the crisis of the railroad riots last year to rely on it as veteran troops might have been relied on, and helped to save the State from the humiliating attitude in which other States were placed, of being obliged to confess their impotence to police their own borders unless helped by the army and

navy of the United States. Purroy's qualifications, on the other hand, were numerous. He was, 1st, a henchman of Kelly's; 2d, he knew all about removing, rotating, and reinstating; and, 3d, he knew nothing else. If he could be made one of the Board it would probably lead to General Smith's retirement and the control of the police machine by Kelly. Nevertheless the attempt failed; the Mayor would not nominate Purroy, and so General Smith stayed in.

The next move made was by the other side, or, at least, by the Mayor, against all the Police Board, with the exception of General Smith. On the 18th of last month the Mayor preferred charges against Commissioners Erhardt, Wheeler, and Nichols, founded on their failure to keep the streets clean, and on their irregular and capricious enforcement of laws, particularly the Excise laws. Before sending these charges to the Governor he was obliged by law to give the accused a hearing, and they immediately retained a score of lawyers, who picked the charges to pieces, showed that the streets were clean, that the Commissioners were not responsible if they were dirty, and that the blame for their dirty condition lay elsewhere; that the laws were not irregularly and capriciously enforced, and that their irregular and capricious enforcement was not the fault of the police. A great many curious things came out at the hearing; among others, that Mayor Ely is in the habit of writing letters of recommendation to office, privately intimating to the persons to whom they are addressed, however, that he means nothing by them. At first the Mayor appeared to be as bold as a lion, treated the arguments of counsel rather cavalierly, and created a general impression that he had made up his mind to remove. The *Tribune*, indeed, went further than this, and assured its readers that the charges were part of the "Tilden campaign of 1880"; that the Mayor had assured himself in advance of the Governor's approval of his charges, and that the vacancies were to be filled with "Swallow-tail" Democrats, whose confirmation by the Board of Aldermen was not to be necessary because the Corporation Counsel had discovered that the law in such cases gave the power of appointment to the Mayor alone. Unfortunately for the Tilden campaign of 1880, however, the Mayor has now announced his determination not to send the charges to the Governor at all, because he says that the Commissioners, while "in a measure derelict," are not so "to an extent which would justify their removal." The only official who has come out of the Excise row with credit appears to be Mr. Owen Murphy, pathetically called by the newspapers the "fugitive Excise Commissioner," who is now enjoying himself with his "swag" safe and sound in Toronto.

In Wall Street the week was notable for two Stock Exchange failures, one that of Netter & Co. and the other that of John Bonner & Co., and the Bankers and Brokers' Association, of which Mr. Bonner was president. The first failure was on liabilities approaching $400,000, and the last on liabilities of not less than $500,000. The bad feature of both was not, however, the amount of money involved, but the disclosure of the fact that the liabilities had been incurred and the losses made with money derived from the hypothecation of other people's securities, which had come into the possession of these firms as collateral security for money lent by them. The method pursued was this: The firms, representing that they had large amounts of money to lend, demanded choice securities as collateral; they then took these securities and borrowed a larger amount of money on them, and realized for their own uses the difference between the two loans. Had this difference been employed in lucky ventures the operation might have passed for sharp financiering if ever discovered, or it might never have been discovered. In these two cases the ventures were unlucky; the money was lost, and now exists, so far as these firms are concerned, only in the form of liabilities. These disclosures gave a great shock to confidence in Wall Street transactions; as, however, they caught several of the large speculators with a "bull campaign" on their hands, the developments were not permitted to interrupt more than temporarily the upward speculation in stocks.

The carrying off of the military bridge at Braila by drifting ice was followed by the destruction of the bridges at Nicopolis and Petroshani, and the removal of those connecting Sistova with Simnitza. All communication between the Russo-Rumanian armies in Bulgaria, both east and west of the Turkish quadrilateral, and their base of supplies in Rumania is thus broken off for a time, which must give an entirely new turn to the operations, or completely suspend them, unless new and speedy changes in the weather render the restoration of a bridge or two possible, or cause the Danube to freeze. The occurrence of the interruption was months ago predicted as probable, and yet it seems to have taken the Russian commanders by surprise, since reports from various quarters represent the camps of the invading armies as inadequately supplied with food for men and beasts, fuel, and other necessaries, even before the interruption of communication has made itself felt. Numbers of Turkish prisoners were left to die of cold at Plevna, it being "impossible," as a Russian official despatch stated it, "to afford them any aid"; scores of prisoners transported to Bucharest, exhausted by want of provisions, were left by their guards to freeze to death on the roadsides, as there were no vehicles to carry them, "though the absence of wagons was not due to deliberate cruelty." On the line of the Lom the Moslem inhabitants retire to the woods after burning their villages, the Turkish troops having withdrawn from their advanced positions; and, deprived of his supports, General Todleben, now the virtual commander of the Tzesarevitch's army, will hardly be in a condition to push operations against either Rustchuk or Rasgrad in the middle of winter.

The renewal of hostilities by the Servians and their successful advance in the direction of Sophia must thus be considered no less advantageous to the Russians than was the co-operation of the Rumanians in the Plevna campaign. The southern army of Servia, after the capture of Ak Palanka, occupied Leskovatz, south of Nissa, and Kurshumlie, west of the latter town; soon after reduced Pirot, on the road to Sophia, taking a number of guns and a few prisoners, and began the investment of Nissa. Turkish troops sent to reinforce Pirot arrived too late, and the garrison of Nissa will probably have to give up all hope of relief from without, since the advance of a Russian force which threatens Sophia must compel the withdrawal of the scattered Ottoman detachments now in Turkish Servia towards that city, or beyond it, if it is to be abandoned. The vanguard of the Russians operating against Ahmed Eyub Pasha has succeeded in occupying some Balkan defiles near Sophia, surprising the Turks by a march over snow-covered mountains and frozen foot-paths, and opening the road to the city. The Turks are expected to evacuate it, and to concentrate for the defense of the passes near Ikhtiman, leading from southwestern Bulgaria into Rumelia. The entrance of the Servians into Bosnia is reported from Belgrade to have been precluded by an effective protest of Austria; but it is only a strenuous resistance of Nissa which may prevent them from invading the region of Prishtina. The Montenegrins have achieved a success between the river Boyana and the town of Dulcigno, and recommenced the bombardment of Antivari. On the Black Sea, too, the Turks have suffered a loss in the capture of a transport steamer, with seven hundred men on board, by a Russian cruiser from Sebastopol. The operations against Erzerum have again been suspended on account of heavy snow. Mukhtar Pasha has left that city, surrendering the command to Ismail Pasha, apparently in order to place himself at the head of a small force in the field, which is to defend Baiburt and operate on the flank of the Russians. The Porte has asked for peace through the mediation of England; but Russia seems to be inclined to treat only with Turkey directly, and, before answering England's overtures, calls out fresh reserves, orders cannon, and buys rifles, while Russian organs resent the uncalled-for mediatory offers of the British Government by expressions of defiance. Somewhat oracular utterances of the French and Austrian Cabinets are reported, and there is a great deal of "sounding" done all around, and much telegraphing about an armistice.

A POLITICAL RETROSPECT.

WE have felt ever since the close of the Presidential canvass in 1876 that the year which has just ended would prove more instructive, in all that relates to the practical working of party government under our present Constitution and political usages, than any that had gone before it. The slavery controversy had come upon the country before party management had been reduced to the art it now is, and before the civil service had begun to be its leading instrument, and as long as it lasted the passions it bred were too fierce to allow the machinery of party to work normally and without considerable occasional derangement. Everything in politics during the war, and for ten years after the war, was, to a certain extent, exceptional. It was not until the close of General Grant's second term that war memories had sufficiently subsided to allow the machinery to operate, as one might say, *in vacuo*, without disturbance from external causes, and to drive both parties back on what may be called regular government—that is, the work of carrying society along the ordinary and well-traced line of progress. This at once subjected the whole body of party usages to some very curious and interesting tests, and submitted to actual experiment the question whether it was possible under the existing system for a party to reform itself without giving up its hold on power; or, in other words, whether what has been called "reform within the party"—that is, the extirpation of abuses created or fostered by a party—can be procured from the party itself, acting through its ordinary machinery and recognized leaders. The Cincinnati Convention and its proceedings, and the election and administration of Mr. Hayes, are all parts of this experiment, and they are for this reason very interesting, even as a mere study in politics, and without reference to their practical results. We believe there had been no case on record of a party, as such, mending its ways without going into opposition, and while in opposition to a certain extent reorganizing itself and changing its leaders, and in some degree its aims. There were, however, a large number of very thoughtful men among us whose imagination was sufficiently touched by the magnitude and splendor of the results which the Republican party had brought about, to believe it capable of the still more difficult feat of self-regeneration while in office. To their hopefulness Mr. Hayes largely owed his nomination, and the Cincinnati platform the unprecedented clearness and precision with which it described some of the abuses of which the party itself had been guilty, and the means by which they should be reformed.

When the canvass opened, the experiment entered on its next stage, and what then happened was as curious as anything which takes place in a chemist's laboratory, because it seemed to demonstrate the accuracy of long-settled belief, that as a party for all purposes of action may be said to consist of its leaders, a proposal that it shall reform itself is a proposal that the leaders shall make a general confession of error or incompetency in support of an application for a renewed lease of power. Accordingly, we found—and readers of the *Nation* will bear witness that we pointed this out steadily week after week, often amidst much obloquy at the hands of simple-minded people who thought that anybody who "supported Hayes" must surely be the friend of righteousness—that from the very first week the leaders absolutely refused either to preach the platform or preach Hayes as the reformers understood him and as he himself presented himself to the public. They avoided all mention of the reforms promised in the platform, and sought, both through the stump and the press, to persuade everybody that his Administration would closely resemble that of General Grant's—*i.e.*, would be devoted to the maintenance of a hostile attitude towards the Southern whites in the guise of efforts to protect the negro, and to the equitable distribution of the Government patronage among the Senators and Representatives of the party in power. There was no positive or open denial that reforms would be carried out. Anybody who thought they would was allowed to think so, but they were ignored in speeches and articles. No mention of them was made, and not only was no official encouragement given to anybody who talked about them and insisted on preparation for them in the canvass itself, but every effort was made by emphasis and exaggeration to fix public attention on matters very remote from them and to exalt Hayes's extreme reticence into the rank of a political virtue of the first order, and to insist upon it that confidence in him was a duty which somehow flowed logically from want of confidence in Tilden.

The results of this were twofold. In the first place, the weight of Mr. Hayes's responsibility, supposing him to be sincere in his promises to the reformers, was greatly increased—increased, indeed, to a degree which his previous career in no way warranted. His history in public life was that of a steady, faithful, good-tempered, modest man, while the rôle that the canvass thrust upon him was that of an imperious, self-confident, determined man, with very defined and deeply-rooted views on all the great points of public policy, who would be capable of carrying out reforms with his own right hand, in the teeth of any opposition, and within the period of four years. In the next place, it prevented the formation of a strong and combative public opinion to support him. There was in June, 1876, no such zeal for reform in the public mind, no such comprehension of its nature and necessity, as to relieve its friends from the necessity of preaching and expounding it vigorously through the canvass. As a matter of fact, it was, as we have said, not preached or expounded. The currency question, in spite of the threatening aspect it had assumed among Republicans in Pennsylvania and Ohio in the previous year, and among the Democrats everywhere, was hardly touched on by Republican orators and newspapers. The same thing may be said of civil-service reform. Not only was this latter subject not mentioned, but the abuses of the civil service were almost ostentatiously exhibited as among the means of Republican victory. Therefore, all the talking of the canvass redounded to the benefit of the old leaders just as they stood, and to the glorification or palliation of party management just as they practised it. So that when Mr. Hayes took office he really was what military writers call "in the air." He had behind him none of the instructed, drilled, and, if you will, inflamed opinion which Presidents usually count on when put in possession of power. His Southern policy, therefore—that is, his acceptance, with regard to South Carolina and Louisiana, of the overwhelming necessity to which his predecessor had bowed in the other Southern States—took people by surprise, which was intensified by his attempts to change the appointing system. Nobody was prepared for these things, neither Congress nor the party; so that his efforts to execute the party platform actually wore to large numbers of Republicans an appearance of treachery, and the curious spectacle, described recently in an interesting letter from Mr. Nordhoff to the *Herald*, is witnessed of his reading the platform to Republican members of Congress who go to the White House to remonstrate with him for *not* perpetrating the very abuses which that document specifically pledges the party to abandon. At this moment, indeed, it may be said that the leaders of the party—that is, the party organization, properly so-called—are banded together against him, and against everything that goes by the name of reform, thus showing that the programme put forward in 1876 was not really meant to be carried out, or meant to serve any purpose except that of a cheap and harmless concession to a small body of active and troublesome malcontents. Reformers, therefore, now find themselves in January, 1878, compelled to begin the work of exposition and propagandism which ought to have been undertaken in June, 1876, and this not simply for the benefit of Republican voters, but to a certain extent for that of Mr. Hayes himself. He undoubtedly suffered in common with the party at large from the want of proper discussion in 1876, and from over-reliance on Tilden's defects, and those of Tilden's supporters, for no one can fail to see that the last year has been passed by him in feeling his way to clear and definite conclusions. His worst shortcomings and mistakes, too, have undoubtedly been those of a general who has been suddenly placed in charge of a position which he had not examined, and about which no definite instructions had been given him except that he was to defend it stoutly.

The experience of the year will, however, have been cheaply bought if both Mr. Hayes and the reformers lay it to heart during the three years of his term which remain. Things cannot continue as they are. Republicans must choose between Mr. Hayes, such as he is, and his opponents in the party, such as they are, and the party must propose something in the nature of a programme. What the present party leaders, the Conklings, Butlers, Blaines, Chandlers, and Edmundses, propose we confess we do not know—although we have read carefully all they have recently said or written—beyond keeping the offices for Republicans, and allowing the Senators and Representatives of the party to distribute them. If anybody will examine what they say about the South he will find that it consists wholly of somewhat vituperative reminiscence, and contains no trace of a policy whatever. They reproach Hayes for what he has done, but they do not propose that he should undo it—that, for instance, he should now go down with troops and seat Packard and Chamberlain; nor do they point out in what way Hayes could have kept Chamberlain and Packard seated, supposing their opponents to have continued their resistance until Congress met, as they assuredly would have done. So that the Republican opposition to Hayes on this score appears to be absolutely objectless, to have no aim or end in view whatever, and therefore to consist of mere scolding. Nor does their professed regard for the negro take any practical turn. Even if Hayes had followed their programme in South Carolina and Louisiana, this would have done nothing for the negroes of Georgia, Alabama, Mississippi, Arkansas, North Carolina, Tennessee, and Virginia, in all of which they are virtually excluded from politics, so that as to the rights of the great bulk of the negro population they have nothing to suggest. Finally, we would ask all good Republicans, the sober, honest, intelligent men who founded the party and have kept it alive, whether they really believe that they can face another Presidential election with the smallest prospect of success under the guidance of men in whose political sincerity and integrity there is so little confidence as in Blaine, Conkling, Chandler, and the like? There never was a party yet which could hope for so little under the lead of charlatans and tricksters as the Republican party, and if it cannot provide itself with leadership which will have some hold on the conscience of the country before 1880, it will assuredly go into opposition for long years. All this, of course, amounts to saying that any hope of salvation through "harmony" at present is ridiculous. "Harmony," on the contrary, would be fatal.

THE LATEST FRENCH GAIN.

THERE is strong reason for believing that among the various means used to confuse Marshal MacMahon's mind by the authors of the "16 Mai" were arguments in favor of his absolute right to choose and dismiss his ministers drawn from the example of the King of Prussia and of the President of the United States. Recently there has been a vigorous effort made by the Prussian Parliament not, indeed, to influence the selection of members of the Cabinet—far from it—but to find out who the members of the Cabinet are. Herr Friedenthal was said to have been appointed Minister of Agriculture, and he himself said he had, but no official announcement of it was ever made to the Landtag. So also Herr Delbrück was said to have left the Cabinet and General Stosch to have joined it, but nothing positive could be learned about it. The curiosity of the Chamber was roused to the highest point, however, when it was officially announced to the Chamber that two foreigners, Herr Hoffmann, a Hessian, and Herr Bulow, a Mecklenburger, had been given seats in the Cabinet, but without portfolios. This led the head of the Catholic party, Herr Windthorst, and the head of the Progressives, Herr Virchow, to question the Vice-President of the Council, Herr Camphausen, on the subject. What they wanted to know was, how it happened that two foreigners were introduced into the Prussian Ministry; whether the King could increase the size of the Cabinet indefinitely by adding members without portfolios, to all of which Herr Camphausen replied that he ought to have mentioned the matter to the Chamber before now; that the composition of the Prussian Ministry was a little singular; but that the country was passing through an exceptional situation; that the two new ministers were excellent men, whom the Chamber would like; but that, as regards the king's power to increase the size of the Cabinet, that was "prerogative," and must therefore not be on any account discussed—and here the matter ended. The effect of talks of this kind on the Marshal's mind can readily be imagined, for it is not a mind capable of going below the surface of phenomena and detecting real distinctions. Parliamentary government in Prussia has really grown out of the antecedent state of things, just as parliamentary government grew in England. Prussia as a political community may truly be said to be the creation of the king and the army. To say that the king found a considerable tract of barren, unoccupied country, and planted military colonies on it, and then used them to extend his dominions by force, and gave his subjects a parliament when he thought it might be safely done, would be a rough but not inaccurate description of the growth of the Prussian state, and would account sufficiently for the king's unwillingness as yet to surrender his Cabinet, and for that peculiar feature of the Prussian system which makes all taxes once imposed permanent, and only leaves the Landtag the power of voting fresh ones. But of course the Marshal would hardly see all this, and could not be expected to comprehend why he, an unsuccessful soldier brought suddenly to the surface in the midst of civil turmoil, should not be deemed as worthy of confidence as the Prussian royal family, who had for four generations literally been identified with the state. The American system he probably found it easier to comprehend, as here the members of the Cabinet have no seats in the Legislature, and the President himself is responsible and impeachable, while in France the Ministry is responsible, but the President not.

But what more than all else confused him and made his surrender to the parliamentarians most difficult was the feeling, from which even the most liberal Frenchmen are not entirely free, that there are forces at work within French society which constantly threaten it with disruption and anarchy, and render it impossible to trust it wholly to the protection of a constitutional government. In fact there have, until very recently, been but few Frenchmen who did not look on the chief magistrate, under whatever form of government, as a sort of protector of the constitution, who was to give it fair play and a good chance of succeeding, but who in the meantime was to be always ready to supplement it, if necessary, by the use of direct force, or by the "state of siege." This view of the functions of the Executive has been strengthened and perpetuated by the concentration of power in Paris—or, in other words, within reach of all the dangerous elements in the French population—and as long as this was the case, and one or two days' fighting was sufficient to transfer the Government to anybody who happened to be in possession of the Hôtel de Ville when the insurrection triumphed, the notion that "society" was in danger was not wholly chimerical, nor the desire to have somewhere a strong hand untrammelled by law ready to save it, wholly unreasonable.

That this danger has been largely removed by the insurrection of the Commune is for France a gain so great that the material damage seems a small price to pay for it. For the first time since the Revolution, the seizure of Paris in 1871 did not carry with it the Government of France. The Legislature and the officials and the army refused to be bound by what had happened in the capital, transferred themselves to another place, and began to operate against Paris as simply a city in revolt, and succeeded. This effectually broke a spell which had exerted for ninety years a most malignant influence on French politics, and showed that the Government did not need for its protection a general and an army actually ready to go down into the streets at any moment; that society could be saved in a leisurely way and under legislative superintendence, and from any base of operations. Successful revolt in Paris will probably never again decide the fate of the Government; it may contribute to it or hasten it, but there will

always be forces outside Paris to be settled with or overcome, and the same thing may be said of a successful *coup d'état*. It is not likely that the dispersal of a legislature, and the military occupation of its seat, will ever again transfer the machinery of state to the commander of the troops.

The Marshal's own surrender to the Republicans is likely, however, to prove more valuable as a precedent than anything which has gone before it. From 1789 to our day every direct collision between the Executive and the Legislature, or the Liberals, has ended in a resort to force on the one side or the other. Louis XVI. attacked the Legislature with troops and was attacked by it. Bonaparte dispersed it with troops. Charles X.'s dispute with it ended in a revolution. The refusal of Louis Philippe's Ministry to enlarge the franchise ended in another. Louis Napoleon's differences with the Assembly, and the popular hostility to his dynasty, ended in the same way, by a fight in the streets. The news that Marshal MacMahon had a difference with the Legislature, and that both sides were firm and determined, led people to look for a resort to force as naturally as they would in England or the United States look for a resort to compromise of some sort. The earlier stages of the conflict, too, differed in no respect from similar ones which had gone before it, except in the greater calm and moderation of speech of the Liberals. The Executive never behaved worse, or took so little pains to conceal its real aims and opinions. The logic of French politics, in fact, required that MacMahon should either disperse the Assembly, or that the mob should overthrow him in the streets, or that he should collect taxes without appropriations. His surrender, therefore, at the eleventh hour, after trying various expedients, and the quiet and peaceable entrance of the Republicans on the enjoyment of their triumph, may be said to be another important contribution to the cause of good government—perhaps the most important yet made, for it breaks a most blighting tradition. Hereafter the outbreak of a similar dispute will presage to the popular mind not civil war but a long and patient discussion, and the final victory of the majority; force will be the last and not the first thing thought of.

DAUDET'S 'NABAB.'

PARIS, December 14, 1877.

I CONFESS having a great dislike to what we call "Imperial novels"—novels the heroes and heroines of which belong to the Second Empire. Zola, who became famous by his 'Assommoir,' has written his 'Rougon, Macquart & Cie,' or the history of a family under the Empire, and now Alphonse Daudet, the author of 'Jack'—Daudet, whom many already call the French Dickens, has himself sacrificed to the political gods, and has published an "Imperial novel" called 'Le Nabab.' Every personage, almost, of this new novel was well known under the Empire. The "Nabob" himself was a M. Bravay, who had made a large fortune in Egypt by means which were so impure that, M. de Morny having undertaken to make a deputy of Bravay, the Corps Législatif invalidated his election three times, though universal suffrage had pronounced three times in succession in favor of this "official candidate." The "Nabob," after all, is not the real hero of M. Daudet's new story: it is the Duc de Mora—I ought to say, the Duc de Morny. Alphonse Daudet had many opportunities for the study of this Imperial duke. When he was very young, very poor, and writing his first novels, he was recommended to M. de Morny, who was then president of the Corps Législatif. M. de Morny gave him a place as "secrétaire-rédacteur" at the Corps Législatif. I must explain the word. The debates of the Corps Législatif were phonographically reported for the official papers; but the "secrétaires-rédacteurs" made a summary of the debates, which was distributed to the press. As the journals could not give their own account of the debates they were obliged to choose between the phonographic report, which was often too long, and the official summary. This was thought necessary in the interest of truth.

Daudet was the colleague of Ludovic Halévy, the famous author of the "Belle Hélène" and so many other pieces; and I have noticed that all the secretaries of the Corps Législatif (as many as ten) turned against the Empire and became its enemies. They were young men, and perforce became the witnesses of many things which were not likely to please a candid mind. Still, in the delineation of M. de Morny's character and life made by Daudet there is, in my opinion, too much admiration and involuntary respect left. I know that there is a school in France which has idealized Morny and which looks upon him as a type of elegant epicureanism. I could never forget the part which he took on the 2d of December. It was not his fault that he was a natural son of General de Flahault's, but it is a singular coincidence that a mystery enveloped his birth as well as the birth of Prince Napoleon and of Count Walewski. Alexander Dumas the Younger might explain better than myself how these men were fated to be brought together. The 2d of December was the plot of a few bastards and a few profligates—"ære alieno et vitiis onustos," as Tacitus says; or, as Corneille says in his "Cinna,"

> "Un tas d'hommes perdus de dettes et de crimes,
> Qui pressent de mes lois les ordres légitimes,
> Et qui, désespérant de les plus éviter,
> Si tout n'est renversé, ne sauraient subsister."

Such has always been, in all countries and in all times, the secret history of *coups d'état*. The saviours of society must generally save themselves first. Morny had spent his youth in the army, he had been admitted to the intimacy of the Duc d'Orléans, he had become a deputy; when Prince Napoleon was made President he allied himself to him. A few days before the *coup d'état*, he was, as usual, at the opera, and somebody spoke of the urgency of a "coup de balai" (the sweep of a broom). "Well!" said Morny, "if the broom comes in action I will take care to be on the side of the handle." He was on the side of the handle—he was almost the handle; he assumed the terrible responsibilities of the *coup d'état;* he trapped his old friends, his old protectors, and sent them to Mazas. He was well rewarded; he became one of the gods of the new Imperial Olympus. I saw him but once in his place in the Corps Législatif, with the great cordon of the Legion of Honor on his breast, pale, and presiding in a languid manner over debates which could not excite his interest, looking through his glass from time to time at the ladies who were in the galleries:

Daudet gives us the details of the life of the Duke:

"Notwithstanding the early hour, the drawing-room was full. You could see grave, anxious faces; prefects of the province with red lips and administrative whiskers, not quite so arrogant there as in their prefectures; magistrates with austere mien and sober gestures; deputies full of importance; the great financiers; rustic manufacturers; here and there the ambitious form of a *substitut* [the *substitut* is the lieutenant of the public prosecutor or *procureur*], or a prefectoral councillor in a solicitor's dress—black coat and white cravat; and all, whether standing or seated, grouped or solitary, would fain with silent gazing unlock that lofty door which was shut upon their destiny—the door through which they were to pass in an hour triumphant or defeated. Jenkins [Jenkins is the Duke's doctor] went rapidly through the crowd, and everybody followed with a look of envy this new-comer, whom the usher with the silver chain, cold and correct, seated before a table near the door, received with a faint smile, at once respectful and familiar.

"'Who is with him?' said the doctor, pointing to the Duke's chamber.

"With the lips only, and not without a slightly ironical twinkle of the eye, the usher murmured a name which, if they had heard it, would have incensed all these high personages who had been for an hour waiting till the audience of the costume-master of the opera should be ended.

"A noise of voices, a ray of light. . . . Jenkins had entered: *he* never waited.

"Standing up, with his back against the mantel, in a short blue fur jacket, the softness of which gave more expression to a proud and energetic head, the President of the Council ordered a *pierrette* costume, which the Duchess was to wear at his next ball, and gave his instructions with the same gravity with which he would have dictated the articles of a bill.

"'Plait the ruffle very fine, but do not plait the cuffs. . . . Good morning, Jenkins; I am yours in an instant.'"

Such was in truth the Duc de Morny; politics seemed to him the most frivolous part of his life, and frivolity the most serious. He had the soul of a gambler, and, not content with the ordinary emotions of the card-table, he launched into all sorts of gigantic speculations; he built railroads, he opened coal-mines, he was a sugar merchant, he lent money to Mexico, he was a partner of Jecker, he bought picture-galleries; he tried to astonish the Russians by his luxury when he was sent as ambassador-extraordinary to the coronation of the Czar.

The best chapter in Daudet's new novel is perhaps the account of the Duc de Morny's death. Morny died very rapidly from the same extraordinary malady which killed Madame ("Madame se meurt, Madame est morte")—a perforation of the intestines. Jenkins (everybody in Paris knows who Jenkins is) could not save him. Jenkins thought his patient's state was only owing to his restless and dissolute life; the post-mortem

examination showed that Jenkins had ignored the nature of the malady, if he had not been mistaken in its cause.

The Duke's intimate friend and factotum was an old beau, M. de Monpavon (read Montgazon). When death was near, Mora asked Monpavon to burn all his correspondence. The scene is well described: the visit of the Archbishop of Paris, the arrival of the Emperor, the terrible conversation of Mora and Monpavon after the last consultation of the doctors:

"Mora called Monpavon to his bedside. 'Oh! you know—no grimace. . . . Between us the truth . . . I am very low, am I not?' Monpavon paused significantly; then brutally, cynically, fearing that words would make him too tender: 'Done for [the French is much more energetic], my poor Auguste.' The Duke received this without wincing. 'Ah!' was all he said. He stroked his moustache mechanically, but his features remained unmoved. And his determination was at once taken."

Morny's death was a hard blow to the court of parasites, of elegant *viveurs* who lived on the crumbs of his prodigality; but I believe that Daudet is carried too far by his enthusiasm when he writes: "He was, this Mora, the most brilliant incarnation of the Empire. What you see in a building at a distance is not its solid or tottering base, its architectural mass; it is the fine gilt spire, with its open tracery, added for the gratification of the *coup d'œil*. What one saw of the Empire in France and in all Europe was Mora. Mora fallen, the monument was deprived of all its elegance, split by long crevasses." I confess that I cannot share in this sentiment. Mora always appeared to me a very vulgar adventurer, who played at politics as he would have played at poker. His horizon was not larger than the horizon of his club; he was satisfied with the admiration of a few idle loungers who met at the Jockey Club. He had no eloquence; the little speeches which he pronounced at the Corps Législatif were totally destitute of wit. He had taken for his model (for every ordinary man has a model) some broken-down *beaux* of the Restoration—men who lived for their stables, their English jockeys, their faded mistresses. He cared more for the camellia in his button-hole than for the symbol of the Legion of Honor which he was obliged to wear. His elegance was borrowed from his tailor, his *esprit* from a few literary parasites who hung about him, his courage from his indifference. His social success was the bitterest satire that could be made on society under the Second Empire.

Daudet himself felt that his Mora, his Monpavon, his horrible "Nabob," who throws himself with his millions on Paris, and is trying vainly to become one of the "happy few"—that this collection of knaves, brutes, swindlers, quacks, literary and political jugglers whom he depicts, the atoms which follow the train of his comets, would leave too painful an impression on the reader. There is a very humane vein in his talent, and he shows us here and there a charming oasis of simplicity and purity, of Dickens-like sympathy, if I might so express myself, in the chapter called "La famille Joyeuse." Poor M. Joyeuse is a clerk in a bank; he is a widower and lives with his young daughters; he plays the part of a mother to them; his children tie his cravat, brush his hat. M. Joyeuse is a man of imagination; on his way to the bank his brain is always at work; he is so poor that he lives in the clouds of his own mind. He shuts himself up every night with the four playful, laughing girls who live for him; he goes back to his nest, to that little drawing-room which has a piano, and where two lamps throw their green light. "La vraie famille est chez les humbles," says Daudet, and we must thank him for this phrase, unjust as it may be, since surely the domestic virtues are even more admirable in a poor household than in those houses where everything seems to conspire to keep the family together.

There are many happy and charming details in this 'Nabab'; but, on the whole, I consider it much inferior to 'Jack.' In 'Jack,' Daudet's humane character appears in full. Jack becomes a friend, you cannot help suffering with him; the tragedy of a life, sacrificed to empty brains or to a cruel selfishness, becomes at times almost sublime. In the 'Nabab' there is nothing of the kind; the hero, the Nabob, is simply repulsive; it is impossible to have any sympathy with this miserable idol when it is rudely thrown from its pedestal. Mora, the real centre of the novel, is, to my mind, a subject which a novelist has no right to touch. He belongs to history; he will be remembered as one of those courtiers to whom Tacitus has given an immortality of infamy. Napoleon III. was a fatalist like Mora; he also played with destiny as the low gambler plays with dice. But, after all, he was an Emperor; he carried for years a whole people with him; his armies won great victories, even if they were in the end forced to capitulate. He had plans, designs, thoughts; the Moras had nothing but appetites. The Napoleons were slaveholders; the Moras were but slave-drivers.

Correspondence.

PROTECTION AGAINST FEDERAL SPOLIATION.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In addition to the large amounts of railroad and other corporation loans made to the West by Eastern and foreign capitalists, the aggregate amount of smaller loans, made on the security of farms and village property to private borrowers, by individuals, trust companies, and others, has become very considerable. So implicit has been the trust of the lenders in the honesty of the Federal Government, its legislation and currency, that little effort has been made to secure themselves against any contingency except the solvency of the borrowers and the crude irregularities of State legislation. But it now behooves every one having or contemplating such loans to consider what means are requisite to protect themselves or their heirs from repayment in clipped coin, base metal, or some other worthless material, under the prompting and by the means of ignorant or dishonest Federal legislation.

With the present condition of the proposed silver and greenback swindles we are all familiar; and when we consider the apparent popularity of these schemes, and hear Congressmen with impecunious constituencies openly advocating a return to the income-tax, not because of its necessity or of its merits as a system, but solely on the ground that its incidence will fall only on a small territorial section of the country, thus imposing on it the sole burdens of a Government whose principal expenditures are made elsewhere, it is time to consider whether the populous and older sections of the country enjoy any means of protection against the vast legislative power which, by means of States without population, speculative Senators without constituencies, and other similar agencies, has been conferred upon the newer portions of the country. It would seem that ordinary precautions should prompt all institutions making such loans to stipulate for repayment either in U. S. gold coin of a coinage anterior to 1878, or in the coin of some foreign country—as, for instance, sovereigns. Such stipulations, while operating as a reasonable protection to the lender of good money, would tend to inform at least the responsible classes in the West and South that all schemes of repudiation and robbery of creditors by means of legislation, while they may, by abolishing credit, inflict great restrictions on the volume of business, and numerous other great and permanent injuries upon the country, can only operate once as a means of transferring one person's property to another. For all more remote purposes of that kind they are absolutely futile, since in the long run it will be found that the same industry and ability which have accumulated capital will suffice to take efficient care of it. Capital will go abroad, will remain at home, will go anywhere except where it is legislatively or habitually despoiled and maltreated.

Of the ultimate results to any district of country of excluding capital from its territory, its people must themselves be the judges. It is their own affair. As for the other scheme of defraying the expenses of the Federal Government by an income-tax, selected because by a malicious mode of graduation it can be made to fall mainly on limited portions of the country, the latter will take care of that when it comes. If the crude and juvenile financiers of the "pocket constituencies" are laboring under the impression that the hard-working, wage-saving population of the non-repudiating States can be made to bear the exclusive burden of their Indian-war swindles, mail-carrying robberies, railroad subsidies, levee embankments, river and harbor improvements, etc., etc., it may be just possible that they are making another of their little mistakes. Some portions of the country which bawl loudest of their "enterprise" possess little other capital than the land which has been given them by the older States, and the improvements made on it with money borrowed from more thrifty communities.

We, who do not depend on borrowed money or Government appropriations for our existence, can of course afford to smile at mere braggadocio and noise, since it does not hurt us for our friends to have a good opinion of themselves; but, as these quickly-succeeding schemes for our spoliation begin now to look serious, both as regards our credit abroad and our savings at home, it seems time to consider how far investments in distant States enjoy any stability of law or protection of Government, and whether it is safe to make any more.

W.

Philadelphia, Dec. 26, 1877.

ANCIENT AMERICAN POTTERY.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Under this heading Mr. Prime has, in his recent book on 'Pottery and Porcelain,' made a few statements which will mislead the general reader if attention is not called to them, and, as the reviewer of the work in the last number of the *Nation* passed this chapter without critical remark, it seems necessary to allude to them.

It will be noticed that Mr. Prime is impressed by the peculiar type of pottery which he says, in several places in the chapter, is from "Alaska"; and he also calls attention to the interesting character of the pottery on the Pacific coast from Peru "northward to Alaska." Now, if there is one fairly established fact in American archæology, it is that ancient pottery is *not found* on the Pacific coast north of Mexico. The old peoples of the Pacific coast were pre-eminently workers in stone, and substituted stone vessels and water-tight baskets for the terra-cotta vessels of the more southern and eastern nations. It is evident that Mr. Prime has been misled in some way, and has throughout his chapter attributed to Alaska that peculiar kind of pottery known to American students as the "Pueblo type." This beautiful ware is not only among the best, so far as delicate construction and, often, artistic design are concerned, which has been found in America north of Central America, but is the only kind in the region mentioned having the colors fixed by a glaze. The centre of development of this type is found in the vicinity of the Gila and Colorado rivers, and, though the oldest ruins yield the best specimens—as is generally the case in American art—the present Pueblo Indians of New Mexico have continued its manufacture in an inferior and slightly modified form; hence the name of "Pueblo pottery" given to the type.

It is worthy of remark that not only is there an absence of prehistoric pottery on the Pacific coast north of Mexico, but that the recent Indians of the same regions must be classed with the non-pottery-makers, the few rude specimens of cups and lamps made by the Innuits of the extreme northwest, as mentioned by Mr. Dall,* being exceptional, and probably of late origin. There is also reason to believe that the few articles of pottery noticed by the early Spaniards among the Indians of Lower California were brought over the Gulf, or were at least of exceptional manufacture.

Mr. Prime dwells on the "community" of the ceramic art of Peru, Central America, Mexico, and Missouri; but this is more than a study of a larger amount of material than probably was at his disposal would warrant. That there is a general resemblance between some of the forms of the Missouri pottery and that from the *coast* of Peru is true, but the important differences so far outnumber the slight resemblances that this Missouri type must be considered as distinct, unless it be regarded as the *early form* which, by a nation's migration, was afterwards developed in Peru; and of such a migration we have not yet the proof. We can likewise note the same general resemblances in the art as developed on the coast of Peru and about Lake Titicaca, and yet, though they have always been confused and mentioned under the general term of Peruvian, there are two distinct types; the Titicacan type being more easily compared, as a whole, with the early pottery of Cyprus than with that from Anco on the coast of Peru. There are evidently as many degrees of development of the prehistoric ceramic art in America as in the Old World, and also the same evidences of intrusion of one nation upon another here as there. The truth is that up to this time, notwithstanding the statement made by Jacquemart in the concluding paragraphs of his chapter on American pottery, the early ceramic art of America has not been considered worthy of study, owing to a generally received notion of its inferiority in an artistic sense; whereas it shows a development of art that is of the greatest importance, for if its origin and growth could be determined, many vexed ethnological questions would be settled.

Mr. Prime, while calling special attention to the high state attained at some period by the Peruvians, especially in the models of the human head, considers that there is as yet no evidence of the progression of the art in any locality. The comparatively large collections, from several localities, now in the Museum under my charge, will, when arranged in the building just completed, give the means of showing such a progression to a certain extent. Among other things I am confident it will show the development of some of the designs, and that the "Greek fret," for instance, had an independent origin in America, and was not developed from the combination of straight lines, but from the earlier and ruder "spiral ornaments," as in the Old World. This interesting form of ornamentation is shown in many combinations in the beautifully incised and colored pottery from the ancient shell-heaps and burial-places in Brazil—a remarkable type of pottery, which Mr. Prime has entirely overlooked, notwithstanding Prof. Hartt's several communications and illustrations. It is interesting to note here that the pottery found by Prof. Morse in the shell-heaps of Japan, the oldest pottery yet known from that country, is, judging from the photographs of the Japanese, more closely allied to this incised pottery from Brazil than to any other with which I am acquainted.

The pottery of the Atlantic coast is considered by Mr. Prime as having "little of artistic interest. They are of the simplest forms, and such as savages often produce." Yet it is to savages that we must look for the early stages, the beginnings of all ceramic art, and when one studies the several forms of this early type, with the first attempts at ornamentation—the finger-marks, basket-work, cord-marks, punches, cut lines, and the use of hand-stamps of various designs—the pottery from New England and the Southern Atlantic States offers many valuable suggestions.

Mr. Prime, judging from his preface and introduction, is evidently not prepared to allow a very great antiquity to the American nations, and probably will hardly accept the evidence now being offered of man in the glacial period of North America; nevertheless his argument in favor of the Peruvian pottery being only a few hundred years old should be accepted with caution. With a climate as nearly favorable as that of Egypt for the preservation of works of art, and with burial customs in several respects similar, we certainly are not authorized to assume that articles are of recent origin because they are found in comparatively good condition; and it must also be remembered that what has been called the Inca period in Peru was probably inferior in the development of art, at least about Lake Titicaca, to that which preceded.

F. W. Putnam.

Peabody Museum of American Archæology and Ethnology, Cambridge, Mass., December 22, 1877.

* 'Tribes of the Extreme Northwest. 1877. Powell's Survey' (p. 80).

Notes.

W. J. WIDDLETON will reprint in this country Sir Thomas Erskine May's 'Democracy in Europe.'——Jansen, McClurg & Co., Chicago, have in press 'Choice Readings, for Public and Private Entertainment,' by Prof. Robert McLain Cumnock, of the Northwestern University.——The committee of the Massachusetts Historical Society engaged in editing for the press the journals and letter-books of Chief-Justice Sewall desire to recover, if possible, the missing parts of the MSS., covering the period between April, 1677, and February 11, 1684-5. The last owner, who was unable to account for them, was the late Rev. Samuel Sewall, of Burlington, Mass.——The *New-Englander* begins its new bimonthly series with the current number. The most salient paper is a review of Joseph Cook's 'Biology' by a practised hand, name not given, but who is admitted to be an "eminent naturalist of orthodox opinions in religion." It bears some marks of haste, however, and the printer has not done it full justice. Prof. Carter, of Yale, reviews Principal Shairp's 'Poetic Interpretation of Nature,' and finds it vague and disappointing. Dr. Leonard Bacon approves President Hayes's course as regards the South, the civil service, and the currency. The religious tone of the periodical is well sustained in other articles.——The first number of *Sunday Afternoon* adds a tasteful, well-printed monthly to the list of our periodicals. The chief lesson of its table of contents is that the reading of fiction on Sunday is a good thing. Doctrinal controversy and the reconciliation of science with religion will be no concern of the editor's, he says in his salutatory, but questions of morality and of practical philanthropy will be allowed a large space. They figure to some extent in this January issue, of which the contributors are writers well-known for their scholarship or literary talents, and also for their liberal orthodoxy.——Berthold Auerbach will contribute to the *Deutsche Revue* in the second quarter of its second volume a new novel entitled "The Hostile Sisters" (*Die Feindlichen Schwestern*).——An International Geological Congress will meet in Paris on August 19, 1878, and will remain in session about two weeks. A geological exhibition in connection with it has been projected, contrary to the expectation of American geologists, who proposed that the geological department of the Universal Exposition be made as complete as possible.——The *Portfolio* for December, somewhat delayed by a press accident, has now arrived, and contains a good etching of Rajon's, after Chalmers, of a Frère-like group entitled "Prayer"; also Gainsborough's portrait of the "Beautiful Duchess," who kissed the butcher. For the

present year we have two interesting announcements: one by the editor, that his valuable articles on Turner will run through the volume and be completed before 1879; another from the American publisher, Mr. J. W. Bouton, that he has reduced the subscription-price to $10.

—The impulse which Harvard College Library is to receive from its new librarian is already manifest in its lately-published Bulletin (No. 6), which is a great improvement on the preceding numbers. They were merely bare and uninteresting lists of titles, bristling with abbreviations and otherwise typographically offensive. This number has not avoided all the defects of its predecessors, but it is better than they were, and, moreover, it does much that they did not attempt. It gives a list of the officers of the college library and of the departmental libraries; the rules; a statement of the library funds (from which we are glad to learn that the library has $15,000 to spend in books next year); notes on authorities in American history by Henry Cabot Lodge, running parallel to the syllabus of his lectures; and some miscellaneous notes, chiefly on recent publications. The latter suggest a comparison with Mr. Cutter's new annotated Bulletin which we noticed last September. The difference between the two is that the College Library notes, furnished and signed by the professors, will be an addition to the world's stock of criticism, and probably will deal chiefly with works of solid character, whereas the Athenæum notes are intended to be rather an anthology of contemporary criticism, so far as it can be represented in short extracts, and will to a much larger extent be in the department of belles-lettres. Both will have a certain permanent value; but the Harvard College notes, made by persons specially qualified to deal with the various subjects, will be of particular value in every college library in the country, among which the Library of Harvard College will no doubt soon take the same position that the Boston Public Library, under Mr. Winsor, took among city and town libraries.

—One runs over the list of contributors to the January magazines with some curiosity, partly because at the opening of the new year he expects each magazine to put its best foot forward, and partly to see what veterans still walk the stage, and who are the favorites among the new littérateurs. Here, among the poets, are Longfellow, Whittier, Holmes, and Cranch, of the older generation; Dr. Holland and J. T. Trowbridge of a later; and Stedman, Lanier, Paul Hayne, Fawcett, Boyesen, "H. H.," Celia Thaxter, and Emma Lazarus of the latest. Mr. Howells and Mr. Stoddard happen to have betaken themselves for the nonce to prose instead of verse. Among the novelists occur the familiar names of "Saxe-Holm," Edward Eggleston, and De Forest; while "Mark Twain," Charles Dudley Warner, Henry James, jr., and Edward King write humorously or sentimentally or realistically of their travels, and find at least a peer in a new-comer, Mrs. Jessie Fremont. Mr. R. G. White, writing on "Americanisms," and Mr. John Burroughs, on "Birds and Birds," are familiar objects to the critic of the magazines. Mr. Burroughs, by the way, mentioning several of our songsters in comparison with the nightingale and other British birds, omits to praise the notes of our wood-thrush, which Whittier describes perhaps as well as language can describe them in his poem in the *Atlantic*, in the single line—

"The wood-thrush rang his silver bell."

—The place of honor in the *Atlantic* is assigned not to any of the great names we have enumerated, but to the anonymous "South Carolinian" who has before this found the magazine a medium for communicating wholesome if unwelcome truths in regard to the Palmetto State. His present theme is "The Result in South Carolina"—meaning what has happened there since the President's "policy" took effect. He sums this up in his opening sentence, by saying that the State government is conducted at less cost with greater purity and efficiency; that crime and disorder have decreased and material prosperity increased; that there has been "a striking renewal of public, social, and military spirit among the whites," who have recovered at once their old political intolerance and their interest in Federal affairs; that the Republican party is extinct, and the negro banished from politics, to his great material advantage. And he concludes his paper by professing himself still uncertain whether "the result" is something to be lamented or the reverse. Most readers, we trust, will find no difficulty in taking the cheerful view of the situation, and we feel sure they would have been more apt to do so if "A South Carolinian" had given a little more attention to the chronology of the transition period which he endeavors to characterize, and had been a little more explicit as to the date, place, and circumstance of his more important incidents. His too indefinite and sweeping statements not only cause some confusion of mind, but might naturally excite distrust. His reasoning, however, strikes us as almost always sound, and that is what gives the chief value to his observations. We recommend his article to every one who wishes to see things as they are at the South, and especially to those who think that if "the result" had been a renewal of evil passions and race prejudices, "the policy" would have stood condemned. We recommend it still further to those who make the extinction of the Republican party the crucial test of the legality as well as the expediency of President Hayes's withdrawal of the troops. They will find ample food for reflection in this short passage, illustrating the new order of things: "You can see advertisements before the shops of negroes, like this: 'Patronize So-and-so, the only colored Democratic barber [or shoemaker] in town.'" Is not this shrewd fellow's Democracy as good an article as (say) Patterson's Republicanism? Has the negro lost anything but a name in losing "the party"?

—In the *Galaxy* a still more dispassionate observer, an Englishman, treats of "Negro Labor in Virginia"—"south-side Virginia," as he at once explains; for in truth there is the greatest difference in the general appearance and the agricultural prospects of the northern and the southern parts of the State. Mr. Siddons analyzes the character of the freedman without harshness but with entire frankness; acquits him of the graver crimes, but shows how his incorrigible petty larceny makes light crops, or, extended to rail fences, makes cattle-raising impossible; how his careless use of fire burns up fences and forests, and whatever buildings occur in the line of devastation; and what a thriftless, unintelligent, unprogressive cultivator he is. Add to this his incapacity for properly bringing up his own children, so that "we find that prudent business men, in employing labor, eschew young freedmen and seek the middle-aged." On the other hand, Mr. Siddons finds the whites—even those who do not share the unthrift and indolence of the blacks—at fault in not giving close personal superintendence to their laborers. Nevertheless, in spite of deteriorating soil, ruined enclosures, decayed dwellings, and all the other drawbacks enumerated, he thinks the farmers of this tobacco section are gradually bettering their condition, and laying up something in bank, while "one thing seems plain: hard necessity is here training up, out of the dashing, chivalrous slaveholders, one of the toughest, most enduring, and hardest types of the English-speaking races." Besides this article, we shall also bespeak attention for that on "The Defeat of Justice," by Theodore Bacon, which is an examination of the various forms of the pardoning power in the United States, and of the cause of its introduction into our constitutions, followed by a review of its abuses, and a suggestion of a substitute for it. The serious argument is enlivened by allusions to some serio-comic incidents in our recent history such as that "the mere fact of conviction of a crime presented to the [Federal] Chief Magistrate a *prima-facie* case for the issue of a pardon, without further enquiry"; and that a South Carolina judge was wont, in sentencing criminals under the rule of Governor Moses, to use this formula: "To the State's prison for five years, unless the Governor pardons you, as he probably will before you get there!" Mr. Bacon urges the erasure of the word "pardon" from all our systems, as a misnomer for what is but a remission of penalty; and proposes to make remission attainable only through a judicial proceeding; to empower all courts to reopen cases, on the ground of new evidence, at any time before the full execution of a sentence; and to make it competent for any person to testify in any case, no matter what his criminal record or penal condition; finally, if thus increasing the certainty of punishment should make existing penalties seem too heavy, to lighten them as may be proper. There are other articles in this final number of the *Galaxy* which both redeem it from moribund meagreness and induce regret that the magazine, after so long a struggle against adverse circumstances, has at last succumbed.

—The freshest thing in *Harper's* is the article on the Hot Springs of Arkansas, which is materially improved by the illustrations. The invalid, the mineralogist, the sportsman, and the lover of the picturesque have about equal inducements to visit this remarkable region, which has lately acquired some of the graces of civilized society without losing any of the charms of nature. The social aspects of life at the springs are least adequately treated by this writer, but they seem to promise a fair field for the humorist and not a bad one for the great American novelist. At least the romantic possibilities of the "corn hole" should not be inferior to those of Poker Flat or Sandy Bar. Mrs. Fremont's agreeable "Year of American Travel" is concluded in this number, the last part falling but little if any short of the two preceding in variety and interest. It tells chiefly of life at Monterey and San José, and of luxurious camping out en route between these places and San Francisco. But of more than

personal importance is the glimpse here afforded of the share which the Fremonts had in excluding slavery from the Constitution of California. The temptations for an eager, speculative population, with a scarcity of labor and a most laborious task of extracting mineral wealth from the soil, to encourage the introduction of slaves, are well set forth—temptations from which Colonel Fremont himself was by no means exempt. The homeward journey, after Fremont was made Senator, proved, like the outward, nearly fatal to his wife, but also showed her the good side of her countrymen :

"In every part of my journey I came upon proof upon proof of this manly kindness and care for women among our American men. To travel alone in Europe is impossible ; even travelling with one's children and a maid you do not receive the respect or attention that you have if there is a gentleman in the party. But in our country it is exactly different. The need of attention or assistance draws out that instinctive sense of protection which seems to be innate in our people. To be in mourning, or look ill or sad, or to be encumbered with children, is a sure appeal to the exercise of this instinct."

Apropos of Mr. Burlingame's recent paper on defunct magazines, Mr. Curtis describes in the Easy Chair, with knowledge and with a kindly sympathy, two of the bright lights of Knickerbocker literature—Charles Fenno Hoffman and the late Charles F. Briggs.

—The most striking feature of *Scribner's* is the amount of poetry contained in this single number—not less than nine pieces, of which five are massed together as if on some floral principle. But we cannot bestow much praise upon the collection. There is an article on the growth of cities in the United States which is suggestive rather than instructive, for the writer's handling of his statistics is not as dextrous as it should be. Mr. L. M. Dorman's "Century of Civil Service," on the contrary, pursues a good idea clearly and logically to the end, showing how our new republic started out under Washington with sound notions as to the purity and efficiency of the civil service, while England's was still corrupt, and how, in the past fifty years, the two countries have each reversed the theory and practice of the preceding fifty. Washington's views of his duty in appointments are expressed in his own words. The elder Adams's "nepotism," as we should now call it, in appointments ; Jefferson's rigid rule never to appoint a relative to office, while hankering to put an end to the "monopoly of offices in the hands of the minority," and to "assert some rights in the majority also"; Madison's amiable weakness in listening to the recommendations of low and designing men ; Monroe's respect for the *status quo ;* and John Quincy Adams's steadfast refusal to remove his political enemies on personal or party grounds, are all effectively passed in review. The enormous and sudden change for the worse, under Jackson and his immediate successors, is next described with the aid of some little-known authorities, and the duty of the country to return to the principles of Washington and J. Q. Adams, by availing itself of President Hayes's professions, is well enforced. We are glad that so fresh and readable a delivery on a trite subject is to have the benefit of *Scribner's* large circulation.

—Mr. Alfred T. Bacon's second paper in *Lippincott's*, describing his "Month in Sicily," is even more interesting than the first. Selinus and Agrigentum, and the enchanting coast between these ruins, are the subject of it. There is an unpretentious narrative, by General James S. Brisbin, of a trip through the Wind River country, which incidentally gives a good deal of information concerning the material resources of the valley, the Indians (Shoshones and Bannocks) who inhabit it, and the fortunes of the solitary white settlers. Two anecdotes are very characteristic of frontier life : one of a pioneer who had given his note for a ranche afterwards found to be on the Indian reservation, and who, having been condemned by a referee to pay his note all the same, said : "Well, gentlemen, that settles it ; but d—n me if I don't take in some other chap and sell him the ranche !"—which he afterwards did. The other is of two women, a widow and her niece, who lived alone, without fear of the Indians, having practised shooting with a view to emergencies of that sort. General Brisbin's admonition, that the Indians would certainly come and kill them some day, proved only too well founded. In the title of Mr. Paul R. Shipman's paper, "The Late Judge Nicholas of Kentucky," there is something like a challenge of the reader's knowledge. Not to have heard of Judge Nicholas perhaps argues one's self unknown ; not to be ashamed, after listening to his biographer, of having overlooked so great a man, might possibly imply that Mr. Shipman had magnified the subject of his admiration. In fact, however, he has made a very praiseworthy sketch of a man of character who was offered by President Johnson a seat on the Supreme Bench of the United States, but declined it in anticipation of not being confirmed by the Senate ; who resigned the Chancellorship of Kentucky because he would not form part of an elective judiciary, and who in other ways (though not in all ways) set a good example as a citizen and a jurist. Judge Nicholas's pedigree was well worth the space allotted to it, and the whole paper is a model of temperate eulogy and frank though friendly portraiture. Judge Nicholas was author of a modified scheme of electing the President which still merits consideration.

—A correspondent writes us :

"It seems but fair to point out that the extract from Canon Farrar's sermon given in the *Nation* for Dec. 27 seems to be taken from an incorrect report, and involves a misrepresentation against which the Canon has protested. In a recent letter to the London *Guardian* he says : 'Many complete misrepresentations of the language and purport of a sermon which I recently preached in Westminster Abbey have found their way to public notice. . . . To say, as these reports have done, that I 'denounced the doctrine of *eternal* punishment,' or expressed a hope that the word 'eternal' might not appear in the revised translation, is, as most of your readers will have seen at a glance, utter nonsense.' The subject of the Canon's sermon was an endeavor to show the possibility of an extension of *probation* after this life, a doctrine plainly distinct from the denial of eternal punishment, with which it has been, perhaps not unnaturally, confounded."

Mr. Beecher, too, is alleged to have suffered some misrepresentation—how much, any one can see for himself in the *Christian Union* for Dec. 26, which contains in full the sermon to which we alluded last week, and which we now, of course, read for the first time. It appears that what would "make an infidel of him," as he says, is not arguing that hell has existed since the year A.D. 33, but arguing that it was needed before that date ; or, to use his own words: "Tell me that back of Christ there is a God who for unnumbered centuries has gone on creating men and sweeping them like dead flies—nay, like living ones—into hell, is to ask me to worship a being as much worse than the conception of any mediæval devil as can be imagined."

—An exquisite manuscript of the "Romaunt of the Rose" will be on view at the auction-rooms of the Messrs. Leavitt until the 9th instant. We see so many more old illuminated vellums of a sacred character than of the purely literary type that this early love-song in its brilliant freshness has a vivid interest. The first illumination shows the poet mediævally nude in bed, or rather rising half-way out of bed, and surrounded by fair women, while half-a-dozen more of the same superior sex, decked with the most rigid and uncomfortable charms of the fourteenth century, look out upon society from the crenellations of a garden-wall in front. There are thirty-eight of these miniatures, very small, and of the rarest finish, the faces cut with cherry-stone minuteness on their backgrounds of blue and gold. The pictures are supposed to be by Charles IX.'s own illuminator, and there is a sonnet to the king on the first leaf, by Antoine de Baïf, poet of the Academy, which looks at first sight oddly modern in its lettering of ordinary Roman print. The owner, we learn, gave more than $1,900 for this specimen of the literary dissipation which Catherine arranged for the young king. The volume contains 154 leaves, which were formerly blackened a little at the edges in a fire, and are now cut down to the dimensions of 8 by 11 inches, but leave a sufficiently broad margin still. Another manuscript, a missal of the fifteenth century, with full-page paintings framed in uncommonly good floral borders, one of which was selected by Racinet for reproduction in his 'Ornement Polychrome,' will be found in the same collection, forming part of the library of a New York lawyer to be sold at Clinton Hall next week.

—The new (second) edition of Ottokar Lorenz's 'Deutschlands Geschichtsquellen im Mittelalter seit der Mitte des dreizehnten Jahrhunderts' is now complete in two volumes. The first volume, published last year, is devoted to South Germany ; the second, just published, is in two divisions —North Germany, and *Reichs- und Kaisergeschichte*. The work is mostly made up of notices of a multitude of obscure authors, whose importance is confined to the state or city of which they write ; for this their value cannot be exaggerated. The last division, however, being of a more general character, contains the account of many authors of wide reputation, like Marsilius of Padua, William of Occam, Cardinal D'Ailly, Chancellor Gerson, and Gregory of Heimburg. It contains, moreover, some compendious and exceedingly good remarks upon the great politico-theological controversies which called out the writings of these men. The last two chapters—upon the periods respectively of the controversy between Louis of Bavaria and Pope John XXII., and of the Schism—about fifty pages in all, present an admirable view of the course of thought and doctrine at these epochs. As an authority upon the history of this period, especially of the last half of the thirteenth century, this author probably has no rival.

NEW ENGLAND FEDERALISM.*

A COLLECTION of historical documents can rarely be called dramatic, but this term may be very fitly applied to the contents of the volume whose title we give below. In the political drama which is here unfolded the various personages tell severally their own stories in their own language, state their own opinions, and reveal their own characters, while the editor preserves as scrupulous an impersonality as the most finished playwright. These letters, public and private, revive in all its pristine vigor a controversy which has long slumbered, and the actors in these nearly-forgotten scenes move here before the eyes of posterity instinct with all the hopes, fears, and passions which find such powerful expression in their correspondence. The outlines of this controversy, which has now passed into the domain of history, can be briefly stated.

During the summer of 1827 the Hon. William B. Giles, then Governor of Virginia, was engaged in the congenial task of electioneering in behalf of General Jackson. In the words of John Quincy Adams, Mr. Giles had made it the occupation of his life "to compose and publish ribaldry and invective upon his superiors," and his employment in the summer of 1827 was an excellent illustration of the truth of this statement. The particular object which he then had in view was to convince the people of Virginia that the god of their idolatry, Mr. Jefferson, was not opposed to Jackson, but had a very low opinion of Jackson's rival, Mr. Adams. For this purpose Mr. Giles had written to Mr. Jefferson shortly before the latter's death to obtain, if possible, his assistance in holding up Mr. Adams to the public as a traitor to his friends in 1807, as well as in reprobating his general policy while President. In response Mr. Jefferson wrote two letters to Mr. Giles. The first one was intended for publication and as a vindication of Mr. Adams's course in 1807; the second was confidential, and discussed in a hostile spirit the principles laid down in Mr. Adams's first message. Mr. Giles, characteristically enough, suppressed the first letter and published the second. Thereupon some supporters of Mr. Adams in Virginia obtained from Col. Randolph a copy of the first letter to Giles, and gave it to the public. In this first letter Mr. Jefferson had intended to justify completely Mr. Adams's actions in 1807, but unwittingly and through great and obvious confusion of memory he exhibited Mr. Adams in the light of a deserter who had sought to make peace with his enemies by secret accusations against his former friends. Mr. Adams now felt an explanation on his part to be necessary, and an authorized statement appeared in the *National Intelligencer*, which showed that Mr. Adams in 1807 had only warned Mr. Jefferson that British intrigues to increase party dissension and to divide the Union were on foot in New England. The statement, however, went on to say that in 1808 Mr. Adams had written to Mr. Giles and others in Congress that a continuance of the embargo would lead in New England to resistance, civil war, the co-operation of Great Britain, the dissolution of the Union, and the establishment of a Northern confederation, which he knew from unequivocal evidence, although not provable in a court of law, to have been the objects of the Federal leaders for several years.

Into the controversy thus opened Mr. Giles, assisted by his excellent friend Senator John Randolph, plunged with delight, and fell to garbling facts and blackening his opponent's character with his wonted zeal. Meanwhile, Mr. Adams's sweeping charges, as perhaps the amiable Giles foresaw in the beginning, had aroused in another quarter old enmities which had slumbered undisturbed so long as to seem wholly extinguished. In the autumn of 1828 thirteen gentlemen of Boston, most of them prominent Federalists in the struggles of twenty years before, a few of them sons of the former leaders of the party, addressed a letter to Mr. Adams asking specifications and evidence of the charges recently made by his authority in the *National Intelligencer*. In reply Mr. Adams confessed to his belief in his accusations, reiterated them, and refused to answer further, taking advantage of technical objections which, however admirable in special pleading, seem now neither fair nor sufficient in a case of this kind. One explanation of this proceeding, so unlike Mr. Adams's usual behavior, may perhaps be found in the fact now made apparent, that he had at the moment no perfectly satisfactory or conclusive evidence to bring forward in support of his accusations.

On receiving Mr. Adams's answer, the Boston Federalists published an appeal to the people, the essence of which was contained in the following paragraph in reference to the plan of disunion alleged by Mr. Adams to have existed in 1803–4: "We solemnly disavow all knowledge of such a project, and all remembrance of the mention of it or of any plan analogous to it at that or any subsequent period." With Mr. Adams's refusal to give names or evidence and with this solemn denial the controversy closed, and the sequel has been reserved for posterity. Had this sequel never been given them, as Dr. Von Holst says, the judgment of history must have been suspended, the burden of proof must have rested with Mr. Adams and the victory at this stage with his opponents. When Mr. Adams left the Presidency, smarting under defeat and attacks of every kind, he at once prepared a long and elaborate reply to the appeal of the Boston Federalists, and he also obtained additional and conclusive evidence from Mr. Plumer, of New Hampshire, showing that separation was urged among the Federalist leaders in 1804. This reply, for good and sufficient reasons, was not published, and is now given to the world for the first time, and forms the larger part of the present volume. It is preceded by the correspondence which gave rise to the controversy, and is followed by a series of private letters relative to this subject, drawn chiefly from the Pickering MSS., and some of which have not before been printed. All the important documents are thus grouped together, and the judgment of history need no longer be suspended.

The net result seems to be this: Mr. Adams charged that a plot to dissolve the Union existed in 1804 among the leading New England Federalists; that this plot was never abandoned, but was revived in 1807 and in 1814; that this was the object of the Hartford Convention, and that the Federalists plotted treason with John Henry, the British negotiator, and longed for separation as a good thing in itself. Reviewing these accusations in the light of all the other evidence, the last two may be at once dismissed as wholly groundless, though reasonable enough to the imagination of a heated partisan. As to the others, there can be no manner of doubt from the papers in this volume that in 1804 there was among the Federalist leaders in Congress a plan to dissolve the Union, and that Timothy Pickering, James Hillhouse, Roger Griswold, and probably Uriah Tracy, were its principal supporters. It appears also that from various motives the leaders of the party in the different States, including Alexander Hamilton, Rufus King, George Cabot, and others, were opposed to the scheme, and that through their opposition and the subsequent death of Hamilton it came to nothing. Whether it was then abandoned is a mere question of terms. In 1807–8 secession was freely discussed in New England; it was advocated in the press and was echoed by the resolves of town-meetings, but the sentiment of some of the leaders, who perceived the party advantage given them by the embargo, appears to have been against it. At any rate, nothing definite was either planned or carried out.

As to the Hartford Convention, the great theme of Mr. Adams's 'Reply,' opinions must always differ. The impression produced by a perusal of these papers is that there were two elements among the Federalists in 1814. One comprised the younger, more violent, and more extreme men, who were only too ready for desperate measures. The other was composed of more moderate men, who, although they deemed it probable that there must in the end be a dissolution of the Union, were determined to delay to the last any decisive action, to curb party violence, and, if possible, to avoid secession. The latter element prevailed at Hartford. With the state of facts disclosed in these papers, it is difficult to reconcile the general denial just quoted from the "appeal" of the Boston Federalists. The signers of this appeal were all men of honor, integrity, and high position in the community, which makes still more insoluble the difference between their statement and the facts displayed in this volume. This contradiction is, however, susceptible of explanation in large measure. Some of the signers were too young to have been in the party councils from 1804 to 1814, and none of them, with the exception possibly of Mr. Otis, occupied such a position as would have admitted them to the carefully-kept secrets of 1804. As to the later period, they must all have known that secession was freely and publicly advocated, but there was no definite "plan" of action, either in 1807 or in 1814. On this word "plan," therefore, their denial must hinge, and, taken in this way, it strongly confirms the view that there was no settled scheme of disunion later than that of 1804.

There are many other interesting features in this collection of papers besides those of purely historical value. From a literary point of view, the main document, Mr. Adams's 'Reply,' is a remarkable composition. There is no noticeable richness in Mr. Adams's ordinary style, but when he launches out into invective the wealth of his vocabulary, the vigor of his sarcasm, the savage ferocity of his direct assaults, combine to make this paper an almost unequalled piece of political controversial writing, worthy to rank with the best efforts in this branch of literature. It re-

* 'Documents relating to New England Federalism, 1800–1815. Edited by Henry Adams.' Boston: Little, Brown & Co. 1877.

veals also, in a striking manner, some salient traits of the writer's character. His inability to judge character coolly and justly by casting off prejudice, his strong sense of right which led him to act correctly in essentials, and his want of tact which led to his failure in details, and to many of the bitter hostilities which always environed him, are all conspicuous here. Hardly less so is the strange habit of forming a clear, sharply-defined theory, and then forcing men and facts to fit it by an absolute rejection of the endless modifications of human character and motives. Another point is the writer's curious process of selection among his opponents. Mr. Adams believed Colonel Pickering to be the head and front of the Separatist movement, yet he scarcely mentions him, while upon Harrison Gray Otis he pours out the vials of his wrath with unstinting hand. Prof. Adams has omitted the most personal passage relating to Mr. Otis; but enough remains, and if the invective of Mr. Adams be read in connection with the sharp censures of Colonel Pickering and the Federalists, there is but little left of a hostile nature to be said against the unlucky "father of the convention." The wavering character of Mr. Otis found no mercy at the hands of the vigorous combatants among whom he was thrown. There is, too, a wholly different tone in Mr. Adams's treatment of his New England opponents from that displayed towards Giles and Randolph. The former has an almost fratricidal bitterness, but is not wanting in respect for his antagonists, while the latter suggests nothing but an abounding contempt for the utterly vile.

HEBREW MYTHOLOGY.—I.*

SINCE Max Müller claimed for the study of comparative religion the position of a new science, which was to unlock the sacred mysteries of the past, the subject, always fascinating to a certain class of minds, has acquired a wider and more popular interest than before. The development of the stores of Eastern learning has afforded materials hitherto unknown, and the various faiths of the great races of mankind can be followed into remote antiquity, their origins sought, and their evolution compared, with a fulness and accuracy not previously attainable. Yet with all this the "science" is not a new one, it has not as yet the remotest claim to the dignity of a science, nor do its modern votaries display any more of the true scientific spirit or use methods more scientific than their forerunners, who for more than two thousand years have amused themselves with identifying different faiths and seeking for the esoteric meanings supposed to be concealed in popular mythologies. Diodorus Siculus explained the myths of Greece by the operations of Nature with as shrewd a rationalism, and Plutarch with ingenuity as well directed, as Kuhn or Müller, or their follower, the Rev. Mr. Cox. Euhemerus and his school displayed as keen an insight in the use of their materials as those who now ridicule them; and Herodotus identified the polytheisms of Greece and Egypt, and Dionysius of Halicarnassus those of Greece and Rome, as confidently as any modern philologist. Since then, except during the Dark Ages, there never has been a lack of learned men ready to speculate on such subjects and to put forward their speculations as incontrovertible verities.

The difficulty in accepting their results lies in the tendency of every investigator to have his pet theory, to which all facts must be made to bend. Some general principle is assumed to be the master-key which will open all mysteries, and everything which will not yield to it is either quietly ignored or boldly distorted. The systematizer loses sight of the truth that popular religions are most complex things, originating from and reflecting all the shifting and conflicting moods of heart and soul, and that whatever once forms part of them is apt to be retained with a tenacity which defies all logic, however antagonistic or incompatible it may seem in relation to later elements. The ancestor-worship which prevailed in China from the pre-historic period of the Hia dynasty is still the sole recognized official religion, despite the intrusion of Taoism and Buddhism. The mingled nature and soul-worship of the Japanese aboriginal Shinto is now reviving, and is extruding the imported faiths that seemed to have annihilated it. The hero and ancestor-worships of Greece and Rome assumed but a slight disguise when they took the shape which fitted them into the hagiology of Christianity; and oddly enough they reappear where one would least expect them, in the calendar of the Comtists. Fetishism, which scientific mythologists assure us is the cult of the rudest and most primitive state of humanity, holds its own in spite of the most advanced civilization and the loftiest conceptions of the relations of man with the supernatural. It is perfectly at home amid the subtle speculations of Buddhism, and it degrades the sublime simplicity of Gospel teachings with transubstantiation, relics, scapulars, and winking Virgins. As we write, there lies before us a French Ultramontane journal of October 20 last, which triumphantly points out that the only arrondissement in Paris which returned a MacMahonite deputy in the recent election was that in which stands the church of Notre Dame de Salut, before whose thaumaturgic image the *neuvaine* of prayers for the success of the clerical candidates had been observed with special fervor.

Spontaneous religions are composed, in varying proportions, of fetishism, nature-worship, and soul-worship, and the various elements of these are frequently so intermingled and disguised that their accurate analysis becomes almost impossible. Yet those who investigate them, with scarcely an exception, attempt that analysis with a single reagent, and therefore can obtain no results worthy of consideration, except as material for fuller and broader investigations. It simplifies the problem, of course, to omit all the unknown quantities but one, but, whatever be the show of scientific processes employed, the resulting formula is utterly inadequate to the solution sought, and therefore utterly unscientific.

Each age has had its own system of interpretation according to its prevailing currents of thought. The early Christian fathers believed that all heathen gods were merely the imps of Satan, permitted for some inscrutable purpose to deceive humanity. Suidas informs us that the saga of the Golden Fleece related simply to a book on magic and alchemy written upon parchment. The earnest study of the Scriptures to which the Reformation and its controversies gave rise, led scholars to seek in the Biblical narratives the source of all other faiths, which were regarded as degenerate corruptions of the primitive revelation bestowed by God on man. Sometimes the desired results were obtained by means of the derivation of words; and in the existing ignorance of comparative philology, the simplest assonance between syllables of the most widely differing languages was held sufficient to justify the oddest identifications. Guillaume Postel, who, though crack-brained, was the most learned Orientalist of his day, was certain that the name of the Brahmans was derived from Abraham. Others held that Shem was the same as the obscure Latin deity, Semo Sancus; while Ham, who obtained Egypt, was indubitably the god worshipped in the Nile Valley as Ammon; Japhet was unquestionably the Titan Japetus, and Moses was Musæus. Similarity of incident was an equally fruitful source of identification. As Noah divided the world between Shem, Ham, and Japhet, even as Cronus partitioned the universe between Zeus, Poseidon, and Hades, so the actors were necessarily the same, and Zeus was no other than Ham, Poseidon than Japhet, and Hades than Shem. Noah's planting of the vine naturally identified him with Dionysus, and his survival of the Deluge with Deucalion; but it is not so easy to understand the reasoning which variously proved his identity with Osiris, Prometheus, Saturn, Janus, Uranus, the Oannes of Berosus, Foh the Chinese Buddha, and the Noh of the Hottentots; while his putative wife, Naamah, became Vesta, Rhea, Cybele, or Venus.

The history of this laborious trifling might be extended almost indefinitely from examples supplied to us by the foremost scholars of the sixteenth, seventeenth, and eighteenth centuries, but the fashion gradually passed away except among the most conservative, where it lingers even yet. The scepticism of the encyclopædists and their school soon found fresh material to work upon in the labors of the Anglo-Indians, led by Sir William Jones and Colebrooke, while the development of the antiquities of Egypt by the savants of Napoleon's expedition contributed much food for thought and speculation. Some enthusiasts discovered their universal solvent in phallism, or in tree and serpent-worship; but the tendency of the age was directed to the pursuit of the natural and physical sciences, and this was not long in manifesting its influence on the theories of mythologists. The modern school was practically founded by Dupuis, who, in his 'Origine de tous les cultes, ou religion universelle,' exhausted the learning accessible at his day in the effort to show the astronomical origin of all religions and religious symbols. Creuzer, on the other hand, in his 'Symbolik,' vainly poured forth his vast erudition in proving that all religion was originally a monotheism, from which the various polytheisms were derived. The tide set too strongly in the direction of naturalism to be resisted. The development of European science was taking more and more the form of close observation of nature, and nature consequently was more and more assumed to be the sole object of attention to the primeval savage; while the increasing study of the Vedas, the attention bestowed upon folk-lore, and the deciphering of the cuneiform inscriptions, gave new and important material out of which to construct new systems. The brilliant identification—due, we believe, to Max Müller—of Dyaus with

* 'Mythology among the Hebrews, and its Historical Development. By Ignaz Goldziher, Ph.D., member of the Hungarian Academy of Sciences. Translated from the German, with additions by the author, by Russell Martineau, M.A., of the British Museum.' 1 vol. 8vo, pp. xxxv.–457. London. 1877.

Zeus and Jovis, and of Varuna with Uranus, broke down all restraint. Comparative philology was proclaimed to be the long-sought-for key, and nature-myths to be the infallible solution of all the mysteries that had defied interpretation for thousands of years: and learned professors vied with each other in the reckless ingenuity with which they tortured all the mythologies and legends of the world into endless duplications of the loves and combats of night and day, sun and moon, dawn and twilight. Already there are signs of a healthy reaction. Coulanges' thoughtful little book, 'La Cité Antique,' is a well-directed effort to restore ancestor-worship to its true place as one of the prime factors in religious belief, though he too commits the error of rendering his theory too exclusive.

To this reaction the book under review ought to contribute its share, for it is a shining example how abundant learning and ingenuity, under the forms of scientific method, when unrestrained by sobriety of judgment, may lead the comparative mythologist to the most extravagant and absurd conclusions. Prof. Goldziher is a man of wide erudition, especially familiar with the Semitic languages and literature, and already known by his 'Studien über Tanchûm Jerûschalmi,' published in 1870. Unfortunately his discretion is not equal to his attainments and his ardor. Some fifteen years ago, Professor Steinthal tried his hand at the "scientific" resolution of some of the Hebrew myths, and by profound psychological and philological methods proved satisfactorily to himself that Samson was a beneficial sun-god and Delila either an evil moon-goddess or the winter-goddess, while Moses, moreover, was merely a Semitic adaptation of the Vedic Matarisvan and Hellenic Prometheus, for when "Moses struck water out of the rock with his staff, the staff is the lightning, the rock the cloud, the water the rain" (pp. 391, 428-9). Regretting that this promising field of speculation had remained uncultivated since these first efforts of Steinthal, Goldziher has taken up the subject, resolved that not a single character in Genesis should escape identification with the all-pervading nature-myth if ingenuity could effect its transformation. In this he succeeds to his satisfaction, though he apologizes because a few resist the reaction of all the solvents that he can apply. Some of the sons of Jacob are among these, and also Arphaxad, and he takes credit to himself when he "resists the temptation" of unveiling the secrets hidden under the names of Selah and Eber, "as it is not my business here to indulge in vain speculations" (p. 132).

COBDEN.*

"WE have no desire to be politicians. If I were not convinced that this question comprises a great moral principle, and involves the greatest moral revolution ever yet accomplished for mankind, I should not take the part I do in this agitation. Free-trade! What is it? Why, breaking down the barriers that separate nations—those barriers behind which nestle the feelings of pride, revenge, hatred, and jealousy which every now and then burst their bounds and deluge whole countries with blood—those feelings which nourish the poison of war and conquest, thinking that without conquest we can have no trade—which foster a love for conquest and dominion, and send forth your warrior chiefs to scatter devastation in other lands, and then to return, enthroned securely in your passions, to harass and oppress you at home. It is because I think that I have a full apprehension of the moral bearings of this question that I take pride and gratification in sharing the present agitation; and I invite you all to take part in it, for there is room and glory and fame enough for all of us in the achievement of the great triumph of corn-law repeal."

Thus spoke Cobden in 1843, and his words afford the best comment on his career which could be wished for, either by an admirer or by a critic. Moreover, they contain the true account of Cobden's claim to permanent fame or the gratitude of mankind. He was not a great economist; he did not originate any economical doctrine; and if he expounded the arguments in favor of free-trade with unrivalled lucidity, he could not, from the nature of the case, produce a single argument or a single illustration which had not been already put forward by men of far greater intellectual power than his warmest admirers can ascribe to Cobden. The theory of free-trade had been worked out before Cobden was born. The intellect of England had condemned the corn-laws before Cobden began his agitation. "As for the corn-laws, my opinion any time these ten years has," writes Thomas Carlyle, "been complete and even, so to speak, more than complete. For these ten years I have heard no argument or shadow of an argument in behalf of them which was not of a kind too literally to make the angels weep. I consider that if there is a pernicious, portentous, practical solecism threatening huge ruin under the sun at present, it is that of corn-laws in such an England as ours of the year 1843." On this matter the language of O'Connell was as decided and fully as vigorous as Carlyle's. Nor was it Cobden who enlisted democratic fervor on the side of the League. Mr. Ashworth's work suggests that on the whole the artisans, occupied as they were with the agitation for the Charter, did not heartily support a movement which was under the guidance of millowners and manufacturers. As far as the workingmen were won over to the cause of the League, they were conciliated rather by the democratic ring of Bright's eloquence than by the cogency of Cobden's arguments. Cobden's force did not lie in his eloquence or in his skill as a party leader. It lay, where he has placed it, in his "full apprehension of the moral bearings of the question." For good and bad alike he may be compared rather to a religious teacher than to a statesman. He preached the cause of free-trade in season and out of season. The whole movement bore in his own eyes a moral aspect. To abolish the corn-laws was to take the first step towards that universal freedom of commerce which in his mind was identified with the end of hostile rivalry amongst nations and the commencement of an era of universal peace and prosperity. For a time, at least, he impressed his own belief on the most vigorous part of the English nation. The cause of economic science for once received the aid of moral enthusiasm, and a struggle which might perhaps have lasted for years was brought to a rapid close, partly through the accident of favoring circumstances, but in great part also from the fact that Cobden had aroused the moral feeling of the people, and had led good men of all classes to identify protection with selfishness.

In some respects, no doubt, the leaders of the League were greatly favored by circumstances. That the monopoly attacked was a monopoly of the people's food gave a rhetorical force to denunciations of protection which is wanting when the protected interest deals in iron or linen. Peel's education and intellect must in many respects have predisposed him to conversion by Cobden. If Peel had not been a Conservative minister he would probably have been a leading member of the League. But, when every deduction is made, Cobden's triumph must in fairness be attributed to the goodness of his cause and the qualities of his character. At a time when, from causes which we may in some future article attempt to analyze, popular stupidity and the misplaced ingenuity of literary paradox-mongers have produced something like a reaction in England in favor of protection, it is a duty to speak the plain truth on what ought to be a plain matter. The man who said that protection always meant robbing somebody, only put a palpable truth into a telling form. Cobden, Bright, and their associates who pressed this truth in every shape in which it could be presented upon the attention of the English public, succeeded and deserved to succeed, because they had on their side the whole force of undeniable facts and incontrovertible arguments. Nor can Cobden's character be left out of account in estimating the causes of his success. There are some men whose words bear the unmistakable impress of sincerity and faith. That Cobden was one of these men we do not for a moment doubt. You might as well believe that Knox was insincere in his hatred of popery, that Wesley was a hypocrite aiming at making money rather than saving souls, or that Burke did not detest the revolutionary movement, as conceive that Cobden did not believe heart and soul in the great moral revolution to be effected by free-trade. The critics who wish to understand even the weak side of a man like Cobden must begin by admitting to the full the strength of his character, and must look for his defects not in opposition to, but in close connection with, his virtues.

The passage from his speeches already cited shows clearly enough what were some of the defects which will always detract from Cobden's fame, and prevent him from taking the highest rank among either statesmen or reformers. The astonishing assertion that the free-trade movement "involves the greatest moral revolution ever yet accomplished for mankind," might in the mouth of an ordinary speaker, or even of a great orator such as John Bright, pass for a rhetorical exaggeration. In the mouth of Cobden we believe that it is the simple expression of genuine belief. But the moment you give the words their full weight you are forced to astonishing conclusions as to the convictions of the leader by whom they are uttered. Grant (what is very possible) that Cobden considered the progress of Christianity to belong to an order of events which could not be described as a moral revolution, and did not therefore mean to compare the destruction of paganism with the repeal of the corn-laws, it still remains the fact that the moral revolutions worked by the Renaissance, the Reformation, the great French Revolution, and other movements which will suggest themselves to every reader, all seemed in the eyes of Richard Cobden to be of less importance than the movement by which English landlords were prevented from taxing foreign corn. That

* 'Cobden and the League. By Henry Ashworth.' London and New York: Cassell, Petter & Galpin. 1877.

he honestly thought this we do not doubt, any more than that he honestly believed that there was more to be learnt from a copy of the *Times* newspaper than from "all the works of Thucydides." But to think in this way is not to reflect like a man of thought or to calculate like a statesman, but to be carried away with the enthusiasm of a moral or religious zealot.

Cobden, however (it will be urged and with truth), looked to wide moral results which, if effected, would produce not indeed the greatest of moral revolutions, but still a revolution of considerable magnitude. This we fully admit; but admission leads up to the weak point in Cobden's career and character. He believed ardently in his creed, but the creed itself was neither wholly true nor wholly noble. At the bottom of it lay, in his mind, a dogma which he expressed with characteristic clearness. "It is certain," he said, "that in this world the virtues and the forces go together, and that the vices and the weaknesses are inseparable." This doctrine is, to say the least, an exaggerated statement of a partial truth. It may be to some men, and those the noblest of their species, the expression of the profoundest faith in the triumph of virtue. But to most persons of energetic character the belief that might is right suggests an undue veneration for force of some kind or other. The force which Cobden understood was the power of trade and of commercial civilization. In promoting the triumph of this power he was fighting in his own eyes on behalf of all the virtues which could bless mankind. It was inevitable that he should fall into the error of overrating the benefits of material progress. Popular judgment is rarely, in the long run, utterly at fault, and the popular belief that the Manchester school and their leaders were prepared to place free-trade and peace above every other consideration, was as wide-spread as it was well founded. Cobden and his followers had no hand in the great European movements which have changed the world within the last thirty years. The resurrection of Italy, the consolidation of Germany, the desperate efforts of French Republicans to establish a rule of law and freedom in France, the deadly conflict between the pretensions of priestly intolerance and aggressive rationalism which still distracts the world, have for the last thirty years occupied the minds and thoughts of statesmen and nations. But with none of these things was Cobden, for all that appears, greatly concerned. If he felt sympathy with the Continental struggles for freedom and national independence, he gave scant expression to his feeling. It is almost impossible not to believe that the contests which divided Europe into hostile camps seemed to him an irrational interference with the progress of commercial enterprise, and with the diffusion of sound economical doctrines. Gradually the great free-trader and his friends came to occupy the position of preachers whose sermons, however good in themselves, did not meet the wants of the day. "Free-trade, peace, and non-intervention" make at times not a bad formula for the guidance of statesmen, but there are many crises to which the formula is quite inappropriate. It was not calculated to aid men engaged in overthrowing the tyranny of Austria; it was not a formula suited either to console or encourage Frenchmen writhing under the base despotism of the Empire. Yet Cobden, with the assured faith of a religious zealot, tendered peace and free-trade to all men at all seasons, and never showed that he felt a qualm in negotiating with the French emperor a treaty to which the French people would, if their voice could have been heard, have probably refused consent. The treaty (it will be said) was for the benefit of France. If this had not been the case the transaction would have been infamous; but even as matters stood, there is something singularly unpleasing in the friendly relations between the English democrat and the French tyrant. The negotiations, Mr. Ashworth tells us, were impeded by the fact that the English Ministry thought it necessary to arm the country against an attack from the ally with whom Cobden was negotiating a treaty of commerce. Mr. Ashworth sees in the conduct of the Cabinet nothing but perfidy and folly. Men who have not forgotten 1870 may think that England still owes more gratitude to Palmerston for his armaments than to Cobden for his treaty.

Curiously enough, Palmerston and Cobden are almost the only English statesmen of high reputation who can be reproached with excessive trust in Louis Napoleon. But if Palmerston's admiration for the hero of the *coup d'état* betrays moral callousness, his later attitude of watchful suspicion exhibits something of statesmanlike caution. Cobden's relation to the Emperor does not involve the same recklessness of principle which was manifested by a tender of sympathy to the blood-stained president; but it does suggest that Cobden shared in a degree the peculiar failing of religious or philanthropic reformers. Their weakness is rarely hypocrisy; it far more often consists in the tendency to disregard every consideration but the promotion of the cause or creed to which they are devoted. Penn at the court of James II., Las Casas introducing negro slavery that he might mitigate the sufferings of the Indians, Burke making himself the defender of the most worthless nobility in Europe, are not agreeable pictures; and side by side with them must be placed the picture of Cobden welcomed to the Tuileries and carrying on confidential communications with that high-toned patriot, M. Rouher. Cobden's best defence, however, is to be found in his own words: "We have no desire to be politicians." He was the prophet and teacher of one set of ideas; he was not and did not pretend to be a statesman.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Authors.—Titles.	*Publishers.—Prices*
Attwood (F. G.), Manners and Customs of ye Harvard Students....(J. R. Osgood & Co.)	$1 50
Bartlett (J. R.), Dictionary of Americanisms. 10th ed.....(Little, Brown & Co.)	
Buckeye Cookery and Practical Housekeeping.....(Buckeye Pub. Co.)	
Byron (Lord), Poetical Works, 5 vols.....(Hurd & Houghton)	
Clarke (Rev. J. F.), Essentials and Non-Essentials in Religion.....(Am. Unit. Asso.)	50
Daudet (A.), Le Nabab, swd.....(F. W. Christern)	
Field (Rev. H. M.), From Egypt to Japan.....(Scribner, Armstrong & Co.)	2 00
Frothingham (Rev. O. B.), Gerrit Smith.....(G. P. Putnam's Sons)	2 25
Girl of the Period.....(J. B. Lippincott & Co.)	
Harvey (P.), Reminiscences and Anecdotes of Daniel Webster....(Little, Brown & Co.)	
Hewlett (H. G.), A Sheaf of Verse.....(Henry S. King & Co.)	
Lübke (Dr. W.), Outlines of the History of Art. Vol. II.....(Dodd, Mead & Co.)	7 00
McKnight (G.), Thoughts on Life and Faith: Poetry.....(George McKnight)	
Miles (Rev. H. A.), The Birth of Jesus.....(Lockwood, Brooks & Co.)	1 50
Neville (Constance M.), Behind the Arras, swd.....(A. L. Bancroft & Co.)	
Peck (Prof. W. G.), Complete Arithmetic.....(A. S. Barnes & Co.)	1 12
Tader, Guardian, and Freeholder.....(G. P. Putnam's Sons)	1 00
Verne (J.), To the Sun.....(Claxton, Remsen & Haffelfinger)	
Hector Servadac.....(Scribner, Armstrong & Co.)	3 00
Wells (D. A.), Why We Trade and How We Trade, swd.....(G. P. Putnam's Sons)	25
The Silver Question, swd.....(" " ")	25

Fine Arts.

THE LOAN EXHIBITION AT THE ACADEMY OF DESIGN.—II.

JUST before the first article of this series was put into type the large South gallery was opened, and its contents added to the Loan Exhibition. A part of the wall-space here has been devoted to a collection of prints, the first serious and orderly exhibition illustrative of the engraver's art that has ever been held in New York, or, so far as we know, in America. As such, it is especially important to all lovers of fine art, few of whom have any opportunity of seeing fine prints, except in the slight and passing way possible in the shops of our two or three dealers in such things. It seems best to disturb the order of precedence, and treat at some length of this collection, as it will remain open only until the 12th of January, and as it is well worth a journey from a good way out of town.

The prints are secured directly to the wood-covered walls of the gallery by tacks and pins through their mounts, and are protected by plate-glass in hinged frames. They are packed as closely as possible, the mounts and margins overlapping one another, so that each frame, containing about fifteen square feet, is made to hold from ten to twenty prints, or even more than twenty in those instances where several smaller prints form a series and are secured to one and the same mount. It appears that still greater economy of space would have been possible had each frame been glazed with a single large light of plate-glass in lieu of four smaller pieces, because the necessary sash-bars interfere greatly with the ordering of the prints, and it is evidently easier to arrange twenty pieces of irregular shape and size economically in one large space than in the four quarters of it.

The numbers begin on the left, as one enters the South gallery from the corridor. The first case, No. 1122 of the catalogue, contains fourteen prints "by early Italian masters"; viz.: two impressions of *nielli*, very fine and characteristic, one Baccio Baldini, one Mocetto, two Mantegnas, one Pollaiuolo (and not Pollainolo, as the catalogue has it), two Marc Antonios, and five by Marc Antonio's followers, Veneziano and Marco da Ravenna. There are a dozen more prints by these last-named three masters in the cases which follow, but there are no more of the earliest Italian prints than the seven above named. It is fortunate that those few are good specimens. The Mantegna is that magnificent "Entombment of Christ" (No. 3 of Bartsch), which must always be a prime favorite with all lovers of early art. There is no Mantegna, and perhaps no Italian print of the first epoch, more important both as a work of fine art and as a specimen of primitive burin-work on copper. The impression in the Academy collection is good and clear, without being one of those rare and priceless copies of extraordinary brilliancy which, in the case of these early prints, are almost never seen. The Baldini is from the edition of 1481 of the *Inferno* of Dante, and is the vignette or illustration of the second canto (Bartsch, 38). Sandro Botticelli, an artist of great and deserved renown, and one of the most able of early

Italian painters, is supposed to have worked with Baldini at the illustrations of this book, and at other prints, many of which, though generally known as the work of the last-named artist, are claimed by many scholars as the work of Botticelli, the rather that they show extraordinary powers of poetical and imaginative design. The print before us is hardly one of those, but a literal enough setting-down of the leading incidents of the second Canto. Virgil exhorts Dante to follow him through the inscribed gate to the lower world; Virgil points out the visioned Beatrice as having sent him to Dante's aid. As the only specimen here of the earliest Italian artist who engraved on copper with the intention of printing off impressions on paper, this work should be closely examined. A comparison of its workmanship with that of the *nielli* is advisable. It should be remembered that the silver engraved plates from which the prints, "An Emperor and Followers" and "A Papal Conclave," have been printed or rubbed are of even date with this Baldini, or only a very few years earlier, but that they were engraved exactly as a coat-of-arms on a spoon is engraved, for the ornamenting of the piece of silver, and that the impression on paper is a secondary matter, either made by way of a "proof" to see how the work got on, or to send a picture of the silver-work to a distant possible customer, or, most probably, made after prints from engravings had become a new and splendid addition to the body of fine art, and when they were sought by art-lovers in the spring-time of the Renaissance. Comparing this, then, with the Baldini print, where the print itself has been the object in view from the beginning, the whole change in plan of the Italian engravers becomes evident, and the origin, in Italy at least, of engraving for printing, is seen as no description can show it.

The next step is taken in those works of Pollaiuolo (only three actually identified) of which the "Combat of Gladiators" here is a favorable specimen. This master had a name among painters as an ardent student of the newly-developed science of perspective, and as an anatomist. Evidently he was very little of a poet, and drew little on imagination for his designs, a hard and matter-of-fact draughtsman. With all its shortcomings, however, this bloodthirsty design is most interesting, and could hardly have been spared from the case; and it is to be regretted that we have nothing of the school of Central Italy to fill the gap between the two masters we have been discussing and Marc Antonio, some fifty years later. In default of such prints, we have the Mantegna above spoken of and the fine Mocetto, a print not known to Bartsch, but described by Passavant under No. 11 of his list. These two are of the schools of Northern Italy; and it is interesting to think of Milan and Venice as the homes respectively of Mantegna and Mocetto, two cities where such splendid manifestations of the highest possible power and glory of art were soon to be made.

Marc Antonio Raimondi, with his pupils and followers, forms the most celebrated epoch of Italian engraving; but this is as much because of the circumstances of his time and of his career as from extraordinary gifts of his own. As a master of the burin he hardly equalled the greatest Germans of his own or even of an earlier time; his approximate correctness of drawing was not his peculiar skill, but a power at that time growing common in Italy; what there is in his work of fine design, lofty conceptions, imaginative treatment, can only be referred to the drawings of Raphael and other great painters of the time, whose drawings were freely given him to copy. His dexterity and readiness were so great, however, as to place him at the head of Italian engravers of his age; and although Bartsch makes no attempt to distinguish between Marc Antonio's own work and that of Marco Dente da Ravenna and Agostino di Musi Veneziano, later writers have wholly rejected the common numeration of the three given by Bartsch, and have discriminated. In case 1123, the lowest line is occupied by two important prints, the "Parnassus" (Bartsch 247, Passavant 128; one of Passavant's many errors is the referring to this print as Bartsch 274), engraved after a design of Raphael, which the great Roman deviated from widely in his fresco in the Vatican; and the "Judgment of Paris" (B. 245, P. 137). Immediately above these prints are the "Saint Cecilia" (B. 116, P. 51), also from a drawing of Raphael which differs, though but slightly, from the Bologna picture, as well as from that at Munich; and the famous "Cassolette" (B. 489, P. 278), a perfume-burner supported by three caryatides, which design is alleged to have been made by Raphael for Francis I., probably to be carried out in silver. These four prints are admitted on all sides to be by the hand of Marc Antonio himself, and it would be hard to select four more characteristic examples; the student can form his general impression of the school and its thousand prints as well from these as from a larger list; though he should examine also the copy after Albert Dürer, "Virgin and Child with Angels" (B. 639), as an instance of a most curious series of copies which the Italians made from the Nuremberger's prints of both wood and metal engravings.

It is rather to be regretted that none of Marc Antonio's portraits are here, for as we go on to the following cases there are other and most interesting Italian portraits with which they should be compared. In cases 1124 and 1125 are several; but there is an unfortunately long lapse of time between Marc Antonio and the earliest of these. This *earliest* we take to be the tenth in case 1124, the portrait of Raphael by Bonasone (Bartsch 347). Ghisi's portrait of Michel Angelo (Bartsch 71) can have been but little later; it is the well-known head, often copied, representing the artist as an old man with bristling hair and beard, looking out from an oval frame. The portrait of Cosimo de' Medici, by Agostino Caracci (not A. Veneziano, as the catalogue has it), numbered by Bartsch 140, and set down to the year 1581, follows, and is followed by the fine print above, Alberti's Henry IV. of France (B. 124), with its elaborate *cartouche*, and dated 1595. In case 1125 a similar print and earlier (the two should change places) is the Charles V. of Æneas Vico (B. 251). And we must conclude what there is to be said of these too-fascinating portraits by an allusion to the stately engravings after Titian by an engraver, not an Italian, indeed, nor a contemporary, but one who worked in the same spirit, Cornelius Van Dalen. These large heads of Boccaccio, Giorgione, and Pietro Aretino are rightly enough put here, to accompany the other prints in whose spirit they were made, rather than with the Flemings of a hundred years later.

On the opposite side of the gallery, case 1126 begins the German school with nineteen prints. One is vexed by the necessity of putting some of these so high, for the delicate prints by Martin Schongauer can hardly be seen. Not that the arrangement of the case was in fault, except that the "Baptism of Christ" (Bartsch 8), which is probably at once a more valuable print and, in this instance, a more perfect impression, should have been substituted for "The Nativity" (B. 5). The curious print (B. 88) the "Peasant going to Market" ought also to be seen closely. But it was necessary to put the Van Mekenen print low, no doubt, for though they can never compare in beauty or artistic merit of any kind with those of his contemporary Schongauer, they have an especial importance in a public collection on account of their rarity and high price, which keeps them out of the hands of most collectors, except a piece or two of the less important. Besides the prints of these two masters there are only in this case one playing-card of a set engraved about (*circa*, not "corea," if the catalogue-maker please) 1470: a round Jack of the suit of lilies; and one print by Franz von Bocholt, "Samson and the Lion" (B. No. 1), a specimen of no great importance. It is to be regretted that what could have been easily done was not done—more very early and anonymous prints put here, in lieu of some of the Schongauers and Van Mekenens. Of course, they are left out because they are not pleasing to the general taste; but neither are those which are put in very generally pleasing, and a dozen early playing-cards would have fitted into a small space, and have been so important in the series.

But with cases 1127 and 1128 we come to a master whom everybody is proud of—Albert Dürer, the general favorite, of whose work, with a proper deference to a fame which is alike popular and secure in the approval of the judicious, no less than thirty-six specimens are given. It is unnecessary to enumerate even a part of them, for there are many books in circulation which treat of Dürer and his work, and it seems to be sufficient to say that the thirty-six here have been chosen among the most important engravings on metal, and include the *celebrities*, the Melancholia and the Knight of Death, the two Saint Jeromes; his largest print, the St. Eustatius or St. Hubert; his finest, the Adam and Eve, the Prodigal Son, and the Great Fortune. Many persons will miss the Little Passion, however, and it is a pity that the master's most splendid portrait is left out, the Erasmus writing at his table. Portrait-engraving is never more attractive than in Dürer's hands, though there are traditions to the effect that Erasmus did not like his own. Dürer spent none of his strength on borders and ornaments, and but little on accessories of any sort, for the dress, the table, and the few flowers and books in the Erasmus are more than he gives in any other portrait; but the essentials of each presentment are given with what seems a fidelity all his own, while yet he knows how to reach a delicate charm of manner far beyond what his contemporaries dreamed of. Years have to pass, and the great Rembrandt to be born, and to grow to full strength, before better engraved portraits than Dürer's are seen; and with Rembrandt dies the supremacy.

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FOR JANUARY, 1878.

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1878.

28th Semi-Annual

STATEMENT

OF THE

TRAVELERS.

HARTFORD, CONN., January 1, 1878.

ASSETS.

Real estate	$383,690 66
Cash on hand and in bank	88,564 81
Loans on bond and mortgage on real estate. Appraised value of same, $7,179,212 50.	2,290,916 02
Interest due and accrued on loans	97,511 12
Loans on collateral security	25,000 00
Deferred Life premiums	54,720 38
Premiums due and unreported on Life Policies	46,918 74
United States Government bonds	376,957 50
State and municipal bonds	135,755 00
Railroad stocks and bonds	21[illegible],899 00
Bank and Insurance stocks	563,974 00
Total assets	$4,313,907 23

LIABILITIES.

Reserve, four per cent. Life Department	$2,792,626 53
Reserve for re-insurance, Accident Department	198,514 67
Claims unadjusted and not due, and all other liabilities	112,425 00
Total liabilities	$3,103,566 20
Surplus as regards policy-holders	$1,210,341 03

STATISTICS FOR THE YEAR 1877.

LIFE DEPARTMENT.

Number of Life Policies written in 1877	2,353
Whole number Life Policies written to date	26,317
Whole number of Life Policies in force	11,085
Amount Life Insurance in force	$16,723,384 00
Total claims paid in Life Department	$1,084,735 53

ACCIDENT DEPARTMENT.

Number of Accident Policies written in 1877	30,090
Cash premiums received for same	$718,094 82
Gain in premiums over 1876	$41,549 54
Whole number Accident Policies written	474,867
Number Accident claims paid in 1877	3 413
Amount Accident claims paid in 1877	$302,930 65
Whole number Accident claims paid	26,289
Whole amount Accident claims paid	$2,757,508 71
Total losses paid, both departments	$3,842,344 24

JAS. G. BATTERSON, President.
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Capital paid in in Cash	$500,000 00
Reserves for all liabilities, including reinsurance	623,489 45
Net surplus	509,393 14
Total assets	$1,642,882 59

B. S. WALCOTT, President.
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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, JANUARY 10, 1878.

The Week.

CONGRESS meets to-day, and there is, of course, a great variety of opinion as to the effect of the recess on the attitude of members towards the silver question, but the preponderance seems to be in favor of a decline in the fervor of the supporters of the movement and a corresponding improvement in the chance of the defeat of the Bland Bill. Like all compounds of fraud and folly it suffers greatly from discussion, so that time runs against it. We think we see an abatement in the ardor even of the Cincinnati *Commercial*, and in that amazing credulity about the "conspiracy" which has reminded so many people of scenes in the history of the Commune, when every day produced a new story of "plots" and treason directed against "the people" by the bankers, lawyers, judges, priests, soldiers, shopkeepers, and, in fact, everybody who followed a regular calling and liked to know beforehand where he would get his dinner. The bankers in the large cities, we are glad to see, are beginning to bestir themselves. A meeting was held in this city on Saturday which was attended by representatives of twenty-seven of the leading banks, and appointed a committee to recommend suitable action in a report to be presented to an adjourned meeting on Wednesday. This step has been promptly seconded by the Banking Association of Boston. The New Orleans Clearing-house Association have passed resolutions denying that the South is favorable to the silver movement, and denouncing the Bland Bill in unqualified terms. The way in which all banks and moneyed corporations can best help to defeat the silver-men is, as we recommended long ago, to make no time-loans except in gold. This is a legal, feasible course, and would reduce the silver legislation, even if carried out, to mere wind in the course of six months. Mr. Winston, the President of the Mutual Life Insurance Company of this city, reports to his Financial Committee that the passage of the Bland Bill would reduce the value of the assets of the Company by $4,200,000, which would come not out of the pockets of "money sharps," but out of the fund which guarantees the provision made by vast numbers of hard-working men for their widows and orphans.

Rumors still continue to come from Washington of approaching revelations, based on the Chandler letter, of corrupt bargains between the friends of the President and the Southerners of both parties in order to secure the undisturbed possession of the Presidency. The bargain with the Louisiana Returning Board, which Chandler says Hayes broke, was, if made, undoubtedly corrupt, and, if provable, would be an impeachable offence; but nothing can better illustrate the moral condition of the Republican leaders than the fact that this consideration apparently never occurred to Chandler, and that he accuses Hayes not of having made the agreement, but of having violated it. His bringing the charge at all, however, shows that the men who engineered the Republican campaign are disappointed in Hayes, and are now ready, if they see a chance, to ruin him, even if they make nothing by it. This alone is what makes an investigation at all probable. If the Republicans are willing to expose their own corruption, of course the Democrats will not object, and then enough excitement and discredit for the Administration would grow out of it to turn popular attention away from reform, and make all further efforts in that direction impossible.

Mr. Halstead's assertion, in his late letter to the *Nation*, that he had "advertised in vain for a member of Congress who can say that he voted for the demonetization of silver, knowing when he cast his vote what it meant," is a method of proving that silver was "surreptitiously" demonetized of such exceeding simplicity that we have never thought it worth much notice, particularly as one of the most blatant silver agitators, Mr. William D. Kelley, was chairman of the committee which recommended the demonetization, and supported it in a speech from which we have already published extracts, declaring that he had never given any bill such careful examination. Anybody who can tell now why this eminent man does not come forward in answer to Mr. Halstead's "advertisement" and claim the reward, can explain also the silence of scores of other Congressmen who probably understood the subject just as well as Kelley. Anybody can guess the reason of this silence. This mode of discussing a financial question is, however, so puerile that we feel a little ashamed of taking part in it.

A telegram from Washington to the New York *Tribune* of the 3d inst., drawn out by Mr. Halstead's letter, quotes from the speeches of Messrs. Kelley of Pennsylvania, Potter of New York, McNeely of Illinois, Hooper of Massachusetts, and Stoughton of Michigan, showing that these at least knew perfectly well what was going on. The despatch shows also that the proposal to demonetize was fully discussed by three ex-directors of the Mint, the Superintendent of the New York Assay Office, Mr. E. B. Elliott, Mr. Robert Patterson, and others in a report to the Secretary in 1870. The *Banker's Magazine* also published, in July, 1870, the report of the Deputy Comptroller of the Currency explaining the object of the demonetization bill. In the following year it published the correspondence of the Deputy Comptroller with several persons, in which the object of the bill, as regards demonetization, was again explained. The New York Chamber of Commerce discussed the bill ten months before its passage; the National Board of Trade discussed it six months before its passage; and a paper of Mr. Samuel B. Ruggles discussing it was in December, 1872, mailed to every member of Congress. What is the answer to all this? Why, "gold plot," "goldites," "gold sharks," "money kings," "gold-bugs," "dollar of our fathers," "fraud," "laboring man," "toiling millions," "Mississippi Valley," "silver eagle, one wing in Gulf of Mexico, the other in Lake Superior, tail in the Rocky Mountains," "bloated bondholders," "coupon-clippers," "sponge," "bloodshed," "anarchy"; and the people from whom this comes are not French peasants, or Russian Muzhiks, or Parisian Jacobins, but Americans bred in the common schools and long used to self-government.

The question of the Texan frontier disturbances has been again under consideration by the Cabinet during the week, as well as by the House sub-committee on military affairs; and the more it is examined the less cause is there for any heat about it. The Cabinet had laid before it two letters from the collector of customs at El Paso, giving a lucid account of the origin of the salt troubles, and for the first time bringing to light their political aspect. It appears that the salt lakes a hundred miles from El Paso, after having from time immemorial been freely visited and worked by the inhabitants of both sides of the Rio Grande, chiefly Mexicans, were thrown open to "location" by private parties by the Texas Constitution of 1868. In the effort to avert this the Texas Mexicans fell a prey to "designing politicians," who, in return for their votes, promised to obtain for them from the State the absolute right and title to the region. Partly through the usual faithlessness of demagogues, and partly because of the obstacles they encountered, the law remained unchanged. The Texas-and-Pacific road had meantime been granted these "lakes," so that no State patents could be issued for them, and, failing to be built beyond Fort Worth, it could not procure sufficient State certificates to meet the demand. When at last locations were obtained by an Austin company, they sent an agent, one Howard, to look after their property and keep off trespassers. Howard stationed himself at El Paso, and provoked an outbreak by persuading the county judge to order the arrest of men who had

merely threatened to go to the lakes in company with the rest of the town. Then followed mob violence, beginning with the arrest of the judge and the seizure of the agent, who had sought refuge with the sheriff; his confinement at San Elizario until he promised to admit free access to the lakes; his withdrawal to New Mexico, and subsequent return to El Paso, where he met and killed Mr. Cardis, the adviser of the Mexicans. For this act Howard was under bonds to appear in court next March, when, in December, with the support of some Texan rangers, he insultingly went to San Elizario to ensure the arrest of parties about returning to that place from the lakes. The result was a collision, in which, as is well known, the rangers were surrounded and forced to surrender, and Howard himself was taken and shot. In this mêlée there is no doubt that some Mexican citizens participated.

Secretary Schurz has taken the first step towards a thorough purging of the Indian Bureau. Unlike his predecessor, Mr. Delano, he formed his investigating committee with a view to discovery and not to whitewashing, making it consist of the chief clerk of the Interior Department, an army officer, and a member of the Attorney-General's office. We are sorry to say that the result shows that neither the piety of Commissioner E. P. Smith nor the high business capacity and perfect integrity of Secretary Chandler sufficed to fathom the depths of iniquity of the Bureau, and that the efforts of the unpractical doctrinaire who now controls the department to accomplish the same end were crowned with success, in spite of his enquiry being "hindered in every conceivable way" by the employees under inspection. The chief clerk of the Bureau, S. A. Galpin, is acquitted of personal corruption, but is censured for having kept back charges that were filed against certain fraudulent contractors (on the ground that he knew the persons and believed them innocent), and with having improperly delegated his authority in order to go home to vote. The committee find the correspondence, filing of papers, and general business routine of the Bureau to have been shockingly irregular, and exactly adapted to foster corrupt combinations within and without; a "group" was formed, with clerk Galpin at its head, which gave direction to all matters of importance that passed through the office. The Annuity Clerk, who had been employed for twenty-one years, received blankets and other presents from contractors, and openly expressed his regret that the "good old times" when such practices were innocent had passed away—a sentiment which at once cost him his place. Even the stenographer was more than a mouthpiece, and was privy to what went on behind the scenes. The letting of contracts in New York was entrusted to a clerk of no business experience, who kept no official record of bids or shipment of supplies, etc. Collusion between traders and agents in the purchasing of needed supplies in open market at the eleventh hour; frauds in weighing cattle; unsettled accounts of long standing; unchecked expenditures by agents —in one case of $500,000; frauds in the disbursement of "miscellaneous receipts"; appointment of traders without approved bonds, or with the approval in excessive number by one agent, who could not possibly have verified them; collusion with traders in paying Indians for labor with tokens instead of in cash, and false returns for such outlays to the Bureau—complete the dismal tale, which no "Pi-Ute" levity can dispose of. That Mr. Schurz will follow the recommendations of his committee without delay is perfectly understood in the Indian Bureau.

Governor Rice, of Massachusetts, was suspected before his recent election of lukewarmness and hostility towards civil-service reform as defined in the Republican platform and Mr. Hayes's letter, but he managed with great skill to put the charge aside. He has now in his message thrown off all, or nearly all, disguise in the matter, and ranged himself virtually on the side of Conkling and the Chandlers. He is, however, very gentle and tentative in his opposition, as becomes so friendly and conciliatory a man. What he says is "that it has sometimes appeared [only "sometimes"] to those who have given thought to the matter," that the reason why civil-service reform has not succeeded is, "that it would engraft on our republican government the characteristics of the civil service of monarchies." You see, he does not mention what these "characteristics" are. "Many of the complaints," he adds, "made against the American civil service are complaints against the republican form of government itself," and so on, the old story. Now, we suggest to the Governor that he shall lay his hand on his kindly heart and ask himself these questions, as a means of getting to the bottom of this troublesome question: As a matter of fact, was the present "spoils system," as it is called, introduced, like the election of members of Congress, for instance, into this Government deliberately, as part and parcel of republican institutions, and with the view of promoting republicanism? If not, how, by whom, and for what reasons was it introduced? In what way does the American people profit by it, and how would the American people be injured by the proposed changes? If the interests of the majority, such as economy, accuracy, fidelity, and honesty, are not tests of the republicanism of a service, what are those tests? We are greatly afraid that "those" whom the Governor quotes are not persons who "have given thought to the matter." They have been imposing on him. What they have been telling him is mere gossip they have heard from Messrs. Butler and Boutwell. There is no second opinion among those who "have thought about the matter."

Mr. Bancroft Davis has made a contribution of considerable importance to the Sumner-Motley-Fish controversy, which will probably end it. He recalls the fact that Mr. Sumner, in his speech in April, 1869, on the Johnson treaty, in stating the case against England, put down her liability to the United States in this way:

Loss of ships	$15,000,000
Loss in the carrying trade	110,000,000
Loss through prolongation of the war	2,000,000,000
Total liability of England	$2,125,000,000

or about £425,000,000 sterling, being considerably more than half the present national debt of that country. This speech was delivered without consultation with the Administration, but attracted much attention, as coming from so responsible a person as the Chairman of the Senate Committee on Foreign Affairs, and of course seemed to make settlement by negotiation hopeless, as it would have been cheaper for England to fight three campaigns than settle with Mr. Sumner. The Crimean War only added $500,000,000 to her debt. He also laid it down that the concession of belligerency was the first and great source of England's pecuniary liability.

Before the speech, Mr. Motley had been sent to England on Mr. Sumner's earnest recommendation, and Mr. Sumner's repeated attempts to draft his instructions making the belligerency proclamation a grievance sounding in damages had been repelled, and Mr. Fish drafted them himself, with one or two unobjectionable passages of Mr. Sumner's inserted. How, in spite of this, being strongly under Mr. Sumner's influence, Mr. Motley kept injecting the belligerency matter into his communications with the British Government, and how after several threats and rebukes he was finally recalled with needless contumely, is a story known to everybody. The President, who disliked him, wished to recall him in October, 1869, but was prevented by Mr. Fish's remonstrances. He was actually recalled on July 1, 1870, immediately after the rejection of the San Domingo Treaty, June 30, 1870. Naturally enough, the rejection of the treaty under Mr. Sumner's attacks has been looked on as the cause of the removal, and it probably did precipitate it; but that it was determined on previously, and if Grant had had his way would have taken place, Mr. Davis's statement seems to leave no doubt.

Now comes the question of the cause of Mr. Sumner's removal from the chairmanship of the Committee on Foreign Affairs. This has been treated, not unnaturally too, as the result of the President's and Mr. Fish's hostility, partly personal

and partly owing to the San Domingo Treaty. Mr. Davis shows, however, that in January, 1871, the Administration being desirous of negotiating a settlement of the Alabama quarrel, Mr. Fish sought, and obtained through Senator Patterson, a friendly interview with Mr. Sumner, and submitted to him the ideas of the Administration with regard to that settlement. Mr. Sumner took time to consider them, and then sent a "memorandum" to Mr. Fish, now for the first time published, containing what Mr. Sumner considered the essential basis of negotiation. One was the absolute withdrawal of the British flag "from this hemisphere, including provinces and islands," as "a condition or preliminary." Another was the prohibition of a discrimination in favor of claims arising from the depredations of any particular ship—or, in other words, Great Britain was to acknowledge herself responsible in the lump for the depredations of *all* the ships which preyed on American commerce. Of course this plunged poor Mr. Fish in despair, and he was only reassured by finding that the rest of the Senate did not share Mr. Sumner's views, and would support a reasonable treaty; but they determined of their own accord, Mr. Davis says, that under the circumstances Mr. Sumner's presence at the head of the Committee on Foreign Affairs was out of the question.

The conclusions which we believe most unprejudiced persons will draw from the whole story are two: one is that Mr. Sumner's speeches both on the Johnson Treaty and on the San Domingo Treaty showed that in 1870 and 1871, or thereabouts, his mind had to a considerable degree lost its balance, and that the "memorandum" was simply a fresh illustration of the disorder in his sense of proportion; the other is that during the anti-slavery conflicts and the war Mr. Sumner's earnestness and vehemence were so well suited to the times and to the work he was engaged in that they concealed from his friends and the public, and probably from himself, his incapacity for affairs of greater delicacy and complexity. We may add that his plan of having Great Britain withdraw from this continent was not kept to himself in 1871. It appeared, we believe, in the columns of the New York *Tribune*, the then excitable manager of that paper evidently considering it A Mighty and Pregnant Idea.

Although there were many failures during the week there were none in Wall Street of sufficient importance to unsettle the Stock Exchange. The revelations of the Bonner failure, however, were so shocking that until late in the week there was great difficulty in making loans, and the rate for money advanced to one-quarter of one per cent. per day. This was an extreme rate, but $\frac{1}{2}$ to $\frac{1}{6}$ per day was common until late in the week, when loans having been very generally examined and no other frauds discovered, something like confidence returned and money lent at 6 to 7 per cent. This disturbance in the money market lowered the rate of sterling exchange and depressed the price of United States bonds, but had no effect on speculative stocks, which were not only held up but were advanced. Without doubt, too, it prevented gold from selling as high as it otherwise would have done early in the week. After it became known, however, that the bankers and merchants of New York and the Atlantic cities had resolved to move against the silver scheme, confidence in the defeat of the Bland Bill appeared and the price of gold fell to 102½—or within one-eighth of the lowest price since early in 1862. The efforts to form another coal combination came very near being successful—so near that it is a question whether a combination may not yet be perfected. In London, consols advanced one-half to three-fourths on the improved chances of an armistice. Silver in London was weak, closing at 53⅝ to 53¾*d.* per ounce—a price which would make the gold value of the bullion in a 412½-grain silver dollar about 89¾ cents. At the close the gold value of a United States legal-tender note was $0.9756.

Our London correspondent describes the political situation in England very fully. The only thing to add to it is that the pro-Turks still hug the theory that the war has been a sort of trial of strength to see which fought best, and the Turk, though defeated, having shown himself a good fighting-man, ought now be let alone. The Russians themselves are somewhat to blame for the currency of this view by the extraordinary mildness with which they have submitted to Turkish modes of warfare. They flattered and patted Osman Pasha on the back after his surrender, as if he had shown himself a Bayard, although he had not only allowed the Russian wounded, after each assault, to be butchered on the ground, but had refused to permit the burial of the dead, so that when he laid down his arms the hill-sides were covered with Russian skeletons. His defence was no braver or better than scores of Turks have made, not so brave or determined as that of Varna in 1828, and had the Germans taken him after his atrocities they would certainly not have complimented him on his bravery, or sent him to prison with a guard of honor. He fought well, to be sure, but did not Tamerlane and Genghis Khan fight well? Similar weakness on the Russian side was shown at Telis, where, after the first unsuccessful attack, the garrison, to the horror of the two English surgeons who were with them, sallied out and slaughtered the Russian wounded, and in some cases resorted to the playful little Indian trick of lighting fires on the stomachs of living men. The Russian officers knew this when they took the works, and yet restrained their men and allowed the Pasha to surrender his sword instead of knocking him on the head, as Germans or Frenchmen, and most certainly Englishmen, would have done. We are glad to see that Shefket Pasha's failure in the field has been ascribed to the fear of being caught, he having superintended or ordered the massacres at Batak; but he evidently overrates the Russian capacity for honest wrath.

General Gourko, after crossing the Balkans, fought a severe battle on December 31 before Tashkesen, at the junction of the roads from Orhanie and Zlatitza to Sophia, where the Turks had intrenched themselves. The latter retreated at nightfall. Gourko, who reports a loss of seven hundred killed and wounded, halted for rest and reorganization, and then resumed his march on Sophia. The Russians having received heavy reinforcements from beyond the Balkans, though at a great sacrifice of men perishing or disabled by the cold, the Turkish force which held the position near Komartzi retreated eastward to Zlatitza. From other exposed positions the Turks had gradually withdrawn towards Ikhtiman, midway between Sophia and Tatar Bazarjik in Rumelia, which is becoming a principal point of concentration. On January 2 the Turks made an attempt to surround five battalions of Russian infantry and a brigade of cavalry at Bogrov, about twelve miles east of Sophia, but were driven off after a desperate engagement, leaving a thousand killed on the field, as the Russians report. On the following day Sophia was entered by General Gourko, after a light skirmish before its gates. The city had been completely evacuated. Some days later, the force which had retreated to Zlatitza was, after severe fighting, forced to abandon that place as well as Petritchevo, south of it, and fell back on Poibren and Otlukköi, respectively about ten and twenty miles northeast of Ikhtiman, where they occupied "strong positions."

The unopposed crossing of the Shipka pass by General Radetzki has been reported from Bucharest in an unofficial way, but a telegram from the Turkish camp at the pass contradicts the news. Gourko, meanwhile, may wait for fresh succor, or he may possibly detach some troops to effect a junction with the Servians, who have suffered a severe check in the recapture of Kurshumlie by Turkish troops from Novi-Bazar, after two days' sanguinary fighting. On the plain of Erzerum the Russians, operating on the north bank of the Kara Su, or northern branch of the Euphrates, advanced to the road to Baiburt and Trebizond, where it crosses the river near Ilidja, northwest of Erzerum, but suffered a disastrous repulse, according to a Reuter telegram—which must be received with caution. Mukhtar Pasha seems to have been recalled, and changes in the command of the Turkish armies in Europe are also reported, including the placing of Suleiman Pasha, as commander of a corps, under Raouf Pasha, as general-in-chief in Rumelia.

THE REPUBLICAN SENATORS AND "HARMONY."

OUR readers may remember that when the late Mr. Jenckes was agitating the question of civil-service reform ten years ago, the great obstacle in the way of any change was the difficulty of producing a bill that would satisfy members of Congress. There was hardly one of them who was not in favor of reform in the abstract. He saw the need of it just as clearly as Jenckes himself, and desired it just as ardently. What troubled him was "the particular measure" of reform then under consideration. He could not for the life of him make up his mind that this or that bill or scheme would supply the desired remedy. It was very soon discovered, too, that there was no use in amending or altering the bill or scheme, or drawing up another, because *any* bill or scheme was sure to prove defective. No "particular measure" would, in short, satisfy the average Congressional reformer, and the reason was that although in other things he was willing to take the world as he found it, and do the best he could with it, in this matter of civil service reform what he sought for was absolute perfection, and this thirst for perfection of course neither Jenckes nor any other man could slake. He would put it to Jenckes whether under the very system then proposed many incompetent and dishonest persons might not make their way into the public service, and poor Jenckes had of course to answer sorrowfully in the affirmative, and this admission brought the discussion for the Congressman to a triumphant close. "Produce me a scheme of reform," he would say, "which will effect an *absolute* purification of the public service, which will fill it with the good and competent, to the exclusion of all others, and you will have no more earnest supporter than myself. Until you do this I prefer to leave the service as it is."

The passion for perfection abated afterwards. At a later period the Congressional reformers began to say that the perfect civil service for which they sighed was, they saw plainly, not to be attained in this world. In a better one they hoped to see it, but not sooner. As far as the United States was concerned, it was a poet's, or student's dream, and they for their part were going to give up striving for it. They would think of it often on the river bank about sunset, and when sitting around the stove before the lamp was lighted, and would be touched by allusions to it in sermons, but they could not give any of their working hours to vain efforts to produce it. As the years rolled on, however, and abuses multiplied and were exposed, they were compelled to admit that something short of a perfect civil service might be desirable and attainable; that is, that improvements in the civil service were possible and ought to be sought. In this condition the Cincinnati Convention found them, and the result was the celebrated fifth resolution, which binds the party to effect certain specific but very radical changes in the mode of appointment and in the conditions of tenure. It is true that during the canvass they tried to divert attention from this resolution, but, as their ill-luck would have it, their candidate took it in sober earnest, and has set to work to carry it out. The problem now under consideration, therefore, is how to prevent the change in the civil service proposed by the Cincinnati platform. It will clearly not do to talk of these changes as a poet's dreams, or as only attainable in a future life among disembodied spirits, because the men who drew the platform, like all members of committees on resolutions, were practical, long-headed men, with sound brains, wide experience, and ready pens. The solution agreed upon is now plain to be seen, viz., to urge the unseasonableness of reform. That is to say, the Republican politician is now as eager for reform as ever, and as fully determined to bring it about, but is this the time for it? Is it expedient to push it at this particular juncture? Clearly not; and the reason is, that what we need most just now is Harmony in the Party, and the reason we need Harmony is that "the Solid South" is marching straight at the Government with the fixed intention of robbing the Treasury and making depreciated silver the standard of value. To undertake civil-service reform under these circumstances would, they say, be madness. They are not going to fight it, if they know themselves, but as practical men they see the necessity of "doing one thing at a time" and doing the most important thing first. Take, for instance, the case of Mr. Dawes, of Massachusetts. His passion for civil-service reform is well known. He has lain awake over that more than any other one thing except the butchery of negroes, which he knows is constantly going on at the South. Now what did he say the other day? Why, that civil-service reform, holy and noble as it was, must be postponed in order to resist the Solid South and the silver movement, and restore Harmony in the Party.

When one enquires into the exact nature of the connection between civil-service reform and Harmony in the Party one comes on some rather startling facts. We are told in plain terms, and apparently with entire unconsciousness of anything singular in the matter, that the Senators, if their share in the patronage is interfered with by the President, will not oppose the silver movement, and will let "the Solid South" have its way, so that when the President tries to appoint a collector whom Mr. Conkling does not like, he becomes morally responsible for the robbery of the Treasury and the repudiation of a portion of the public debt. Mr. Conkling and his Republican colleagues have, it seems, no duty of their own either towards the public credit or the civil service. *Their* oath of office places no direct responsibility on them whatever. They are bound to behave well and watch over the public interests only in case the President does not annoy them or meddle with them. Should he act injudiciously, their power becomes completely detached from duty, and they are at liberty to make any use of it they please. Nor are they called on to contribute in any degree to Harmony in the Party. Indeed, Harmony seems to consist solely in their having their own way. It is the President's sworn duty under the Constitution to select persons for certain Federal offices, and that of the Senators to advise him as to their fitness, and confirm them if they think proper. It would seem as if his performing this function, however unwisely, ought not to make the smallest change in the responsibility of the Senators as legislators. And yet it does. It destroys it, we are told, altogether. It justifies Mr. Conkling in letting the Solid South and the silver-men do what they please in everything, and in concentrating his whole time and attention on the custom-house of one city and the officers of one State. It even justifies him in total indifference to Harmony, that most terrible condition of the politician's soul. The care of Harmony is now thrown completely on the President, and he is asked every day with curses and execrations when he is going to be harmonious.

We would suggest, apropos of all this, to the bankers of this city and State who have been recently taking counsel, as it is most proper they should, over the silver question and its dangers to public and private business, whether they would not do well to put on record their view of the duty of the New York Senators, at least in a crisis of this kind, in national affairs. No State in the Union is so much interested in legislation regarding the currency and the public credit, and the amount and collection of customs duties, as New York. A very large proportion of the work of exchange with foreign countries is done in this city; so is a very large proportion of the adjustment of domestic accounts, and of the supply of capital for industrial purposes. One, at least, of the Senators ought to be a man sincerely and specially interested in finance, trade, and commerce, and keenly alive to every political movement or drift of opinion which seems likely to affect the currency or credit of the country, or the prosperity of this great port. Have the bankers observed that their "Senior Senator," the only one belonging to the party in power, has not during the last nine months of anxiety and alarm once opened his mouth about the dangers with which the country is threatened by schemes of repudiation and adulteration, or given the smallest sign either in public or private of knowledge of or interest in them? Have they observed that, as far as can be discovered, his brains and passions have been wholly absorbed in the work of keeping, in defiance of the President, a collector of customs in an office which he has held during the most corrupt period in its history,

when it was really used, to all outward appearance, almost as much for the annoyance and repression of commerce as for the collection of revenue? Do they not see that his success in this enterprise, discreditable as it is in itself, cannot but militate against future efficiency and reform, by destroying or greatly weakening the sense of responsibility in the chief officer of the Government, on whom the duty of selecting his subordinates has been specially laid by the Constitution? Can they think of anything more likely to lower the character of the Government and put the public credit in constant peril than the doctrine now preached, that any unwillingness of the President to part with this duty, or share it, justifies a Senator in the total neglect of his legislative functions, and complete indifference to the great financial interests of the nation? And if they see all these things, as we are sure they do, would not a word of solemn protest against this proposed conversion of the Senate into a body of ill-tempered office-jobbers, without honor or responsibility, be a very appropriate addition to their utterances on the proposal to pay the public debt in a depreciated coin?

THE GOVERNOR ON THE CITY.

GOVERNOR ROBINSON, in his message sent to the Legislature last week, calls attention anew to the condition of the government of this city, as we believe every governor has done at the opening of every legislature for the past seven years. The facts of the case, as he puts them, are these: Twenty years ago the embarrassments arising in the municipal administration led to the creation of legislative commissions to control various departments, and in this way nearly all the appropriate powers of the Common Council were finally transferred to the State capitol, until at every session the Senate and Assembly have to a large extent "presented the appearance of a board of aldermen and assistant-aldermen for the city of New York." The result has been disastrous. Within this time upwards of twenty-four hundred laws have been passed relating to the city. These have been in some cases so confused and so conflicting that the Court of Appeals has declared it to be impossible to ascertain their meaning. Of the city debt he estimates that $85,000,000 was imposed upon it by legislative acts for which the city never applied. He further expresses the opinion that of the twenty-four hundred acts referred to, the majority will be found intended to cover "mere schemes of plunder," or to "change official power from one class of men to another." He then refers to the fact that a number of bills relating to the city were passed by the last Legislature but vetoed by him, either as being unconstitutional, or as containing provisions designed to keep up "the old and corrupt system," and proceeds to enquire, "What now is to be done?" The answer which he gives to this question is remarkable for more reasons than one. He says:

"I am still of the opinion that the only effectual remedy for the evils under which the city suffers will be a careful and well-considered charter in the nature of a constitution, organizing a local government with a strong and responsible executive head; with a city legislature composed of two houses, and clothed with all the powers of local legislation, subject to veto by the mayor. I believe that such a charter may be easily framed, although it would be out of place to attempt to set forth the details of it in this message. When once fully and fairly considered and adopted, it is believed that the advantages of it would be so apparent as to induce steady adherence to it, and to the local government established under it, rather than to return to the dangerous experiment of passing local laws for the city of New York by members of the Legislature, three-fourths of whom know little of the wants of the city."

This proposal is based on the theory that if we can only go back to the point where the ways divided twenty years ago, do away with commissions created within that period, and get a good mayor, all will be well. This is a very favorite scheme of reform with Democrats, but it is open to many objections, the most serious of which is that it has been tried and failed. A good deal may no doubt be done in the way of strengthening the mayor's hands; but so far as the governor's plan involves a local legislature composed of two houses, it is precisely this kind of municipal government which completely broke down twenty years ago. The Democratic theory is, that about twenty years ago the Republicans, moved by that passion for misgovernment which, according to Democratic ideas, always possesses the "radical" mind, introduced all the present disorder and confusion which we deplore by getting the legislature at Albany to deprive the Aldermen and Common Council of their just authority and vest it in mongrel boards or commissions, which have been doing their best ever since to ruin the city. Hence, all that we have to do to get back to our previous Arcadian condition is to abolish all these bad commissions and go back to what would be called a "good old-fashioned, constitutional city government."

Now, so far from this being the fact, the fact is exactly the opposite. It may be said without hesitation that, whatever advances have been made by this city in the direction of good government within the past generation—and they are neither few nor unimportant—have been due primarily to the fact that power and responsibility have been taken away from the mediæval body which formed the city legislature, and vested in boards having at least the feeling of responsibility which comes from long tenure and from being restricted to a certain definite line of duties. The change in New York within that period has been from an overgrown provincial town, with a village government, to a real city, and a real city, we have found to our cost, cannot be governed by a local legislature, because almost all its government consists of functions which are not legislative. To police a city properly, to guard it from fire, riot, and pestilence, to keep its streets and wharves in good order, requires a certain amount of power well defined and lodged in a few responsible hands. A city legislature of two houses does not possess these qualifications, and never will. Hence their powers have had to be gradually taken away from them and bestowed elsewhere, until to-day the Common Council has been wiped out of existence, and what is left of our legislature has not even power to vote the city taxes, but is supervised when engaged in this work by an appointed board.

There is no reason for believing this steady progress in one direction to have been all wrong. It furnishes a remarkable instance, under our very eyes, of the manner in which institutions decay and disappear when they have lost their vitality. It furnishes, also, a curious instance of the manner in which unlimited suffrage, in the long run, defeats its own ends. One difficulty with the Common Council and Aldermen that begun to be felt a generation ago was the character of the men elected to these bodies, and this has, of course, deteriorated with the extension of the suffrage. But to remedy the evil no attack has been made on the suffrage. The people have gone on voting for a local legislature, year in and year out, as before. The reformers, acting on the old maxim, *Populus vult decipi, decipiatur ergo*, have shrewdly permitted the people to vote, but at the same time taken away the powers of those elected by them. In this simple way they have reduced the Aldermen to their present impotence, in which all they seem to be able to do is to obstruct the mayor's nominations, while permitting the people to elect just as many aldermen as ever. Of course this is in effect just as much an interference with the suffrage as if that was directly attacked; but it is easier to go on practising this amiable deception than to face the real question—quietly taking away power from the people's representatives while ostentatiously leaving all power in the hands of the people.

Governor Robinson's proposal, then, is to our mind utterly impracticable, and he seems himself not wholly to believe in his plan; for he recommends also a strong mayor clothed with the veto power. (It is a curious indication of the common feeling underlying all schemes of municipal reform that a strong executive, and not aldermen and councilmen, is what is really needed, that all reformers, however antagonistic on other points, are in favor of increasing the mayor's powers.) He says that the great need of the city is a charter. This is certainly a most remarkable recommendation. A charter is simply a legislative act, clothing the city with certain powers, which the next legislature may change or take away at its

pleasure. There is a charter now, and there has been during all the period of which the Governor complains that it has been one of constantly increasing misgovernment. It is a charter that results in the spectacle of the Albany "Board of Aldermen and Assistant-Aldermen." It is a charter that has produced the twenty-four hundred laws relating to the city; that has made them so confused and conflicting that the Court of Appeals cannot find out what they mean; that imposed a debt of $85,000,000 upon it; that produced Tweed and Sweeny and Hall and Connolly. A charter is nothing but a device for redistributing the offices, and must be so as long as one legislature can change what another has done. What is wanted is a permanent scheme of government which the legislature cannot interfere with. A charter by its very terms implies a scheme that the legislature can do what it pleases with.

There is another plan before the Legislature which the Governor alludes to, but does not discuss—we mean the plan drawn up by Mr. Tilden's municipal commission. This plan involves, he says, certain "extensive amendments to the constitution"; but he omits to point out how, except by extensive amendments to the constitution, any such permanent improvement in the condition of the government of this city as he desires can be brought about. His silence on the subject cannot but be regarded as very unfortunate, inasmuch as it will be taken as a new indication that the reform which the Democrats profess to be anxious to introduce is nothing more than the possession of the offices by themselves. There is the less excuse in this case, as we understand the Governor was waited upon before the meeting of the Legislature by representatives of the committee engaged in pushing the amendments, who urged upon him the advisability of recommending their passage. The general purport of these amendments has been thoroughly explained by the press and at public meetings. They are simply new and fundamental safeguards in the same direction as the reforms which we have endeavored to point out in this article, and constitute the only solid progress made by the city towards a better system of government. They create a strong executive; they leave in existence the local legislature, but they do not increase its powers. They give the power of appointment in all but two cases to the mayor and aldermen, as at present. They take away the debt-creating power of the city. They bring into existence a new board, which takes the place of the Board of Apportionment in supervising the city budget. The election of this board they put into the hands of tax and rent-payers. There is not a single provision of this scheme which is not in the same direction that all reforms introduced during the last twenty years have been. Yet the entire Democratic party have opposed it from the first, and will try this winter to defeat it as a "Republican" measure. Their ostensible cause of opposition is the new Board of Finance. The election of this board by a restricted suffrage is, they say, an outrage. But it never seems to have occurred to them that, as pointed out above, the effects of popular suffrage may be neutralized in two ways: one by leaving the basis of suffrage what it is and cutting down the power of those elected by it to nothing; the other, by restricting the suffrage itself. The former has been going on for twenty years, not only in this city but in every State in the Union. It goes on whenever the power to create debt is cut down; whenever special legislation of any kind is interfered with. Yet nobody calls it an interference with the suffrage. A conspicuous instance of it in this State took place a year or so ago, when, under Governor Tilden's auspices, two constitutional amendments were adopted taking the power over the canals and over the prisons entirely out of the hands of the people. It will, we have no doubt, continue to go on, wherever legislation, whether local or general, becomes corrupt and bad; and whether it is done in this roundabout way or directly by restricting the suffrage, makes little difference. We could not have a better proof of what a fetish the right of suffrage has become than that the Board of Apportionment should exist without offence, though it has usurped the most ancient privilege of the local legislature, while the Board of Finance is denounced as an aristocratic invention. We may add finally that the most amusing thing about the opposition to the amendments is the fact that the section which limits the suffrage was last year separated by the legislature from the others, and may be voted on separately; so that the Democratic reformers are placed in the position of denouncing amendments as unpopular which contain a provision permitting the express rejection by the people of the only clause alleged to be displeasing to them. Meanwhile considerable satisfaction is to be derived from the position of the Governor; for it shows that his study of the question has at least brought him face to face with the fact which every year of the city's recent history proves—that we must either go back to the twelfth century for our form of government or go on as we have been going on, protecting ourselves against the evils which the application of that form to a modern city community necessarily engenders.

A SURVIVAL OF LAND COMMUNITY IN NEW ENGLAND.

IT is only a very few years since the attention of English-speaking people was directed to the fact that all ownership in land was collective in early times, and that remnants of this collective ownership has survived in some countries, and in secluded districts of most countries, down to the present day. We pointed out at the time, in a paragraph (see *Nation*, No. 273) which Sir Henry Maine did us the honor to cite in his 'Village Communities' (p. 201), that the early settlement of New England was made upon the plan of collective ownership, and that remnants of this survived down to the period of the Revolution. We have since been informed by the Hon. J. H. Trumbull of some very curious instances of the same thing in Connecticut even within the present generation, and we propose now to describe a very remarkable system of land community which still exists upon the island of Nantucket.

In the first place, however, it should be noted—as a Western correspondent pointed out at the time of our former paragraph (see *Nation*, No. 275)—that community of property need not by any means have had the same origin in all cases; and, as we ourselves suggested, the Massachusetts community system may have been merely the natural outgrowth of the circumstances, and not even an involuntary copying of the institutions of Old England. An interesting example of a community in cultivation which might possibly have developed into community of ownership, was afforded by the freedmen of the Sea-Islands of South Carolina during the war. The plantations were the unit at the South; and, except in cases of extreme cruelty and misgovernment, the state of society was in a certain sense patriarchal. When, therefore, the masters departed and the slaves were left to themselves, they did not at once scatter: the plantation, with its semi-patriarchal character, still remained the organic unit, even in the absence of the proprietor; the Northern superintendent serving as a bond of union in his stead. The system of cultivation was that of two fields. (In the village communities of Europe the three-field system was the common one.) The two great fields into which each plantation was divided were alternately planted with cotton or corn, and left fallow. The freedmen in a dim way conceived that the plantation belonged to them collectively, and each year a fresh assignment of land was made to each of them, of the field in cultivation. Here there was no fixed proportion or *hyde;* each head of a family took as much land as he chose to cultivate—so many *tasks*, a term quite analogous to *jugerum*, *morgen*, or *ox-gang*. Neither was the cultivation for themselves, but for the proprietor or lessee. But it is easy to conceive that a plantation might have been bid in by its own occupants at a sale of confiscated property (as was done in some cases), and, instead of being divided up, carried on upon this system on their own account. They would have elected their old driver, or some other leader of their own number, as *starosta*, and a system have grown up quite like that prevailing in the Danubian principalities.

To return to Nantucket. This island was originally granted to a company of men, like other New-England towns; only, instead of speedily dividing it up, they developed a most complicated system of community, both of ownership and of cultivation, which still exists in all its integrity, although confined now to a very small number of people, and a very small portion of the island. There are at the present day something less than a dozen persons who possess perfect rights in the common land of the island; but there is only one man living, Mr. Alfred Swain, who understands the system and knows what these rights are.

Nantucket was settled in 1662, by the method usual in New-England towns. A company of twenty-seven proprietors owned all the land of the island, except *Quaise*, a patch of about 130 acres, retained by a former

proprietor. Each proprietor had a right to take up 45 acres as a house-lot, and this was done from time to time, according to convenience or caprice; only a few years ago a claim of 10 acres was made on this account. Until 1717 the company of proprietors were the town; in that year each organization was made distinct, and thenceforward the proprietors, or commoners, were a sort of aristocracy, distinct from the body of towns-people. They have their own records, and continue to have proprietors' meetings, distinct from the town meetings.

In all this Nantucket differs from other old New-England towns only in the late date to which the distinction of commoners was preserved. The development in other respects has been very different. In the other towns they proceeded at once to set off land in full property to the different townsmen—a bit here and a bit there, according as they severally desired meadow, wood-land, bog-land, etc.—until the whole was taken up. In Nantucket, however—as in the village communities of the Old World—the house-lots were the only pieces of land owned by individuals, and other tracts set off for agricultural purposes were still held and cultivated in common. The first tract thus set off was *Shammo* (120 acres), about 1717. The method now adopted appears to have been followed in all subsequent divisions. The 27 shares were measured off and staked off permanently, but without the privilege of fencing off. But subdivisions of shares, which had now become the rule, were not recognized at all, except by the coparceners among themselves, by private agreement. From time to time other districts were set off in the same way, of various extent—*Warehouse Lots*, containing only 64 rods; *Swamps*, 524 acres and 119 rods; and so on—*Fish Lots*, *Beach Lots*, *Squam*, *Southeast Quarter*, etc. In this last division, and perhaps in others, each share consisted of two separate lots, the object being to balance bad land by good. In this division each share (divided and staked off) contains about 90 acres, so that each of the later sub-divisions of *sheep's commons*, to be described presently, contained about one-sixth of an acre in this part of the island—held in undivided severalty with the other proprietors of the share.

Meantime the shares were divided and subdivided, until in 1778 a new arrangement was made. Each of the 27 shares was now divided into 720 "sheep's commons"—19,440 in all. From this time, therefore, the *sheep's common* is the unit of proprietary rights, but it is only an ideal division. The shares, 27 in each district, have been actually surveyed and set off, and are easily known by their numbers; the sheep's commons have never been set off, but the proprietors—be they many or few—of the 720 (or 636) sheep's commons in any share are the proprietors in common of that share. The proprietor of any single sheep's common, therefore, only knows that his proprietary rights are in share No. 12 or 13, and so on, in every district on the island.

The ownership is as complicated as possible. In 1820 there were 322 proprietors, some owning entire shares or even more, and others varying amounts, such as 5, 101$\frac{6}{12}$, 179$\frac{6}{12}$ sheep's commons (a cow's commons, by the way, was reckoned equal to 8 sheep's commons); and the owner of a sheep's common was proprietor of one undivided nineteen thousand four hundred and fortieth part of each one of some twenty divisions—including such as the 64 rods of *Warehouse Lots* and about 2,500 acres of *Southeast Quarter*, besides general proprietary rights over the undivided parts of the island.

In 1813 another complication was added. A number of proprietors desired to have their shares in severalty, and obtained a decree from the Supreme Court to that effect. The district known as *Plainfield* was therefore set off to these parties as the equivalent of their rights in the undivided parts of the island; they still retained their rights in the divided parts, such as Squam, Shammo, and Southeast Quarter. But in the subsequent divisions, made in 1820 and 1821—*Middle Pastures*, *North Pastures*, *Smooth Hummocks*, *Head of Plains*, *Woods and Lower Plains*, *Trot's Hill*, and *Maddequet and Great Neck*—the shares were divided into 636 instead 720 sheep's commons each. In these seven districts, therefore, a sheep's common is $\frac{1}{17}\frac{1}{72}$ of the whole; a full proprietor of a sheep's common at the present day (worth about $2 50 in the market), owns, besides whatever land he may have in severalty, this fraction of these seven districts and $\frac{1}{19}\frac{1}{10}$ of the twenty (or thereabouts) older districts, besides numerous other scattered and ill-defined rights. Most proprietors have, however, divested themselves of some portion of their proprietary rights. Since Plainfield was set off the community has been rapidly dissolving.

The cultivation of these tracts was determined from year to year by vote of the proprietors. In the year 1724-5, 13th day of the eleventh month, the records say:

"Voted and agreed that the propriety will lay out a general field for planting this year. It is voted and agreed that Mattakit shall be the general planting field for ye year insuing.

"Voted that John Barnard, John Coffin, and Jethro Starbuck shall lay out the said Mattekit into shares, and to order where ye fence to inclose ye same shall stand."

It will be seen that this division was merely temporary; Maddequet was not permanently set off until 1821. In 1726 the North Pasture was set off "for the space and term of tenn years"; in 1821 it was laid out permanently. Jan. 24, 1746:

"Voted that Squam land be laid out for mowing for six years, to be mowed but once a year."

Squam was permanently divided in 1778. Jan. 16, 1754:

"Voted that Squam be stocked this year."

The same year two acres to a share were planted with turnips.

In the early part of this century it appears to have become a practice to plant one of the seven great divisions each year, by turn, with corn, and the next year with oats, letting it then remain fallow for five years. After these districts were permanently divided, however, in 1820-1, this system went out of use, and a rage for sheep-raising set in. The land indeed had been ruined for agricultural purposes already, because under the system of community it was no man's interest to manure his land or seed it down, and the ocean winds sweeping over the dry stubble blew all the soil into the sea. Sheep-raising too was a failure, because of a conflict that soon set in between the owners of sheep and the owners of sheep's commons; and for some years these once fertile fields have been bare stretches of scrubby grass.

BEACONSFIELD'S LATEST "SURPRISE."

London, December 25, 1877.

CHRISTMAS is upon us again, and it does not promise to be either a very merry Christmas or a happy New Year. In nearly every department of life, except the legal, which generally prospers when the other departments are in adversity, the prospect is gloomy. Trade is depressed, wages are low; there is great suffering among the poor; many farmers are either insolvent or are compelled to ask for time and for reduction of rent; shopkeepers are complaining of the past and looking doubtfully into the future; no one, in short, is satisfied, except some lawyers and professional men on fixed incomes, who are rather better off relatively to others when money is not plentiful in the country. At present, however, there is no scarcity of money. There is plenty of that commodity lying almost idle, or at very low rates of interest. But people are afraid to lay it out. I do not remember any occasion when there was such a long-protracted want of enterprise in this country. Money, though not actually put away in stockings or hidden in the ground, is for commercial purposes practically hoarded. Men go down to their counting-houses day after day, but they are not nerved up to enterprise. There is an apathy and a distrust which is almost universal just now. There is none of the freshness and vigor of a spring morning about people's purposes. It is all gloom and dulness, like a muggy November afternoon. Now, what is the explanation of this apathy and distrust and purposelessness which is so unusual in British commerce? No doubt there are a great many contributory causes, such as the glutted markets produced by the prosperous times of 1872 and 1873, and the recklessness produced among the citizen and working classes by the high wages of those years. The war contributes, the state of commerce and trade in America contributes, the cruel harvest season we have had, and the almost total failure of the crops—all these agencies contribute. But one of the main causes, in my opinion, is the existence of Lord Beaconsfield and his insane passion for "surprises." Ever since he came into office we have been in a perpetual state of tension and uncertainty. We never know from one week's end to another what he would be at. He is always doing something startling or threatening something mischievous—not openly and in a manly English way, but in a crooked and enigmatic way. For two years of his administration, when Europe was at peace, and when we in this country were recovering from the excessive zeal of Mr. Gladstone's home policy, we were only amused by Mr. Disraeli's extravaganzas. They were, comparatively with his later exploits, harmless, and they did not especially commit us to anything risky. We were rich then, and fat, and well liking, and inclined to be genial all round. He amused rather than alarmed us. But since the complications in the East have assumed a serious aspect, and Lord Beaconsfield permits his erratic genius to wander over the dangerous places of Oriental diplomacy, we feel that we are

getting out of the department of farce and entering on that of melodrama or even tragedy. He takes every opportunity of unsettling all our calculations. Whenever any of his colleagues announce to the world that our intentions are honorable and peaceful, and we begin to breathe and settle down to our usual work with thankfulness that Lord Beaconsfield is not omnipotent in his Cabinet, he does something eccentric to show us that our thankfulness is premature.

The last card he has been playing is a very risky one, but he has played it with his usual sang-froid. It is his undoubted influence with the Queen. At a most critical time in the Eastern imbroglio a new volume of the 'Life of the Prince Consort' is published, if not by authority, certainly with the sanction, of the Queen. The Prime Minister was undoubtedly aware that this book was on the point of being published, and it is not unreasonable to suppose that he was consulted as to the propriety of giving some of the more private opinions and letters of the Prince and of the Queen to the public. Now, this volume treats almost exclusively of the period of the Crimean war. These opinions were formed and these letters were written at a time when we were at war with Russia, when all the worst passions in human nature were aroused against her, when every act of Russia was construed with the determination to see her in the worst light, when people's judgment was not, strictly speaking, upon the balance, and when to those motives for jealousy and hatred of Russia there was superadded a feeling of alarm at the critical state in which our small army was left in the Crimea, and our not unfounded distrust in the stability of the French alliance. It would have been impossible to have formed any but an unjust estimate of Russia and her designs at that time, or at least a very unfriendly estimate. I am no admirer either of Russia or of her policy, and I have not hesitated to express my views upon both in the letters which I have sent you from time to time. But I cannot but consider it indiscreet to select this particular moment, when the relations between this country and Russia are notoriously strained, for the publication of a series of letters and memoranda from the most important people in this country such as this volume contains. It is unfortunate that a book which really is almost a manifesto against a nation with whom we are at peace, but with whom our relations are in a state of tension, should be published avowedly with the Queen's sanction and probably with the approval of the Prime Minister. Following upon that publication comes a series of *communiqués* to the press regarding frequent visits paid by Lord Beaconsfield to Windsor, and then a sudden announcement that the Queen was going to take the unusual, the almost unprecedented, course of paying a visit to her Prime Minister at his country seat. The Queen has only paid four visits to her Prime Ministers since she came to the throne in 1837, and none of them, if I am rightly informed, were made either in the dead of winter or when critical events were impending. And people are still wondering at the meaning of this unusual proceeding on the part of the Queen, and shaking their heads doubtfully over it, when a more startling announcement is made with equal unexpectedness, and that is, that after two or three Cabinet councils following with unusual rapidity one after the other, Parliament has been suddenly summoned to meet for the transaction of business on the 17th of January, or three weeks before the usual time. We cannot but ask what all this means.

There may be nothing whatever in the Queen's civility towards Lord Beaconsfield beyond her desire to gratify an old servant of the Crown in the way which she must know pleases him best, namely, by appealing to his vanity and his sense of the histrionic. This would be in keeping with her habitual demeanor since she came to the throne, because, though both she and her late husband have often been unjustly accused of intermeddling in party politics, these accusations have always been disproved, and her kindness and tact in dispensing her marks of good will towards her ministers have ever been remarkable, and no mark of good will could be so pleasing to Lord Beaconsfield as such an attention as she showed him last week. But be this as it may, the time was inopportune. It is known far and wide that the foreign policy of the Prime Minister is hostile, or would be if it had full play, to Russia, and it is believed that if he had his will we should be at war with Russia all along the line from the Himalayas to the Baltic. It is known that there is a war party and a peace party in the Cabinet, and that they are very nearly balanced. It surely was injudicious in the Queen, and culpable in Lord Beaconsfield if he advised her, to give even the semblance of approval or preference to one policy over the other. However, it has been given by these recent transactions, and the effect has been very serious in the country. In London there has been a war-scare since the announcement that Parliament is to meet so soon, in commercial circles a new element of uncertainty has been thrown like a bombshell upon a quiet household that had already been heavily bombarded, and throughout the country an unhealthy excitement has been produced which prevents people from settling down contentedly to their regular work. All this coming on the top of serious commercial depression has had a bad effect in all circles. It would be a curious financial calculation to discover how many millions sterling must be written off against Mr. Disraeli's insatiable propensity for "surprises." What has the gratification of his vanity cost the commerce of Great Britain during the latter years of his active life? What this new exhibition of political fireworks means none of us, of course, can understand. There are a thousand and one rumors and surmises. I have tried to sift the more likely of them, and the conclusion I have come to respecting the early meeting of Parliament is this: that the Cabinet are at sixes and sevens, and that they have, by way of a compromise between a declaration of war and absolute neutrality, determined to ask Parliament for a large sum of money in order to put this country in a state of preparation for war if Russia should make any extravagant demands (which is unlikely), or if she should wish to conclude a treaty with Turkey which might seriously affect our interests without consulting us; and if the House of Commons should refuse to grant the necessary supplies, the Government is prepared to appeal to the country on the issue, not of peace or war, but of the refusal of the House to grant supplies for preparation. If this is all that is meant, I can only say that there has been a great deal of unnecessary mystery about the whole business. The House will probably grant the supplies, but the policy of the Government will be subjected to sharp criticism, and a strict vigilance will be exercised upon the expenditure of every farthing of the sum of money granted.

Correspondence.

THE RECENT AWAKENING OF CAPITALISTS AND THE *NATION'S* PREDICTION IN 1874.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: On the 17th December, 1874, the *Nation* closed a series of articles on the dangers of inflation with the following prediction:

"*If, through the inaction of the business world, inflation should be forced upon this country in* 1878, *which is the earliest time at which it can be put in motion*, three results would probably follow. [Among them . . .] the business community would be aroused into doing what can be done much more easily now. *The only credits would be gold credits, the only loans gold loans, the only bank discounts those of gold notes.*"

Turning back to the articles, I find that on the 6th of August the *Nation*, reviewing the causes which had made Western inflationists, used the following language:

"The West, which is always a borrower, was not slow to perceive that loans could be readily procured to carry on its speculative enterprises. It was also clearly enough perceived that fresh dilutions would make it all the easier to repay the nominal amount borrowed. So far as the hand-to-hand transactions of daily life were involved, the fluctuations of paper were comparatively unimportant; but when it came to 'time transactions,' where the rise or fall of paper might exceed all reasonable calculation, business probity required that the real value of the thing loaned should be definitely settled and mutually understood. Instead of this, the lender, as a rule, speculated upon the chances of paper approximating to gold before the debt should mature, and the borrower speculated upon the chances, first, that he would make a great deal of money out of his venture, and, second, that if he did not, inflation would come along and tide him over the bar of payment. He was thus educated to be an inflationist, and a hundred other men looking on at the same time were taught the same lesson."

Having thus shown how the business community by dealing in paper-money for "time transactions" was responsible for the West, and indeed for all borrowers, being inflationists, the *Nation* proceeded to show the complete remedy which the business community held in its own hands, and to demonstrate that financial safety required that this remedy should be put immediately into operation (*Nation*, 13th August, 1874):

"The inflationists do not seem to understand that the Supreme Court has expressly decided that we have in this country two kinds of 'lawful money,' and that the American people are free to deal in whichever they please. Further than this, the Supreme Court has given a valuable practical effect to its decision by holding that where the contract is made payable in one of these kinds of money—that is to say, in gold—the judgment in a suit upon such a contract must be rendered for gold, and the sheriff must satisfy the execution by paying the judgment creditor the full amount in gold. For such contracts there is, in contemplation of law, no paper money in existence. There is, therefore, in every man's hands a final remedy against inflation. All that is necessary to make this remedy effective is to make it operative. If any person can doubt this, he has

only to glance at the Pacific communities, where the resolute will of the people has kept paper out of circulation as completely as though it were forbidden by the Constitution of the United States. There are no inflationists there; for every man, no matter how much he may want money made easy, knows that a nominal dollar cannot be legislated into a real dollar, and that a real dollar cannot be liquidated by a nominal dollar, and that if he borrows the latter it will be worth no more to him than he can sell it for at a broker's. . . . The error of capitalists, and indeed of the entire business community, has been that they were willing to speculate upon the supposed progress of contraction, and have so managed financial matters that every 'time transaction' has been a bribe to the debtor to be for the time an inflationist. If New York, Philadelphia, and Boston were to agree that all loans and credits henceforth are to be in gold and for gold, a borrowing community like Indiana would speedily change front and be heard declaring that irredeemable government notes are little better than their former 'wild-cat' currency, and that the interests of the West demand that paper must be put up to gold."

And again on the 17th December, 1874, the *Nation* said:

"Whenever this right [the right of the business community to deal in *coin*] is decisively exercised—not in the daily hand-to-hand affairs of life, where it would be found inconvenient and ineffective, and where the law that the poorer money will drive out the better holds true, but in all 'time transactions,' whenever a loan is made or a credit given—then the premium will be shifted from inflation to resumption, and the game which our demagogues now find it easy to play will become a losing one. So long as men accumulate money by work and thrift, and lend it to men who, when they borrow it, expect with the aid of Congress to return but half of it, just so long we are helping and in fact bargaining to perpetuate, the present evils. So long, too, as the business world goes on ignoring the coin in which it may if it pleases exclusively trade, just so long it is teaching the less informed portion of the people that gold and silver need not exist. . . . Is it not time for our Chambers of Commerce and Boards of Trade to begin to assert that the accumulating industry of the country has in fact the power to force resumption, just as the people of California forced a gold circulation?"

These admonitions of the *Nation* were commented on by other papers and talked over in business circles, and the facts and the remedy were as well understood in New York, Philadelphia, and Boston on the 1st January, 1875, as on the 1st January, 1878. What did the business men of these cities do? Just what might have been expected. They allowed their ship to drift as it had been drifting; they continued to speculate "upon the chances of paper approximating to gold," and they embarked in new enterprises for lending Western borrowers all the paper money they wanted on mortgage securities, whereby it is safe to say there are now more individual debtors on "time transactions" in the West than ever before. Having thus steadily sown the wind for three years, they now see something which looks like a whirlwind coming down upon them in 1878, "which is the earliest time at which it could be put in motion"; and they also see that under their constant teaching the South and West are not only more strongly inflationist than ever before, but are strong enough to carry silver inflation over the President's veto, certainly in one House and possibly in both. Amid these (long-foretold) circumstances the business community awaken to the fact that business "probity" requires that business shall be done on a gold basis, and make an appeal to the country against the impending silver inflation upon moral grounds which they have been themselves constantly disregarding.

Respectfully, etc., etc., C. C. N.

Washington, January 3, 1878.

FORESEEING THE DECLINE OF SILVER.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In Mr. Halstead's letter on the demonetization of silver, published in your last number, there is a curious evasion of one of the points made by you in your article "Why the Demonetization of Silver did not Attract Popular Attention." Mr. Halstead quotes from your article these words:

"But, then, it is said that the Demonetization Act was a speculative measure. The men who 'engineered' it *knew* silver was going to fall, and therefore determined to get it out of the way as a legal tender for the benefit of the bondholders who desired payment in gold. How could they know?"

I understand from this passage, as well as from the numerous articles published in the Cincinnati *Commercial* and other journals which advocate the Bland Bill, that the men who "engineered" the Coinage Act are accused of having foreseen the fall in the value of silver, and having therefore brought about its demonetization in order to save the holders of Government securities as well as other creditors, both public and private, from the necessity of accepting the prospectively cheaper metal in payment of their claims. But Mr. Halstead proceeds to answer your question as to how they could have known that silver was going to fall by saying that the "money-changers" and "experts" knew it because they knew that the demonetized metal would depreciate from the very fact of its demonetization: in other words, they knew silver was going to fall because they intended to make it fall. This is a change of base. The silver-men have been telling us that the "money-changers" demonetized silver because they foresaw its fall. You ask how could they have foreseen it? Now Mr. Halstead slips away from under your query and triumphantly answers from his new-found position: "They foresaw its fall because they demonetized it."

You have well shown in your comments on Mr. Halstead's letter that as the causes which operated to produce the decline in the value of silver did not begin to work until two years after the Coinage Act of 1873, the decline could not have been foreseen, and, in fact, no one has undertaken to show how or why it could have been foreseen. But there is another answer to Mr. Halstead's argument. If the "money-changers" or "experts," whom he accuses of having brought about the demonetization of silver, did so because they desired to appreciate one metal at the expense of the other, why did they not demonetize gold and thus appreciate still more that metal which was already the more valuable? In 1873 the silver dollar was worth three cents more than the gold dollar; silver was therefore much the more favorable metal for the "money-changers" to retain, because part of the desired appreciation already existed in that metal. Probably the answer will be made that the "money-changers" and "experts," in their omniscience, foresaw the increased yield in the American mines; and yet, whenever the accusation is made that the silver movement was initiated by men who are interested in working off this increased product of silver, we are told that those same mines yield as much or more gold than silver. Are not the champions of the "dollar of the fathers" very like the Dutchman's flea?

In conclusion let me say that, although it is unfortunately true that the majority of the Western people have been led astray by such blind guides as the Cincinnati *Commercial* and Chicago *Tribune*, there are nevertheless a good many of us who regret and deplore this movement, which, if successful, will deprive us not only of a single gold standard but even of a double metallic standard, and commit us to a single standard of silver or a double standard of silver and paper, and must work infinite mischief to the finances and business of the country. J. D. B.

Cincinnati, December 31, 1877.

THE CUSTOM-HOUSE IN THE BOSTON ELECTION.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: I observe that in a paragraph of your issue of yesterday concerning the late election here you "regret to see that in order to secure this result [the election of Pierce] they [the Republicans and Independents] were forced to call in the aid of a machine on their own side—*i.e.*, the Custom-house." I think the Citizens' Committee, representing the convention which nominated Mr. Pierce, would, in common with the great body of our citizens, be glad to know your authority for this statement.

From a somewhat intimate acquaintance with the management of the campaign, I think myself authorized to deny that either Mr. Pierce or the Citizens' Committee asked for aid from the Custom-house. If Mr. Simmons or any person in the employ of the United States Government exerted themselves in behalf of the election of Mr. Pierce, they did it without solicitation from any one who had a right to speak for the Citizens' Committee or its candidate. W. E. Perkins.

Boston, December 22, 1877.

[The sentence quoted by our correspondent was immediately followed by this one: "*If we may believe the Democratic papers*, the civil-service order was found not to interfere with a great deal of 'legitimate political activity' on the part of the 'boys,' who 'peddled Republican tickets' at a great rate." The two stood and were intended to stand in strict connection.—Ed. Nation.]

Notes.

The Riverside Edition of the British Poets (Hurd & Houghton) now includes Shelley's Works in two volumes, or about twelve hundred pages, reduced in price like the rest of the series.——The discovery of a hitherto unknown romance, "The Journal of Julius Rodman," by Edgar A. Poe, has been reported in the English literary weeklies; whereas the

writing in question is not a romance, and appeared thirty-five years ago in Burton's *Gentleman's Magazine*. It is a bald résumé of the various explorations of the Rocky Mountains up to the year 1842, and introduces a few characters of a proposed romance which was never carried further. ——A novelty in New England pedigrees is announced to be published by David Clapp & Son, Boston, viz., 'An Indian Genealogy, including seven generations in descent from the chieftain Massasoit,' composed by Gen. Ebenezer W. Peirce from the lips of Mrs. Zerviah Gould Mitchell, of North Abington, Mass., who is of the seventh generation aforesaid.——The Alumni Association of Haverford College, Penn., offer a prize of $250 (or £50) for the best essay on "The most practicable plan for promoting the speedy substitution of judicial for violent methods of settling international disputes." Essays must be submitted during the present year.——In addition to what we have already remarked about Bulletin No. 6 of the Harvard College Library, we may notice its detailed statement of book funds, from which it appears that the library had, when the Bulletin was published, $11,775 to spend annually for books, with a surplus of $3,000 for contingencies. This has been since increased by the Sever bequest of $20,000. The library proposes to publish a catalogue of scientific serials, prepared by Mr. Samuel H. Scudder, which will include society transactions and independent journals in every branch of natural, physical, and mathematical science, excluding only the applied sciences, medicine, agriculture, technology, etc. It will extend to about 300 pages, and be delivered bound for $4. Some numbers printed only on one side of the leaf for catalogue purposes will be sold in sheets for $5. The list will be double in extent any at present existing.——A new publishers' advertising sheet, D. Lothrop & Co.'s, Boston, has something interesting and pleasant. Besides a classed list of the more important publications in the United States from September to December 1, arranged on the Dewey or Amherst plan, it prints notices of books by well-known writers. The *Book Bulletin* is issued quarterly for a small subscription price.——Baron Mueller, at the request of the Victorian Government, has prepared (primarily for the use of schools) an introductory work on the botany of Australia, "in which he groups together in their respective families the most remarkable species for consideration, and also gives much useful information respecting their industrial and medicinal properties." Tree-cultivators everywhere might find this work suggestive.——A new edition has just been published in Paris of Robert-Houdin's 'Comment on devient Sorcier,' which has been out of print for eight years. This is the work which Mr. Hoffmann has recently translated.——Mr. Lewes's essays on 'Actors and Acting' is now accessible to American readers in the handy Tauchnitz edition.

—By rare good fortune a few copies of a privately printed volume of great interest and value have been placed on sale—with Henry Holt & Co., in this city, with Little, Brown & Co., in Boston, and with Charles W. Sever, in Cambridge. We refer to 'Letters of Chauncey Wright, with some Account of his Life,' by James Bradley Thayer (Cambridge, 1878). In noticing the collection of Wright's 'Philosophical Discussions,' edited last year by Professor Norton (New York: Henry Holt & Co.), we remarked that it "contains, we suppose, the only remains of its remarkable author which will ever be given to the public." In this we were, happily, mistaken, and the monument is now completed by an act of friendship which, while still leaving Chauncey Wright to speak for himself, permits him to be known and esteemed as his public writings were quite incapable of making him. We advise all who own the weightier and formal volume to add to it this familiar view of the man, his daily occupation, the delightful circle in which he lived, the acute minds with which he conversed. The editing has been done with admirable discrimination and skill, and the book (from the press of John Wilson & Son) has a transatlantic beauty and solidity.

—We have received another letter from Mr. Ward Nichols about the awards in the Art Group at the Exposition, and forwarded it to General Walker, who has written a rejoinder. As both communications consist mainly of naked contradictions, and as we have no machinery for trying issues of fact, we think these gentlemen will excuse our declining to print them, or any thing more on the same subject. We are quite sure the controversy in its present stage would have no interest for the public.

—A correspondent writes us from Indiana:

"A recent issue of the *Nation* commented on the amount of money loaned by insurance companies and other Eastern institutions on landed security at the West, and spoke of it as a thing likely to do good there. To an observer on the ground the most immediate and noticeable effect is to carry each and every person so effecting a loan over to the side of repudiation, whether to be accomplished in whole or in part by silver or by greenbacks.

"The rate of interest charged cannot be made by farming. The loan, therefore, is a lasso swung for the land. The wisdom of the venture should take into consideration the poverty of the community, indicated by the extent of the aggregate loan, the high rate of taxation which has taken all mobility out of land, the effect on the market of so large an amount of land subject to sale; and last, not least, the capacity of a Western man to damage a farm from ownership of which he has been evicted—the landlord being a non-resident. If waste should ever be made a science, the facts for its treatment can be collected at the West.

"As shrewd a thing as Eastern investors could do would be to convert their 10 per cent. currency loans into 5 per cent. gold loans payable at the usual five-year term. That would take the borrower over to the hard-money camp. It is in vain to tell a Western farmer that he is, and always has been, at specie payments, and must so continue while the country's surplus is sold in a gold market. He handles greenbacks, thinks it a question of proportion, and don't or won't understand that he pays the insurance on a redundant and fluctuating currency. But he perfectly understands that a contract made in a standard of high value and liquidated in one of low value puts money in his pocket, and the reverse process in that of the loaner. Not a little of the hostility felt by the borrowing class to the East grows out of the belief that the latter game is being played with them, that they are to be the losers; and then they chuckle to think that votes will turn the tables."

—We find in the Boston *Daily Advertiser* an announcement of a projected attempt at special legislation which for impudence cannot be surpassed even by the Texas-and-Pacific job. That purely personal enterprise known as the Woodruff Expedition having utterly failed to persuade the public that any good to science could accrue from its mob of tourists committed to a preposterous programme, and having obtained neither ship, passengers, nor scientific staff, now seeks to use the Government in order to buy a ship more cheaply, to secure a scientific staff without cost to Woodruff and his associates, and to give the speculation the air of a national undertaking, under cover of which it is hoped the scheme will not miscarry a second time. According to the *Advertiser* (which, with characteristic lack of humor, thinks the only obstacle hitherto has been the "difficulties in procuring a suitable ship"), the "managers and friends" of the expedition got Senator McDonald, before the recess, to introduce a bill authorizing them for the purposes of the expedition exclusively to register an English or German ship, and sail her under the American flag, and "detailing officers of the army and navy, not more than five of each, for duty with the expedition, who are to be required to send detailed reports to their respective departments, and make collections, scientific and other, for the National Museum." This bill was referred to the Committee on Commerce, and is to be brought up for early action. It merits the same kind and amount of consideration as would a bill authorizing Barnum to import an Egyptian obelisk free of duty, and detailing army and navy officers to attend to its transportation, and write reports on its hieroglyphics, and make dredgings from the caisson *en route* across the Atlantic, and take the tickets at the Hippodrome after the stone had been set up for exhibition.

—M. Octave Feuillet is a playwright who never offends the taste, but whose plays are so quiet, not to say tame, as to require exceptionally good acting to prevent their becoming tedious. In the "Man of Success," now on the stage at the Union Square Theatre, there are no less than six acts, and yet no great amount of action. The plot turns on the development of a type of character favorite with dramatists and novelists of a certain class—the hard-hearted, unprincipled man of the world, who succeeds in everything he undertakes, but whose means of success will not bear examination. Sometimes he has a redeeming trait, sometimes not. In the present play he is very much attached to his children, though, as he seems to have no other human affection, this paternal tenderness does not seem the most natural thing in the world. He has been, as a matter of fact, a great rascal, having obtained his wealth by a fraud deliberately practised upon his partner in business, who had shot himself under the false impression produced by the misrepresentations of Raoul that he was a beggar. The son of the suicide, however, George Sorel, the "man of success" brings up and treats with great kindness, looking forward to a marriage between his daughter and the young man. Everything begins now to go wrong, chiefly, it must be confessed, because the misguided man of success determines to "enter the political arena." His enemies get hold of the real history of his partnership affairs and raise the "cry of fraud." Troubles with his wife also begin; his children discover his true character; he fights a duel with and wounds young Sorel, between whom and his daughter there is no longer any concealment as to the state of their affections; his friends desert him, and he is hurried out of his own house lest his daughter, reviving from a fainting fit, shall see in her father the murderer of her lover. It is hardly necessary perhaps for those who know the peculiar tenderness of M.

Feuillet's disposition to describe the end of the play. The lover is not killed at all, the father is converted at the last, and a happy reconciliation and marriage crown the whole. It is all highly improbable, highly romantic, undeniably "genteel," and a little dull. The French moral intended to be conveyed is the redeeming influence of parental affection; to an American audience that most likely to be drawn would be the danger of successfully sustained "charges" brought against a candidate during an excited campaign. Mr. Coghlan's acting is good, though to our mind a little too stiff. Mr. Polk, as the Peruvian adventurer, is so perfect that it is a pity more was not made of the part by the author. The play, of course, suffers in the hands of English-speaking actors, and in French must be very much better. It will hardly prove as successful, however, in the long run as "The Romance of a Poor Young Man."

—The *North American* for January-February contains, among its principal articles, a eulogy on Charles Sumner by Senator Hoar; the first instalment of a series of papers on Dramatic Composition, by Dion Boucicault; a chapter from Lecky's forthcoming work, a 'History of England in the Eighteenth Century,' on the English aristocracy; and a paper on the origin of the Italian language, by W. W. Story. It is needless to say that Mr. Hoar's opinion of Mr. Sumner is a high one—so high that he does not shrink from lauding his subject's ability as a "jurist." He says that Mr. Sumner was "a zealous student of that branch, or rather, we should say, of that main trunk of the science of jurisprudence which is somewhat inexactly called by some writers the 'Law of Nature,'" and adds that if he had gone to Cambridge in 1845, and succeeded his friend and teacher, Story, "he would have completed the task which Mackintosh left unfinished." Mr. Hoar defines the "Law of Nature" as follows:

"This science, first declaring the great fundamental principles of morality, which are applicable to the whole private and public conduct of men, then determines the limitation of the authority of the state, speaking through its legislature or judicial tribunals, in compelling that application; then deduces from these principles the rules which should govern men in their transactions and controversies with each other, whether these transactions and controversies arise between independent nations or between private citizens. Its pursuit requires the study of the great writers on ethics, on the law of nations, maritime and commercial law."

This is a tolerably wide field, and a dangerous one, as may be seen (if not otherwise) from the difficulty Mr. Hoar discovers in defining it. But we cannot believe that there is much reason for supposing that Mr. Sumner as a teacher of this or any other kind of law would ever have made a success. His notions as to the functions of what he was fond of calling a "jurist" indicate this pretty clearly. Mr. Hoar quotes from his eulogy on Story a contrast between the lawyer and judge on the one hand and the "jurist" on the other. "All ages," he says, "have abounded in lawyers and judges. There is no churchyard that does not contain their forgotten dust. But the jurist is rare. . . . The jurist is higher than the lawyer, as . . . Washington is more exalted than the Swiss, who, indifferent to cause, barters for money the vigor of his arm and the sharpness of his spear." This is not quoted with approval, but we are surprised that any friend of Mr. Sumner's reputation should reproduce it at all; for it proves an absolute failure on his part to comprehend the subject with which he was dealing. The "jurist"—this ideal character, who is not a lawyer or a judge, and who knows law not as it is found in the records of decided cases, or in constitutions or statutes, but as it may be supposed to exist in its pure essence—is a creation of the mind, who never has existed and fortunately never will exist. We say fortunately, because we can imagine nothing more detrimental to the best interests of society, to the safety of property, reputation, and life, than the spread of the idea that we can learn what law or justice is by going to professors of the "Law of Nature" instead of to the judges and advocates in whose hands in every generation is the administration of the only actual systems of rights and duties which we know anything about.—Mr. John Fiske contributes an article called "A Crumb for the 'Modern Symposium,'" which may be read with profit by those who are frightened at the ravages "materialism" is supposed to be making in modern philosophy. He declares that in his opinion this philosophy, "as represented by Spencer and Huxley, not only affords no support to materialism, but condemns it utterly, and drives it off the field altogether."

—Necrologically speaking, 1877 has been generally treated by the press as an "off-year," and doubtless the sudden quenching of splendid names has been more striking and impressive in former years. Among rulers, the Queen of Netherlands was the only one of note who died in the midst of her reign, unless we except Brigham Young and his *imperium in imperio*. Thiers seemed to lose a possible return to power together with his life, but we can now rejoice that the opportunity did not come, and perceive how well able France was to spare him, even in the gravest of crises. The death of Rosas, the Gaucho dictator of Buenos Ayres, in exile in England, was as great a surprise as that of the forgotten Abbé Sieyès to his contemporaries (or, as we might more fitly say, his posterity). The list of departed statesmen is certainly not brilliant, nor was he the greatest whose death was really of the most political importance, Indiana's Favorite Son, Senator Morton. The better part of French politics could sincerely regret the loss of MM. Ernest Picard and Alexandre Glais-Bizoin; the worser part could hardly mourn M. Drouyn de Lhuys. Agitators like Dr. Johann Jacoby and George Odger will be variously classed, but they at least helped to raise questions which statesmen had to settle. No soldier of undying renown passed away, though the list includes a veteran of many generations, Field-Marshal Von Wrangel, and Generals Von Steinmetz, Changarnier, and D'Aurelle de Paladines; in this country, the Confederate General Forrest, of unsavory memory. Rear-Admiral Sir Edward Belcher, of the naval dead, is sure of being long remembered, by Arctic preservation, as we may say. Rear-Admiral Wilkes left his mark "under the frozen serpent of the South," and had peculiar claims to a pretty far-reaching notoriety in connection with the history of the rebellion. His associates, Rear-Admirals Alden, Bailey, Davis, and Goldsborough, had each a lustre of their own, but must sooner be forgotten. Admiral Semmes, on the other hand, may vie with Wilkes in remembrance.

—Two journalists of the first rank, François Buloz and Walter Bagehot, the one mainly an editor, the other mainly a writer, adorn the necrology of 1877. Nor is the roll of authors insignificant, especially if we name Thiers again in this class. By a curious coincidence the Frenchman who did most to foster the Imperial legend died in the same year with the Frenchman who did most to uproot it—Pierre Lanfrey, the lamented historian of Napoleon I. Spain lost Fernan Caballero, whose skill as a novelist was equalled by her mediæval obscurantism; Denmark, the poet Winther; Sweden, her greatest living poet, Johan Ludvig Runeberg; Germany, the Anglo-Saxon scholar, Grein; Russia, the erudite Joseph Bodianski, the ardent Slav antiquarian, and Anthony Mukhlinski, the eminent Orientalist. Among English-speaking writers, the fame of our own Motley will be most enduring; but neither Edmund Quincy nor Lorenzo Sabine will be quickly forgotten, being also historians, each of his own kind. Unique, too, was John S. C. Abbott. An interesting period in our Revolutionary history—the intervention of France—had been only partially treated by Thomas Balch when his labors were brought to a sudden close. In England, Julia Kavanagh, the late-lingering Lady Stirling Maxwell (Mrs. Norton), and Samuel Warren will not be missed from the ranks of active literary producers. Metaphysical writers of distinction were Alexander Bain, Tayler Lewis, and Henry B. Smith. Authors, too, were Ambroise-Firmin Didot and William Longman, and these, with Fletcher Harper, represent well the great publishing interests of their respective countries.

—In science, Le Verrier's name leads all the rest; but Philip Carpenter and John G. Anthony, conchologists, and F. B. Meek, palæontologist, wanted neither ardor nor ability in their several fields, and with them, if of a somewhat lower rank, James Orton should be mentioned and remembered. Art has lost Gustave Courbet, the painter, who led in the destruction of the Vendôme column, and Margaret Foley, a meritorious Boston sculptor and cameo-cutter. The stage loses, of playwrights, Philip Edward Devrient, the Viennese Mosenthal, and Théodore Barrière; of actors, Matilda Heron, E. L. Davenport, and Edwin Adams; of singers, Titiens; of critics, John Oxenford. A great inventor, Fox Talbot, for ever to be associated with the discovery of photography, also takes a high rank among scientists and scholars; Ross Winans and R. P. Parrott, inventor of the gun which bears his name, were America's losses in this class. Americans, too, were those geniuses of enterprise, Henry Meiggs and Cornelius Vanderbilt; while James Brown and Moses H. Grinnell won a more legitimate distinction in commerce and exchange. Two philanthropists, Robert Dale Owen and Mary Carpenter; and one prelate, Cardinal Sforza, conclude our list without completing it.

—'Zur Deutsch-Skandinavischen Geschichte des XV. Jahrhunderts,' by Freiherr von der Ropp, is a sketch, in 114 pages, of the process by which Queen Margaret's Union of Calmar (1397) was broken up under her incapable colleague and successor, Eric of Pomerania, and the three Scandinavian kingdoms restored to their former isolated independence. It

begins with the controversy with the Duke of Holstein in regard to the fief of Schleswig, after Margaret's death in 1412, and ends with the succession of Christopher of Bavaria to the three crowns in 1442—no longer as a federal union of the kingdoms, but as a mere personal union, which had no effect beyond the lifetime of the prince himself. Indeed, the fatal defect of the Union of Calmar was in providing an effective method by which the union of the crowns, complete in theory, could be secured in practice. It was an interesting attempt at a genuine federal union, which we hope to see adequately handled by Mr. Freeman whenever he takes up again his 'History of Federal Government.' The pamphlet before us closes (p. 112) with some valuable observations upon the relation of the crowns, and their authority under King Christopher III. The royal office had been forced to unite with the nobility to crush the liberties of the third estate, and at the same time to surrender its own prerogatives. In the next century the mischief was partially remedied in Denmark by its conversion into an absolute monarchy, as the only practicable counterpoise to the nobility and protection for the lower orders. It was Eric's pitiful reign that destroyed at once the liberties of his kingdom and the hopes of a great united northern empire. About 75 pages of documents follow the essay.

HEBREW MYTHOLOGY.—II.*

THE process adopted by Professor Goldziher for resolving Hebrew legends into nature-myths is comparatively easy to a competent Semitic student, and there is no apparent reason why a single Scriptural character should be allowed to retain his personal individuality, unless it is that the scientific mythologist "resists the temptation" of transforming him in order to give added weight to the discoveries announced with respect to the rest; for the "scientific" methods adopted could be made to prove the solar symbolism of Arphaxad as readily as that of any other personage identified by the author—as readily, indeed, as the Rabbis of old proved that the names of every object in the universe were to be found in the death-song of Moses (Deut. xxxii.), or as "pickled cucumber" has been shown to be derived from "King Jeremiah," through the easy stages of "Jeremiah King," "Jerry King," "Jerking," and "Gherkin."

First, with great show of exactness, certain psychological postulates are laid down, to prove how the mind of the untutored savage works in observing natural phenomena, in transmuting these into myths, and in handing them down to posterity, and how posterity, gradually advancing in civilization, remoulds and develops them. Then it is assumed that certain ideas and epithets are invariably attached to certain objects and processes of nature, and whenever these ideas or epithets can be recognized in a proper name, or injected into it by any torturing of radical, prefix or suffix, the mythologist turns triumphantly around and assures us in the most positive manner that science has demonstrated the wearer of the name to be the sun or the moon, the night or the day, the cloud or the dawn, as the case may be. If the result is too ludicrously incongruous, the author repudiates all responsibility. "Whoever," he says, "finds contradictions in all this must not turn against the interpreter and reconstructor of the myth, but against the mind of man itself which created myths; his dispute lies with the latter, not with the methods of mythological science" (p. 174).

The vice of these scientific methods is fairly illustrated by Prof. Goldziher's laborious investigation of the altered relations which man bears to nature when he passes from the nomadic to the agricultural stage of existence. To an ordinary reasoner it would appear that this would be a matter of climate; that the estimation of the cloud or the sun as respectively beneficent or maleficent would depend upon the prevalence of drought or rain, heat or cold, and that an inhabitant of Scandinavia would look upon these natural objects with very different feelings and construct upon them myths very different from those suggesting themselves to the inhabitant of the Libyan desert. The scientific mythologist, however, deals with general principles, and to obtain them expands particulars into generals without the slightest hesitation. Prof. Goldziher's theory, for instance, requires that the Hebrew myths should have been formed in the rudest nomadic stage; that during that period the night, the moon, and the cloudy sky should be regarded as beneficial, and that when the nomads settled to agricultural life the sun should in turn become the source of life and prosperity. To prove this as a general principle he devotes a long and elaborate disquisition (pp. 58–89) and he frequently refers to it subsequently as an established fact, regardless of the self-evident proposition that while the nomads of the Arabian desert may prefer to travel by night, as he superabundantly proves, those of the steppes of Tartary may naturally prefer the day; and that although in England the husbandman may regard the sun as a perpetual benefactor, in Palestine his great enemy was drought, and his most longed-for blessing was cloud and rain. The Deuteronomist wrote when the agricultural stage had been long established, yet he represents Yahveh as promising as a reward for obedience, "I will give you the rain of your land in his due season, the first rain and the latter rain," and as likening the droppings of the clouds to his own teachings: "My doctrine shall drop as the rain, my speech shall distil as the dew; as the small rain upon the tender herb, and as the showers upon the grass" (Deut. xi. 14; xxxii. 2). Nowhere, we believe, throughout Scripture, after the Deluge, is the rain spoken of as hurtful, except an allusion in Proverbs (xxviii. 3) to a "sweeping rain," and a "great rain" which frightened the people in the time of Ezra (Ez. x. 9), while throughout the Talmudical writings few subjects are more frequently alluded to than rain as the object of supplication to God. Of course, therefore, all deductions based upon the assumed preference of the Hebrew agriculturist for sunshine are worthless.

The same facile assumption of general principles is observable throughout. If it becomes necessary to disregard time in adapting a legend or a religious belief to the desired explanation, we are gravely told as an incontrovertible truth "that at the earliest mythical stage the distinction of time is very feebly presented" (pp. 42–3); as though man, when sufficiently advanced to have invented language and constructed elaborate and fanciful personifications of the processes and relationships of nature, had not an idea of the sequence of time and events. In fact, these rude savages must have reached a point which other races did not attain until their full development, for they must have discovered the solar year of 365 days if Prof. Goldziher be correct in identifying Enoch with the sun chiefly for the reason that he is said to have lived 365 years before his translation to heaven (p. 126). Yet of the rude nomads who must thus have solved the problem which puzzled Rome until the time of Cæsar it can be said that "mythic thought did not attain to the category of causality; for this category presupposes a clear consciousness of succession, or of one event following another in the order of time" (p. 43).

Having thus released himself from all trammels of reason and fact, it is easy for the mythologist to assert all necessary postulates and deduce from them whatever conclusions he may desire. Any vocable which can by any philological process be tortured into the sense of motion, or rest, or red, or white, or round, or hairy, or breaking forth, is at once proclaimed to prove that its possessor is a solar hero. Thus, the name Hagar is assumed to be formed from a root *hajara*, unknown to Hebrew, signifying "to fly," and, as one of the attributes of the sun is its flight through the sky, it follows at once that "the mythic designation Hagar is consequently only one of the names of the sun in a feminine form"; and, as Abraham had previously been proved to be the night and Sarah the moon, we are told of the domestic difficulties of the patriarch that "the battle of the two figures of the night-sky against Hagar is again that inexhaustible theme of all mythology, the battle of Day with Night" (p. 119). So, if the idea assigned to the name or history of the personage be that of rest, then he must be the sun sinking to his rest after the movement of the day, as in the case of Noah (p. 131). Asher, on the other hand, the son of Jacob, is declared to be self-evidently a solar name, because the root *ashar* (אשר) has a significance of walking straight forwards, besides its ordinarily accepted one of pronouncing happy (p. 122). Similarly, Dan is no longer, as heretofore, to be derived from *din* (דין), "to judge," but a root must be found for it elsewhere, in some other Semitic tongue, which can be wrested into the significance of movement, and thus both Dan and his sister Dinah "must denote he or she who marches on, or comes nearer, or goes in general, synonymous with Asher—*i. e.*, the Sun" (p. 124). And this identification of Asher with the sun enables the author to solve the hitherto insoluble problem as to the exact meaning of the mysterious Asherah, who consequently becomes the feminine counterpart, or wife, of Asher the sun—though, curiously enough, this counterpart, or wife, is said to be the moon, in violent contradiction to what we have just seen of the quarrel inevitable between the sun and moon in their characters of Hagar and Sarah. Returning to Dinah, we find that as Shechem (p. 25–6) had already been proved to represent the morning dawn, it becomes self-evident that her misadventure with him meant only that "the Dawn snatched up the sun to himself and was united with her." Moreover, the

* 'Mythology among the Hebrews, and its Historical Development. By Ignaz Goldziher, Ph.D., member of the Hungarian Academy of Sciences. Translated from the German, with additions by the author, by Russell Martineau, M.A., of the British Museum.' 1 vol. 8vo, pp. xxxv.-457. London. 1877.

vengeance taken by the sons of Jacob (the Night-Sky) is merely the destruction of the sun when it sinks at evening (p. 125); and as Shechem is the son of the Ass (Hamor), we are led to a further identification, since "the reddish-brown ass is one of the animals used in the old mythology to designate the Sun" (p. 181).

Esau, too, is the sun, because he is described as a hunter, and "the Sun is a hunter; he discharges his arrows—*i.e.*, his rays—and does battle with them against darkness, wind, and clouds"—besides which he is red and hairy, which is conclusive (p. 133–7). This redness, in fact, is an important symptom, for though Laban is likewise the sun because his name signifies "white" (pp. 140–1), the sun's distinctive color seems to be red. The name of the father of mankind has hitherto been considered by scholars to mean father or man. Lenormant tells us that *Adda* in Proto-Medic and Accad is "father," and when pluralized in the ordinary way by the addition of the radical *mes* it becomes *Addames;* and George Smith and Sir Henry Rawlinson assure us that in Assyrian Adam means "man," and Admi, Adami, or Adamu means the dark race, as distinguished from the Sarku, or light race. This would seem to afford abundant explanation of the name of our prototype, but Prof. Goldziher pays no attention to such commonplace derivations. Esau, as we have seen, is the sun, because one of his appellatives was Edom (אֱדֹם), or "the red." Now Adam (אדם), we are told, "is, as is obvious at a glance, a solar appellation, 'the Red' (אדֹם); etymologically the same word as Edom" (p. 209)—and this, of course, settles the question. So Eve, or 'Havvah, is "the Circulating," "the feminine synonym of Zebhulun, 'the Round,' a very ancient appellation of the sun" (p. 210). Cain and Abel are only a repetition of the all-pervading myth. Cain, who is the sun, slays Abel, who is the night (p. 110). Lot and his daughters are likewise a solar myth. Lot means "he who covers," and "surely no one will, after all this, doubt that the name Lot is a designation of the 'covering Night,'" and his daughters the morning and evening twilight (pp. 189–96). Jonah in the belly of the whale is only the sun swallowed by the sea to be "spit out on the shore" (p. 102).

So the author runs glibly on, through nearly four hundred octavo pages, flippantly flinging around his crude guesses as the positive deductions of a rigid scientific analysis. Any one familiar with the extraordinary system of exegesis invented by the Amoraim of the Talmud for the purpose of making any given text bear any meaning which suited them at the moment, would imagine that the human mind could produce nothing more whimsically false, but the thirteen rules of interpretation which formed the instruments of the Halakhah are tame in comparison with the scientific methods of a resolute discoverer of nature-myths. The only previous system to which the latter can be likened is the "soul of souls"—the thirteen hermeneutical rules of the Kabbalists, and even these are commonplace beside the brilliant fancies of our author. To prove by Gematria that the world shall last six thousand years because the letter *aleph*, which signifies 1,000, occurs six times in the first verse of Genesis, is a much humbler exhibition of penetrating insight than to demonstrate that Jephthah (Yiphta'h) is the "Opener," or Sun, who slays his daughter, the morning twilight (pp. 97–104). Equally poverty-stricken is the imagination of the Bereshith Rabba, which explains the hidden significance of the name of Isaac (יִצְחָק = Yits'hak) by pointing out that the yod (י), or 10, means the ten commandments which the patriarch studiously observed; the tsade (צ) or 90, is the age of his mother at his birth; the 'heth (ח), or 8, shows that he was the first who was circumcised on the eighth day after birth; and the koph (ק), or 100, signifies the age of his father, Abraham, when he was begotten. This is tame and spiritless enough alongside of the poetical science of the comparative mythologist explaining the myth "Abram kills his son Isaac." "At that primitive stage these expressions naturally signified no more than the words imply. 'אַבְרָם, Abh Râm, the *Lofty Father*, kills his son, יִצְחָק Yiṣchâḳ, the *Laugher*.' The Nightly Heaven and the sun, or the Sunset, child of the Night, fell into a strife in the evening, the result of which is that the Lofty Father kills his child; the day must give way to night" (p. 47).

One would feel more disposed to yield to the blandishments of this new science were it not for observing that occasionally the results of its methods, tried by its own standards, seem not to be as infallibly accurate as its professors assert. In other sciences given data must yield the same solution, whatever be the process employed or the person employing it, but in comparative mythology given data apparently will yield any result that the manipulator desires. Thus, on p. 97, we find that our author proves to a demonstration that Jacob (Ya'akob) is "the afterfollower," or Night—in fact, a mere repetition of his grandsire, Abraham, or the Lofty Father; but turning to p. 434, in Steinthal's appended essay on Samson, that eminent precursor of Goldziher assures us that Jacob is identical with Heracles Palæmon, and therefore is a form of the Sun-god. Between two such conflicting authorities it is not easy to decide, unless some new development of the science shall enable a third professor to reconcile the apparent discrepancy, by proving through strictly scientific methods that the Sun and the Night, in mythical language, are one and the same thing—a feat which could readily be accomplished through the interpellation of the Egyptian Tum, the sun of the under world.

Professor Goldziher's book, in short, reads like the nightmare of a professor in the Academy of Laputa; and if it were not that so serious a scholar as Mr. Martineau has thought it worthy of translation, we should be inclined to regard it as a huge and ponderous mystification, after the German fashion, designed to burlesque the labors of his forerunners in the "science."

SULLIVAN'S NEW IRELAND.*

MR. SULLIVAN, who has long been a prominent Irish member of the House of Commons, offers in the present volume a series of sketches illustrative of the political and social changes which have taken place in Ireland within the last thirty years—that is, since the famine of 1846–7. The book is badly made up in one respect. It has no index, and the headings of the thirty-three chapters which compose it give, in eleven instances, only the faintest idea of the subject of the chapter. The other twenty-two seem to be the mysterious titles of a popular novel, such as "Looking Back," "After Scenes," "The Crimson Stain," "The Suicide Banker," "A Troubled Time," and "Delenda est Carthago." The reader in search of serious information who should be deterred from taking it up by this peculiarity of the table of contents, would, however, make a mistake. Mr. Sullivan is a serious writer, and has managed to put into a very taking shape the sum and substance of the last half-century of Irish history. But then it is not in a shape, unless we are greatly mistaken, which will attract many readers who are not Irishmen, or have not followed recent events in Ireland pretty closely. He is, as we have said, rather an elucidator than a narrator. He presumes on the reader's knowledge of a large mass of facts of which few but Irishmen know anything, and he devotes a good deal of space to some facts the importance of which few but Irishmen will appreciate. He virtually acknowledges all this in his preface, in saying "that it was not his purpose to write a formal history of the period, but to supply a series of sketches or narratives which may, perhaps, assist the reader in the readier and more correct appreciation of visible results." The chief reason for referring to it as a defect of the work is that he "has kept in mind the fact that his book will be published and read in England," and he might have added in America also, and has had the "ambition to hope that it might assist in promoting a kindlier feeling between the New England and the New Ireland."

Some of his reminiscences of the old and vanished Ireland are very touching, but nearly all the changes he describes are for the better. The National Schools, the cheap press, and the increased facility of locomotion, have made one great revolution in Irish politics in making personal leadership, such as it was in O'Connell's day, impossible. There cannot be in Ireland such another tribune as he was. For the same reason Mr. Sullivan maintains that the priests do not possess, and cannot acquire, the political influence they once held. The power enjoyed by O'Connell and the Catholic clergy down to 1848 was the natural result of the gross ignorance and political subjection of the Catholic population. For over a century the priest was the one man of education the peasant knew and confided in, and O'Connell was the first Catholic politician who took up the cause of his countrymen with courage and ability. Since that day the popular horizon has greatly broadened, popular self-confidence has greatly increased, and the habit of forming one's own opinions with the aid of the newspaper become strong and widespread. This, too, accounts in a considerable degree for the sorry figure in the matter of leadership which Irish discontent has cut of late in the eyes of many people, as compared with its manifestations in the old days of the Volunteers and the United Irishmen. The Fenian and Home-Rule chiefs do not compare well as regards character and station with the earlier apostles of Irish liberty, but the explanation is that it is now far harder to lead than it used to be; neither character nor station counts for much.

* 'New Ireland. By A. M. Sullivan, Member of Parliament for Louth.' Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott & Co. 1878.

In other words, to put the matter in a sentence, the Irish people has been somewhat democratized.

Another powerful agent in transforming Irish opinion and manners has been the emigration to America, and the great increase in closeness of relation between the Irish settlers in this country and their friends at home through cheap postage and cheap steam communication. But that the influence of this has been wholesome in any way except in stimulating enterprise, few will maintain. There is probably no country in the world to which the average Irish peasant was less fitted to come, as regards moral and mental outfit, than the United States. He never gets here more than an imperfect comprehension of the laws and manners, and their effect on him is to destroy or greatly enfeeble some of his most valuable prejudices and traditions, without supplying any better to take their place as motives or guides. In fact, the Irish people would not have been ready for emigration to this country, as things have gone and are going, before the year 1925 ; and if it were not for their children's sake, one would regret that it began any sooner. There was no people in Europe farther from republicanism or democracy in 1829, the date of Catholic Emancipation. Mr. Sullivan seems to have some inkling of this himself, but of the unfortunate effect of the emigration to the United States on the Irish political reputation he seems to have none. Probably nothing has done more to destroy foreign sympathy for Ireland, and foreign interest in Irish questions, and to separate Irish Liberalism from Liberalism everywhere else, than the part played by the Irish vote and Irish politicians in America.

Mr. Sullivan's account of the Irish share in bringing about the disestablishment of the Anglican Church and of the formation of the "Home-Rule" party, as well as his illustrations of the working of the Encumbered Estates Act and of Gladstone's Land-Tenure Act, giving a measure of protection to the tenant-farmers against landlord exactions and oppression, are highly pictorial, but will be found a useful key to much that is still puzzling to foreigners in Irish politics. They furnish, too, an explanation of the difficulty that English and Irish legislators have in working together. Indeed, Mr. Sullivan's own talk about Irish questions would almost suffice for that purpose. He is full of sentiment and enthusiasm on every subject he touches. Smile follows tear and tear smile, no matter of what he is treating. For literary and art purposes nothing can be more attractive or effective than this state of mind ; for the work of constitutional government nothing more unfortunate. It was a true, though perhaps melancholy, saying of the late Mr. Bagehot that it is the humdrum, unimaginative peoples who have succeeded in politics, and it is a saying that Irish politicians cannot take too much to heart.

Money and Legal Tender in the United States. By H. R. Linderman, Director of the Mint. (New York : G. P. Putnam's Sons. Pp. 173.)—The frequent citations from Dr. Linderman's little work by the *Nation*, in the current discussion of the silver question, is the best testimony we can offer as to its usefulness. It does not purport to be a systematic treatise on money, or a treatise of any kind, but a convenient hand-book on coinage, legal tender, mint regulations and the reasons for them, and the statistics of this and foreign countries relating to the subject treated, with sufficient argumentative treatment to connect all the branches of the work together. Nevertheless, the chapter on the proposed remonetization of silver in the United States is as concise and comprehensive and dispassionate as any argument that has come from the press since the controversy began. The conclusions of the author upon this point are, that the Bland Silver Bill is an unwise measure under any circumstances ; that if silver is to be remonetized at all it should be done by international action ; that if international action is postponed, the French basis of 15½ to 1 should be adopted, so as to leave the door open for international arrangements hereafter ; and that "free coinage," at the present difference between gold and silver in the markets, would be an evident swindle. In all these particulars Dr. Linderman approves himself well qualified to write upon these questions, and to fill the office he holds as Director of the Mint.

As to merely technical matters, such as the coinage and legal-tender acts, the par of exchange, subsidiary coins, foreign coins and their valuation, etc., nothing could be more lucid and methodical than his arrangement of the several subjects and his treatment of them. He furnishes a candid statement of the reasons for passing the Act of February 12, 1873, in which the silver dollar of 412½ grains was dropped from the list of authorized coins of the United States, and gives an account of the reasons for coining the trade-dollar, and of the success which has attended the operation in our intercourse with China. These reasons, in brief, are that there was a large market for silver in China, and that the Chinese, like other people, were disposed to give a preference to the article which came nearest to their tastes and customs and which best answered the requirements of goodness, uniformity, and convenience. Such an article was the Mexican dollar until the American trade-dollar made its appearance in the Chinese ports. "It is the best dollar ever seen here," says the Hong-Kong and Shanghai Banking Corporation. Its popularity has been remarkable, when we consider the conservative character of the Chinese populations. Dr. Linderman's success in this particular—for he was the projector of the trade-dollar—is in no sense different from that of any manufacturer who diligently studies the wants of his customers and adapts his wares to them. The trade-dollar is a silver ingot of the form, size, weight, and purity most liked by the people who buy it, and the market for American silver has been essentially improved by it.

The appendix contains about fifty pages of valuable statistical matter, bearing upon the silver question, the production and distribution of the precious metals, and cognate matters.

Music in the House. By John Hullah, LL.D. (Philadelphia : Porter & Coates. 1877.)—"It may be accepted as an axiom that no musical performance is so delightful as that to the production of which we ourselves contribute." If we except operas, oratories, and symphonies, and thus limit Dr. Hullah's statement to chamber-music, or "music in the house," it may be regarded as correct. Such music loses much of its effectiveness when transplanted from the parlor into the spacious concert-room, for which it was never intended. There is in our American and English homes a regrettable deficiency of concerted music for piano and violin or 'cello, for string quartettes, and for the other possible combinations of string instruments. The little book before us is a plea for this class of music, as well as for such vocal music as does not call for a large chorus. There was a time when musical culture was so common in England that at an evening party it was considered an odd thing if a guest was found who could not join the chorus. But the irrational policy of a church which mistook musical enjoyment for mere pleasure of sense, and accordingly condemned it, put an end to this state of affairs. At the present time the exclusive devotion of our young men to athletic sports is the chief impediment to æsthetic culture. They will be interested to learn that Dr. Hullah thinks that for a general increase of skill in violin-playing in the immediate future we must look to female aid ; and he aptly reminds us that the old prejudice against female violinists is rapidly dying out, just as the piano long ago ceased to be regarded as exclusively "a woman's instrument."

After a general introduction Dr. Hullah treats, in three chapters, of "unaccompanied vocal music," "instrumental music," and "accompanied vocal music" for the house, briefly alluding to the history and literature of each division. Then come two more chapters on "practice and rehearsal," and "the musical library." The reader will find some useful hints regarding the selection of pianos and of music for performance, the treatment of the voice, and the relations of words to music, besides some general information and gossip. But otherwise we cannot say much for the book, although we thoroughly sympathize with its aims. Properly condensed, it would have made an interesting magazine article, but there is scarcely enough matter or thought in it to give it a *raison d'être* as a book. However, if a person wishes to spend a dollar on music it will be infinitely better to buy such a book than to encourage by purchase the manufacture of the abominable sheet-"music" which our publishing houses are turning out every week by the wholesale.

A History of the United States of America, including some important facts mostly omitted in the smaller histories. Designed for general reading and for academies. By Josiah W. Leeds. (Philadelphia : J. B. Lippincott & Co. 1877. 12mo, pp. 468.)—Mr. Leeds's history of the United States is in refreshing contrast to the common run of school histories. Not that we have any fault to find with the best of these ; they have improved vastly within the last few years, and there are several which could hardly be improved for their purposes. But even these seem to be all cast in one mould, and to vary very little from one another in substance. Mr. Leeds has set before himself a different task—to write a history of the civilization of the country rather than its wars and political history. He has undertaken to do, in a modest way, what Mr. Green has done for England—to write a history of the American *people ;* and his success is good. The book is, therefore, well adapted to be a sequel or companion

to a school history of the ordinary type, as containing much matter omitted in that class of books, and occupying a wholly different point of view. Or, it will answer as a sole manual for any who may desire to have the military history relegated to a secondary place.

Mr. Leeds appears to be a Friend, and maintains the principles of his creed even in a school text-book. His style is on the whole good, sober but not dull; we notice the frequent abomination of *transpire* in the sense of *happen*. Much the largest part (twenty-one chapters out of thirty-two) is devoted to the Colonial period; and this period is very well and perspicuously arranged. The titles of the chapters, too, are often graphic: "The Spaniards—their cruel treasure-hunt"; "George I. A period of Financiering." The period of the Republic is treated with less fulness, sometimes several administrations being compressed into one chapter; and the Revolutionary War occupies only one chapter of nineteen pages. On page 17 we find mention of a brief of Pope Nicholas V. of 1498; in this year Alexander VI. was Pope. In the "Physical Aspect of the Country" (page 13) the description is quite inadequate, as no notice is taken of the remarkable system of lakes and rivers (the St. Lawrence, etc.) by which the Mississippi Valley is directly connected with the Atlantic. The great schemes of French empire on this continent were built upon this, the most striking feature of our physical geography.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Authors.—Titles.	*Publishers—Prices*
Delafield (Julia), Biographies of Francis Lewis and Morgan Lewis, 2 vols., swd.	(A. D. F. Randolph & Co.) $2 00
Fernow (B.), Dutch and Swedish Settlements on the Delaware River. Vol. XII.	(Albany)
Hill (C. S.), Our Merchant Marine, 3d ed.	(D. Appleton & Co.)
Hudson (Rev. H. N.), Classical English Reader	(Ginn & Heath)
Home Songs for Little People	(James Miller)
Houghton (G.), Album Leaves, swd.	(Estes & Lauriat)
Ingersoll (Dr. A. J.), In Health	(A. J. Ingersoll)
Kiepert (H.), Lehrbuch der alten Geographie: Asien und Africa, swd.	(L. W. Schmidt)
Lamb (Charles and Mary), Poetry for Children; and Prince Dorus	(Scribner, Armstrong & Co.)
Little (A.), Early New England Interiors	(A. Williams & Co.) 1 25
Littré (E.), Supplément au Dictionnaire de la Langue française, Part 8, swd.	(F. W. Christern) 6 00
Littell's Living Age, Oct.-Dec., 1877	(Littell & Gay)
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Some Highways and By-ways of American Travel	(J. B. Lippincott & Co.)
Spurgeon (Rev. C. H.), The Matchless Mystery	(Sheldon & Co.) 6 00
White (H.), The Tariff Question, swd.	(G. P. Putnam's Sons) 25
Williams (H. T.), Household Hints and Recipes, swd.	(H. T. Williams)
Wood (Prof. De V.), Principles of Elementary Mechanics	(John Wiley & Sons) 2 00
Walker (C. M.), Life of Oliver P. Morton	(Indianapolis *Journal*)
Westcott (T.), Historic Mansions and Buildings of Philadelphia	(Porter & Coates)

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Rev. David Kleine, residence nowhere, made several claims under accident tickets, all of which claims, though exceedingly suspicious, were paid. At last, however, he tried it again for "a general concussion of his system," occasioned "by a railway train running into a team"; but as the records of the railway company disclosed no such disaster, and the evidence discovered no such injury, the claim was rejected. Suit brought and tried to a jury in New York, when his "system" had another "concussion" by a *verdict for the Company.*

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W. H. DALY, M.D.
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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, JANUARY 17, 1878.

The Week.

THE adjourned meeting of the bankers on the Silver question was held in this city on Thursday last. Representatives of fifty New York banks or insurance companies were present, of four Boston banks, and of one Philadelphian. The committee appointed to report on the question what effect the substitution of the 412½-grain dollar for gold would have on general business and on the institutions under their charge, and what measures should be taken to save their capital from the loss that would be caused by the change, reported that the proposed change would reduce the standard one-tenth; would prevent resumption in 1879; would seriously injure the public credit by defrauding the bondholders, and would cause a general prostration of business by the total destruction of confidence in the future, and by the creation of a standard so fluctuating that it has varied between January and July, in a single year, from 95 to 79⅝ cents. As to the measures to be adopted, the report recommended the appointment of a committee made up of New York, Philadelphia, and Baltimore bankers and merchants, to memorialize Congress against the pending Silver Bill and for a legal provision that if silver is made a legal tender, it shall be made a legal tender at its value in gold, and to keep a watch generally against attacks on the standard and on the public credit.

Mr. William E. Chandler's movement against the President, which was begun apparently with immediate reference to the approaching meeting of the Republican Convention in New Hampshire, has had for him an unfortunate termination. Instead of being received as a hero or "Moses," he found himself the object of much gross personal abuse from several prominent delegates, one of the oldest Republicans in the State, Mr. Tuck, calling him a "political tramp." The platform reaffirmed the Cincinnati platform, and particularly the civil-service part of it, in emphatic terms, eulogized President Hayes "while acknowledging honest difference of opinion with regard to past acts," denounced the anti-resumption movement and the silver movement, and pronounced factious and mischievous all attempts to reopen the Presidential controversy, or to question the President's title. In fact, the general result left Chandler in a somewhat ludicrous and humiliating position, and the newspapers have ever since been ridiculing him in an unkindly way. We must say on the poor fellow's behalf, however, that he is no worse and no better now than he was last fall when he was working in Florida to get a "fair count," and filling earth and air with his manifestoes and defiances. It was his despatch the day after the election which informed the smaller "workers" in Florida and South Carolina and Louisiana that all was not lost, and that the managers expected them to beat the enemy in making up the returns. He superintended the good work himself in Florida, but not being a bird, as Sir Boyle Roche remarked, could not be in Louisiana at the same time, though his mouth must have watered when he heard and thought of the job Wells and Anderson had on hand. He is altogether a sorry sort of person for a moral party to have on its National Committee, and it is well he has been found out even now, if the better portion of the party will only learn something from the little trickster's career.

Senator Edmunds, of Vermont, has written a letter to the President expressing entire agreement with him in his views concerning the proper relations of the Executive and the Senate in the matter of appointments, and condemning the present custom of allowing Senators and Representatives to fill offices with their personal adherents, in terms with which everybody is now familiar. He says he is himself so fully convinced of the impropriety of volunteering recommendations for office to the Executive that he abstains from it, and thinks his course satisfactory to his constituents; but observes very truly that, "to have proper and fair effect, whatever course is pursued ought to be uniform, constant, and universal"—in other words, if one Senator is to abstain from soliciting offices for his friends, all must do it. Mr. Edmunds no doubt sees, and his letter will suggest to everybody who reads it, the fact that no general agreement on the part of Senators to abstain from office-soliciting will last long if the Executive is forced by necessity to apply constantly or frequently to them and Representatives for information about candidates, and that this necessity must exist as long as changes are as frequent as they now are. Nothing but greater fixity of tenure will make the President's nominating burden so light that legislators can be asked for advice without risk of dictation.

We regret to perceive as yet no sign of any effort on Mr. Conkling's part to restore Harmony in the Party. Of course, we understand perfectly his annoyance at the President's interference with his Courtesy and his Custom-house, but then it is human nature for the President to do what he has done, and it was probably suggested to him by the Constitution and the party platform, and surely Mr. Conkling is too practical a man not to know that he must deal with human nature as he finds it. The Solid South is marshalling its forces for an assault on the Treasury, and we are threatened with the destruction of public and private credit through the Silver movement. Are these the times, therefore, for a Senator to quarrel over a question of patronage? We ask him once more, while feeling deep sympathy for him, whether he ought not to let Hayes have his way about these comparatively small matters, and use all his vast influence to bind the party into a solid phalanx against the repudiators. We greatly fear that if he does not Hayes will sign the Silver Bill, and Mr. Conkling will be answerable for the consequences. Many silly little civil-service quacks will doubtless jeer at this advice, but we are talking to a great man who understands us, and we do not mind what visionaries and tea-caddy politicians say or think.

Congress reassembled on Thursday. In the House the first thing in order was Fernando Wood's resolution authorizing the regular committees to investigate at any time the administration of all the departments, and to send for persons and papers. The absence of a certain portion of the majority enabled the Republicans to amend this in Committee of the Whole, with a fair prospect of depriving it of its worst features, by compelling committees to apply to the House for the much-abused power to send for persons and papers, or by ordering the charges to be presented to the House in writing, with an endorsement by one or more members that the charge was sustained *prima facie* by evidence. Mr. Foster also desired to investigate the manner in which the Democrats of the Forty-fourth Congress had dispensed their investigation funds. On Friday, however, Mr. Wood found himself with his usual backing, and his so-called "drag-net" measure was promptly adopted in all its integrity. Mr. Kelley made two ineffectual attempts to induce the House to hold a Saturday session for the purpose of listening to the arguments of women in favor of a female-suffrage amendment of the Constitution. In the Senate, Senator Sargent had a like experience, but he introduced the amendment in question, which forbids the States to disfranchise on account of sex. Mr. Edmunds had another amendment, which it is safe to say will not be adopted in the form in which he presented it. It prohibits State establishments of religion or interference with the free exercise of religion, religious qualifications for office, sectarian appropriations, etc., but expressly excepts the reading of the Bible in schools as not within the intent of the prohibition. Mr. Edmunds also offered a substitute for Senator Matthews's pernicious Silver resolution, and so worded it that the rejection of it will place its opponents in a very awkward posi-

tion. It affirms, as the Matthews resolution denies, that the faith of the Government is pledged to redeem all its obligations in gold. Judge Davis presented petitions for and against remonetization from his own State and neighborhood, and took care to remark (as if it were somehow relevant) that the former represented the great majority of his constituency. On Tuesday Mr. Voorhees treated the Senate to a *bouffe* performance by making a long speech in favor of repudiation, on the text of his resolution declaring that the national credit ought to be maintained.

On Monday the President sent to the Senate a long list of new nominations, including several collectors of customs; but the New York collector was not among them. Noticeable, on the other hand, was the reappointment of James M. Edmunds as postmaster at Washington, in spite of his well-known connection with the "machine," and in spite of the fact that he has already served two terms of four years. We are glad to see any evidence of Mr. Hayes's abandoning the queer notion that a tenure of eight years is as much as any office-holder is entitled to in a reformed civil service; but there have been worthier occasions than Mr. Edmunds for a return to sounder doctrine. The nomination of Lucius C. Northrup to be District-Attorney of South Carolina was a surprise to those who had asserted, and still assert, that Mr. D. T. Corbin, lately a claimant for a seat in the Senate, was the President's first choice. We do not know what Mr. Northrup's fitness may be, but Mr. Corbin's appointment would have been a disregard of proprieties such as President Grant used to show when he stood by his subordinates "under fire." Mr. Corbin is accused in South Carolina of having bribed the Mackey House of Representatives to vote him United States Senator; and whatever truth there may be in this charge, the State authorities are evidently in earnest in prosecuting it, and Mr. Corbin's appearance in South Carolina, in any capacity, would lead to his examination and trial for a penal offence. This is not exactly the kind of greeting a United States District-Attorney should be subjected to if it can be avoided, and the country may congratulate itself on having been saved one more scandal.

The woman-suffragists have held their annual convention in Washington this year and have made a determined assault on Congress, Mr. W. D. Kelley being, owing to his remarkable open-mindedness, their leading champion. They tried hard to get permission to address the House and Senate in person, but this privilege was sternly refused. They had one great triumph, however, in obtaining a promise from the President that he would sign any woman's-rights bill that Congress might pass—the reckless man that he is. Vice-President Wheeler stood by them, on the whole, more boldly than anybody, and is fully abreast of the most advanced thinkers of the party. They relied, womanlike, a great deal on interviews with individual Senators and Representatives in the lobbies, which obliged the more susceptible or bashful legislators to stick very closely to their places. Mr. Conkling, in particular, was the object of much pursuit, his "torso" having been long a subject of admiration to the friends of the cause. Senator Hoar also displayed great interest in the proceedings, but not so pathetic an interest as Mr. Wheeler's.

Mr. Schurz, as every one expected who knew anything of the condition of the Interior Department, and especially of the Indian Bureau, is bearing the brunt of such reform work as the present Administration has undertaken, and is naturally exposed to the most savage attacks, and, in the opinion of many of those who have had experience of the great diversity and multiplicity of influences which work for the Indian Ring, he will be eventually broken down. Of this, however, we have no fear, if the President holds firm and does not have "his mind poisoned" like his predecessor. One of Mr. Schurz's best pieces of work, reminding one of Mr. Bristow's assault on the whiskey thieves, we described in our last number. He instituted a real committee of investigation, composed of an army officer, Major Bradley; of Mr. McCammon, supplied by the Attorney-General from his own office, and of the chief clerk of the Indian Department. This commission examined Mr. Galpin, the chief clerk of the Indian Bureau, for twenty days, and convicted him, among other things, on his own confession, of having kept back charges against fraudulent contractors on the ground that he knew the men and believed them innocent.

The Ring are now busily at work trying to break the force of these revelations, and have managed to seduce a good but not very perspicacious man, President Seelye, into writing a private letter from Amherst, from which they have published extracts, giving his opinion that "the report of the Board of Enquiry into Indian management was a gross travesty on justice secured by a combination of corrupt and adroit men." We were under the painful necessity, while Mr. Seelye was in Congress, of expressing our belief that he was by far too guileless and too unfamiliar with the processes and subjects of legislation and with the ways of politicians to render real service to reform, but we confess we were not prepared for his writing reckless despatches for the use of corrupt speculators and scoundrels of various degrees, pronouncing an investigation at which he was not present, conducted by men whose character is as good as his own, and who are far his superiors in sagacity, a "gross travesty on justice," and testifying to the high character of a clerk who by confessing the suppression of charges against contractors has confessed himself presumptively guilty of connivance at fraud.

The Netter and Bonner failures resulted from the loss of money obtained by the "rehypothecation" of stocks and bonds. This method of getting money and failing was a new dodge in Wall Street; but it appears there were others yet to be discovered, for on Thursday Mr. E. J. Dunning, jr., a young note-broker who had the confidence of the banks and of business firms, and deservedly so, so far as his character goes, suspended. His liabilities were about $900,000, and the larger part of these were due to the banks from which he had borrowed money on pledge of mercantile notes. His method of doing business appears to have been something like this: as a note-broker he would buy the notes of mercantile firms whose facilities for getting money were not the best; these he would pay for with checks on his bank, which checks the bank would "certify" were good. He would then take these notes to other banks or money-lenders, and sell them or borrow on them; if able to sell them at a profit, or to borrow more on them than he paid for them, he would deposit the money in the bank which "certified" his check, thereby making his account good. In case he was unable so to sell or borrow he would then turn the notes into the bank which "certified" his check, to be held until he could borrow or sell at profit. If able to do this before the paper or notes matured, his own bank would be secured; if not, his bank would lose whatever was lost, less the amount by which he could reduce it with his own money. This appears to have been the system, and it will be seen that in effect it amounted to this: that he used the funds of the bank, and was to make all the profits by such use, while the bank was to take all the losses, less whatever might be the ordinary profits of Dunning's account at the bank. It is charitable to believe that this is an exceptional feature of bank management in New York. As the result of Dunning's suspension, several of his mercantile customers have already failed, and at the close of the week efforts are making to secure a "settlement" which shall prevent other failures. The price of gold fell during the week to 101⅛, the lowest since April 30, 1862. This price makes the gold value of the promise of the Treasury to pay a gold dollar $0.9816. The London market for U. S. bonds advanced as gold declined here. Silver in London ranged between 53⅜ and 54*d.* per oz., the latter price making the bullion in a 412½-grain silver dollar worth $0.9010 gold.

The death of Victor Emanuel is the severest blow the Italian people has sustained since that of Cavour, and, indeed, it may be said that without the King Cavour would not have been possible, nor the King without Cavour. The King was neither a great statesman nor a great soldier; the remarkable thing in his career was

that having been brought up in the most priest-ridden and absolutist court in Europe, he was able at the right time to convert himself into a constitutional monarch, and to stay constitutional for thirty years without ever wavering, and to give steady support to a minister whose policy and plans were utterly opposed to all the traditions of his house. That this was not so easy as it seems is proved by the total failure of the various branches of the house of Bourbon, and by the long resistance of the Hapsburgs. It was the more remarkable in Victor Emanuel's case, too, because he was not a student or a thinker, or what may be called a serious man in any sense of the term. He was fairly ignorant, a man of pleasure, and a soldier of the *sabreur* kind, who liked to head a charge of cavalry vastly better than to direct strategical operations, and he never wholly got rid of his reverence for the Church; but having once entered on the path of constitutionalism he never winced or doubted or quibbled or looked back. Had he died before 1859 or 1866 it would have been a tremendous misfortune, and might have indefinitely retarded the work of unification; but Italy has been lucky in this as in other things, and did not lose him until he was really King of Italy and firmly lodged in Rome. His death even now, however, is very inopportune, as the Ministry is disorganized, the election of a new Pope is impending, and his successor Humbert has still to win popular confidence, his boyhood having been rather unpromising. The complications thus created are pretty sure to prevent that active participation on the part of Italy in the settlement of the Eastern question which many people have been expecting or predicting. The Papal enmity to the "Subalpine Monarch" seems to have dissolved in the presence of death. The King received the last sacraments, and the Pope apparently forgot the spoliation of the Church and the excommunications he launched at the King and his confederates, and remembered only that he was a great Italian, who had done and dared much for Italy.

The King's death occurred in the midst of a parliamentary crisis brought about by the inherent weakness of the Ministry and the fortuitous nature of the majority in the House. After much fumbling, a new Cabinet was proclaimed on the 26th of December, with the same nominal head, Depretis, in charge of Foreign Affairs, and with four other members of the old Cabinet retained, along with their portfolios—namely, Mancini, Minister of Justice; Coppino, Public Instruction; Mezzacapo, War; and Brin, Navy. The new members are Crispi, the well-known radical deputy, who will probably do more than any one else to give character to the Ministry, and who takes charge of Internal Affairs: Magliani, once an office-holder under the Bourbons, now entrusted with the Finances; Perez, Public Works; and Bargoni, formerly a colleague of Menabrea and Minghetti, who is given the "Treasury," a department just created by special decree and supplanting the Department of Agriculture, Industry, and Commerce. The peculiarity of the complexion of this body is that it embraces more deputies and fewer senators, and that it has been reinforced from the south of Italy. The conservatives, in fact, complain that Signor Depretis has been too much influenced by "geographical considerations."

The perplexity occasioned in England by the Russian successes seems hardly inferior to that of the Turks, as the moment has now come when Russia has to decide what kind of peace she will inflict on the Turks, and when Austria and Germany will have to reveal the nature of their understanding with the Czar. England insists on participation in the final settlement, as necessary to her honor and security; if Russia should deny her right to this, or insist on treating with the Turks separately, the situation would be very serious, for the remedy would be by no means plain. The Turkish army may now be said to have ceased to exist; and to fight Russia alone in Rumelia and Bulgaria, with any force England can raise and put in the field before next summer, is out of the question. The latest accounts lead to the belief, however, that Russia is moderate and conciliatory in tone, but the contingencies are so serious as to cause deep popular anxiety. The affair has been so mismanaged that even if the Cabinet were united in sentiment they would undoubtedly not be allowed to carry on the war, if war had to be made, and the Liberals are opposed to any war at all for the benefit of Turkey. There is now reported to be a growing desire for some decent protégé, say Greece, to take Turkey's place in the Eastern Question; but to this Lincoln's saying about "swapping horses in crossing the stream" is singularly applicable.

Scarcely had the Turkish position at Zlatitza, in the upper Topolnitza valley, been forced, and the connection broken between the forces retreating before Gourko and those defending the southern end of the Shipka pass, when a combined movement was made for the opening of the intervening Troyan pass. A turning column crossed the Balkans on by-ways, and almost annihilated a Turkish battalion opposing it; the fortifications in the pass were attacked in front, and finally abandoned by the defenders, when nearly surrounded, after a loss of three hundred killed. A movement on a larger scale was next executed in the same way against the Turkish army at Shipka, General Skobeleff—as is unofficially stated—leading a force through the Troyan pass and falling upon the enemy from the rear, and General Radetzki assailing the fortified Turkish positions in front. "After desperate fighting," on January 9, the whole Turkish army was captured, consisting, as the official bulletin of the Grand Duke Nicholas states it, of forty-one battalions of infantry, ten batteries, and one regiment of cavalry. A later bulletin speaks of ten thousand prisoners, which may have been the whole number of the survivors. General Mirski immediately occupied Kazanlik, and his cavalry spread through the Tunja valley eastward towards Yeni Zaghra and the railroad to Yamboli. General Kartzoff, moving westward, cleared the upper Gyopsu valley, occupied Klisura, and was there met by Russian detachments coming from Zlatitza and Teteven. Grand Duke Nicholas himself began crossing the Balkans through the Shipka Pass, while General Gourko's troops occupied Ikhtiman, which was naturally abandoned without a fight by the Turks. The latter, under Suleiman Pasha, fell back beyond Tatar Bazarjik, between which town and Philippopoli, according to the latest despatches, a severe battle was fought on January 14 and 15, ending with the further retreat of the Turks, and followed by the evacuation of the last-named city. Russians from Kazanlik appeared as far south as Tchirpan, a few miles from Adrianople, whence the civil government is reported to have been removed to Rodosto, on the Sea of Marmora, while tens of thousands of the inhabitants of Rumelia were fleeing to Constantinople.

On the same day on which the Russians achieved their great victory at Shipka their Servian allies stormed some heights commanding Nissa; other posts were taken on the following day, and on the 11th the town surrendered. The fighting had been protracted and severe, but the heavy losses of the Servians were richly compensated by the capture of a garrison of eight thousand with ninety cannon and twelve thousand rifles, as reported. Kurshumlie, abandoned by the Turks, was next reoccupied, and Vranya, south of Leskovatz, entered, while the bulk of the Servian army advanced on Prishtina. On the day preceding the fall of Nissa, Antivari had surrendered to the Montenegrins. The dismay which prevailed in Constantinople on the announcement of all these calamities can easily be realized. The Cabinet was reconstituted, the Grand Vizier Edhem Pasha making place for Hamdi Pasha. The efforts to obtain an armistice, begun through Mehemet Ali, were renewed through the Minister of War, Reouf Pasha, as nominal commander-in-chief, but were, as reports have it, momentarily checked by a declaration of the Grand Duke Nicholas that "there could be no question at present of an armistice without bases for peace." As to the terms of peace which might be acceptable to his brother the Emperor he could as yet give no indications; he was, however, ready to receive Turkish plenipotentiaries at Kazanlik. These were consequently appointed at a meeting of the Grand Council at Constantinople, Server Pasha, Minister of Foreign Affairs, and Namyk Pasha receiving the delicate mission. They were expected to meet the Grand Duke on the 16th.

THE KIND OF FINANCIAL LEADERSHIP THE REPUBLICAN PARTY HAS HAD.

SOME Indiana friends of the late Senator Morton have, in defence of his memory, taken the *Nation* to task with much severity and solemnity for having recently pointed out the evil influence of his career, since the war, on public morality. We were prevented by want of space from expressing ourselves on this point as fully as we desired, and prevented, for the same reason, from saying many things also touching the evil influence of such a career on the younger generation of politicians, most of whom in our time learn the trade of politics, and the proper mode of dealing with political questions, not from schools or colleges or books, but from the lives and examples of prominent public men. Indeed, it may be said that they learn the ethics of politics almost wholly by observing the effects of a politician's doings and sayings on his reputation and success; and argue, not unnaturally, that whatever a popular and influential man does or says with impunity cannot be very far wrong, if wrong at all, and may even furnish a useful object of imitation. A worse model for this class could hardly be found than Senator Morton's dealings with the national finances since 1867, or a more striking illustration of the extent to which some public men can divest themselves of a personal conscience and personal judgment, or of the way in which public opinion on a question like the public credit can be gradually debauched by the weakness and want of principle of men in high places. It is true, no doubt, that we owe a great deal of the prevailing dishonesty, both public and private, to the spirit of gambling bred by the ups and downs of paper money; but we owe much of it, also, to the unfaithfulness of leading Republican politicians—to their readiness, almost from the close of the war, not to check or discourage, but to stimulate and promote, every little tendency to dishonesty and chicane which the pressure of the burdens of the struggle, once its excitement was over, not unnaturally produced. We do not deny or forget the firmness with which many of them stood by the public credit, but we verily believe that we owe a large part of the dishonest frenzy which has been raging in the West, in one form or another, ever since 1869 to the eagerness with which others supplied suggestions, or excuses, or instruments of fraud.

It so happened that the acts authorizing the first loans contracted after the outbreak of the war in 1861, 1862, did not mention specifically in what kind of money the principal was to be repaid. The reason undoubtedly was that nobody ever thought of any kind of money but coin. No lender dreamed of their being paid in anything else. All the officers of the Government engaged in disposing of them represented them as so payable. The sale of them at par in greenbacks was merely a somewhat simple device of Mr. Chase's for concealing the full extent of the discount at which they were really disposed of, and in the then circumstances of the Government that discount—heavy as it was—was not unreasonable. In subsequent issues, however, in order to assure fully the moneyed mind in the presence of the growing volume of paper money and the rising premium on gold, payment in coin was specifically promised. In 1867, the knavishly disposed in searching for opportunities of fraud lighted on this distinction between the two issues of bonds, and joyfully maintained that the first ones were payable in paper. The point was not raised in any practical shape; the bonds were not due and the holders were not claiming payment, and the mere fact that the borrower was also the law-maker ought to have made the very suggestion of the Government's making a little money by sharp practice, under cover of one of its own statutes, odious and unmentionable. Nevertheless Senator Sherman not only raised the point, but made it an argument in favor of a Funding Bill offering the bondholders five instead of six per cent. without the option of being paid off. He took this ground in Congress, and here is what he wrote about it in a letter at the time, and in his language one can hardly fail to see the origin of the wild and dishonest abuse of the bondholders by which a great many of the ignorant and thoughtless people have been disgracing themselves and their country ever since:

"Your idea that we propose to repudiate or violate a promise when we offer to redeem the principal in legal tenders is erroneous. I think the bondholder violates his promise when he refuses to take the same kind of money he paid for his bonds. If so, the case is to be tested by law; if it is to be tested by Jay Cooke and his advertisements, I am wrong. I hate repudiation, or anything like it; but we ought not to be deterred from what is right for fear of undeserved epithets. If under the law as it stands the bondholder can demand only the kind of money he paid, then he is a repudiator and an extortioner to demand money more valuable than he gave."

Senator Morton was at that time the most influential man in the Republican party; in fact, it might almost be said that he was *the* party. He was still in favor of returning to specie payments by redeeming the greenbacks in coin, not having yet got over the earlier Republican idea that they were Government promises to repay a forced loan, and the following year (1868) he did bring in a bill providing for such return in 1871. But he none the less fell in with Senator Sherman's very heartily. He scouted the idea that the bondholders were entitled to coin. He put the Republican party in some sort of judicial capacity, made it the guardian of the national contract with the public creditor and bound to maintain the exact letter of the law, and "protested against its being committed to the dogma that the five-twenties were payable in coin." His views of the nature of judicial functions were, however, capable of great expansion when it suited him; for in 1868, in reply to the suggestion that the Supreme Court might declare the legal-tender quality of the greenbacks as to previous contracts unconstitutional, he asserted that "the Supreme Court should be something more than an expounder of statutes or collector of precedents, and should view such questions as statesmen as well as lawyers." This, he remarked, was what Lord Mansfield did. "In construing statutes, and in the settlement of great questions, he decided them in accordance with the progress of the times and the new conditions of society." He could not bear to have the Republican party imitate the Supreme Court or Lord Mansfield, however; if the letter of the law allowed it to cheat, cheat it must.

His talk on this subject, and that of Butler and others, began to injure the public credit, and seemed likely to make refunding at a lower rate of interest impossible. The "Bill to strengthen the Public Credit," by interpreting the public obligations as a statesman and not as a lawyer, by "construing the statute and settling a great question in accordance with the progress of the times and new conditions of society," which forbid a great people to play the sharper, was therefore introduced in February, 1869. Senator Morton opposed it, tooth and nail, at every stage. He said the bill was not "law." He "could not vote for it without proving false to his own convictions, and therefore would not vote for it."

"We should," he said, "do foul injustice to the people of the United States if after we had sold those bonds on an average of 60 cents on the dollar, we were now to make a new contract for the benefit of the holders. . . . The sole object of the bill was to raise the price of bonds in the market and put money in the pockets of the speculators. He predicted that, if the bill passed, all prospect of funding the debt at 4½ per cent. must be given up until we returned to specie payments,"

and so he went on denouncing it savagely. His idea evidently was that we could not refund at a lower rate of interest if we surrendered the means of threatening the public creditor with a fraud, and evidently was not thinking much of Lord Mansfield this time. In his speech one can find the germs of nearly all the later attacks on the public credit, and of the recent Western ravings about the silver bill. He voted against its final passage.

We have no space to follow his vagaries on the bill for redistributing the national-bank currency, which, foolish as it was, his comments made more foolish still; nor his diatribes against Mr. McCulloch's contracting power, which, if persisted in, would undoubtedly have prevented the panic of 1873, by checking the tendency to speculation. We must come down to December, 1873, when, fancying he saw "how the cat was jumping," he had got bravely

over his desire for specie payments. He was now a red-hot inflationist, and said "there was a sort of fanaticism about a return to specie payments; he had it pretty bad once himself, but experience and the lapse of time had abated it in his case very considerably. He recognized gold and silver as the standard to which we should return at some time or other" (they nearly all do), "but not until it was practicable to do so"; and he was opposed to making greenbacks equal in value to coin within a short time. He cited the financial history of England at considerable length to show that the proper cure for panics was inflation, and cited the case of Russia, Italy, Austria, France, and the United States to show that it was those countries which had an irredeemable currency which had made most progress during the previous ten years. When, however, Mr. Schurz began to ply him with financial history on the other side he threw off all restraint, and became absurd and unscrupulous beyond the belief of anybody who did not hear him, or has not followed him in the *Globe:*

"He put aside," he said, "old theories and commonplaces of the books, platitudes of finance and metaphysics of finance. They had no vitality in them. He preferred to take the actual results and the actual condition of the country, and let theory go to the dogs. . . . The demand for relief from the South and West ought not to be answered by old and barren theories, nor were we to be whistled down the wind and answered by theories from John Stuart Mill and Bastiat. He hoped not."

The meaning of all this, of course, was that instead of the theories of John Stuart Mill and others, deduced from careful observation of facts in other nations and ages, we were to take the theories Mr. Morton manufactured in such odd moments as he could spare from office-jobbing. In 1875 he was vigorously advocating resumption in coin.

We have reserved to the last the tidbit of his financial history. "If," said he, "you took a plaster-of-Paris cast of the continent of Europe, with all its mountains and plains and rivers, could you make it fit upon the continent of America? No more can you make a theory that may suit Germany fit the condition of things in the United States." We ought, perhaps, to stop here, but we must before closing remark that after this great "plaster-of Paris" argument he seemed to grow more reckless, and declared "we never were properly on a specie-paying basis in this country." "This theory of specie payments," he added, "is a sort of fanaticism; some people have it on the brain." Is it any wonder that a party which has had such financial gods as this should now be rent and torn by a passion for fraud and chicane, and that a considerable portion of it should be willing to sacrifice the national credit for the sweets of any bit of repudiation, however small?

ENGLISH AND GERMAN POLICY TOWARDS TURKEY.

THE rapidly-approaching close of the Turco-Russian war seems likely to leave England in that position of an object of detestation to both belligerents which now seems to be her fate in every conflict that occurs in Christendom, in spite of what she herself deems the most conscientious efforts to be neutral. There is little doubt that the Turks would never have set the Conference at defiance and have challenged Russia to the field if the Pashas had not believed firmly that, sooner or later, England would come to their aid. Although the English diplomatic papers have held out no hope of intervention, nearly every week some little thing has occurred—a movement of troops or of the fleet, or a ministerial speech, or a Tory meeting, or a "free fight" between Turkish and Russian sympathizers in the streets—to lead the Porte to believe that the interventionists were gaining ground and would soon have their way. The call of Parliament for to-day has been keeping up the spirits of the Turks to this moment in spite of their irretrievable disasters in the field, and the probabilities are that in four weeks more they will look on England as jointly responsible with Russia for their ruin, in spite of the good advice the English Cabinet has been all along giving them.

This usual and it must be confessed somewhat ludicrous result of English interest in foreign politics is, in a great degree, the fault of the press, which, owing to its freedom and its large capital and its enterprise as a news-gatherer, enjoys an influence on the Continent to which the press of no other country can lay any claim. It takes part, too, in foreign conflicts with a vehemence and bitterness which it is impossible for Frenchmen, Germans, or Turks to look upon as anything but an indication of an approaching participation of the nation itself in the war. During the late civil war in this country, for instance, the newspaper partisans of both North and South laid about them with a fervor which was in no degree surpassed by the press of this country. In fact, the intense hatred of the Tory writers for everything Federal was not outdone in expression by the Richmond editors, and to distant lookers-on, and especially to those not accustomed to the vagaries of free speech, must have seemed a sure sign that England would shortly take part in the fray. The same phenomena, in a somewhat milder form, were observable during the Franco-Prussian war, when the sympathies of "society" were again with the French, and the newspapers which represented its views gradually worked themselves up to the point of believing that the overthrow of France would tempt the bloodthirsty conqueror into an invasion of England, a chimera to which the *jeu d'esprit* called the "Battle of Dorking" owed its great success. At this moment the hatred of Russia has reached such a pass that the calmest and most cool-headed paper in England on all other subjects, the *Pall Mall Gazette*, appears on this to be the victim of a monomania, and one does not know at which to wonder most, its wild vilification of the Russians or its wild glorification of the Turks. That the Pashas can read it and some other papers without feeling that some serious step will shortly be taken by England is, of course, with their limited knowledge of the conditions of western society, almost impossible.

What makes all this the more remarkable is that, although it is well known that both Austria and Germany have a far heavier interest in the result of the war than England, and are in much closer proximity to its horrors, and have a much more serious appreciation of the gentle Turk, the public in both these countries has remained perfectly calm, and the Governments have refrained from all hints as to the nature of their policy or the direction of their sympathies. Indeed, the dignity and self-restraint with which Count Andrássy and Prince Bismarck have looked on at what was passing at their doors must present to Englishmen a mortifying contrast to the fussiness of their own Government, and the effect of this contrast must be aggravated by the reflection that either Andrássy or Bismarck could stop the war in a single week, while it is more than doubtful whether England could at any time since the crossing of the Danube have exerted any influence on it except by keeping up the spirits of the Turks; and yet the Turks seem to cast no blame on the Austrians or Germans. Indeed, it is only now—so well has Bismarck kept his counsel, and so calmly has Germany looked on—that real curiosity begins to be manifested about his policy, or that any trustworthy indications of it begin to leak out. Its vague outlines, however, are now becoming discernible, and if carried out he will have the honor of settling the last of the great European problems left untouched by the treaties of 1815; and probably in the way most conducive to all the great interests of civilization. The conjectures as to his aim which begin to find circulation and credit are, that he was only too glad to let Russia undertake the trouble and expense of putting an end to Turkey, and was determined from the first that she should not be interfered with; and how little importance he has attached to English restiveness has been illustrated by his latest and not least effective *mot*, "that if Turkey is a sick man, England is a sick woman." He means, probably, that Russia, having completed the job satisfactorily, shall get her compensation in Asia and in the freedom of the Dardanelles, and that the débris of the Turkish Empire in Europe shall furnish in some way or other, perhaps in the shape of an archducal viceroyalty, an excuse for pushing Austria a little further down to the southeast among the Slavs, and giving her a chance to build up an influence or make accessions of territory in that direction which will make her total separation from

Germany, when the time comes, easier and more acceptable. Indeed, it may now be almost said with certainty that he means that Austria shall do the main portion of the work of reorganizing European Turkey, and infusing political life into the populations which the peace will relieve from the Turkish yoke; and if this be really his plan, the skill and patience displayed in putting the cost of the enterprise on Russia can hardly be too much admired.

It is impossible to dwell on the calmness of the attitude of the other Powers on this Eastern Question, as compared to the English unrest, without asking whether what may be called the sporting view of foreign wars, which has now become so common in England —that is, the fierce sentimental interest in what Englishmen call "the weaker party," and the noisy desire that he should win, without reference to the goodness of his cause or the practical results of his victory—is not due in a great degree to the separation of the army from the body of the people. The smallness of the force and the mode of recruiting it make it seem rather like a champion hired to maintain the honor of the country than the nation itself in arms, and tempts the press and the clubs into the betting-men's way of looking at armed conflicts—that is, as if they were *spectacula*, rather than judgments in tremendous controversies delivered, as it were, amidst thunder and lightning. To a Continental statesman like Bismarck, to whom war means the calling of the whole people away from their industry to march through blood and fire, the sympathy of men like Disraeli for the Turks because they have fought well, or the notion current in London society that Russia is a cruel bully because she overwhelms a weak power with her big battalions, must seem extremely puerile. To him war is an instrument for great ends, and though bred in a military atmosphere, and the minister of an intensely military court, he has probably a far deeper sense of the solemnity of an appeal to arms than the Englishmen who, bred under the *habeas corpus* and the bill of rights, are thrilled by the desperation with which the Ottoman barbarians defend the soil which for so many ages they have drenched with the blood and tears of their victims. If the conscription should have the effect of giving English opinion a better comprehension both of the cost of war and of its gravity, and a deeper sense of the folly of regarding it as in any sense a prize-fight or mere trial of strength, worse things might befall the country than having to come to it; and this is a consideration which ought to go a good way in atoning for the heavy drafts which the enormous armaments of our day make on the material resources of the great states.

COLLEGIATE ORATORY.

THE competition in oratory between undergraduates of half a dozen colleges, which took place in this city on Thursday evening under the auspices of the Intercollegiate Association, and which we had an opportunity of witnessing, more than confirmed the doubts we have often expressed in these columns as to the expediency of encouraging displays of this character, and as to the unwholesomeness of their influence on mental training. One would expect, in the first place, if one-half of what the friends of college oratory tell us of its value were true, that students who cultivate and excel in it would exhibit some of the characteristics of a corps d'élite, and would furnish a flattering intellectual representation of their colleges, especially in an intercollegiate match. One was struck on Thursday evening, however, by the exceeding immaturity of the contestants. The choice of subjects was in itself a strong indication of a love of generalities and of a taste for hazy thinking, and sounding rather than exact expression, which properly belongs to the freshman or school period, and ought not to be found in company with beards, or be displayed on public occasions of this sort. No youth who had learned to think consecutively, and pursue subjects in his thought, would, for instance, care to discourse on the "Everlasting Man," or "The Ideal Man," or "Principle." These are topics on which one can talk by the hour and say nothing, and which a student with the right stuff in him would therefore naturally avoid. If the cultivation of oratory drives a young man in on such topics, it furnishes an argument of a very strong kind for avoiding it during the period of mental growth and discipline. The only way of escaping from these conclusions is by supposing that the best men of the various competing colleges do not enter the oratorical lists, and that the prizes there are sought by the fluent and histrionic rather than by the hard workers and strong thinkers; but this does not mend matters.

The choice of topics in some degree prepared one for the orations. They were as a rule well delivered, and bore traces of careful elocutionary training, as well as of considerable elocutionary capacity. The tones and gestures had been for the most part well studied, but so well that they made the subject-matter of the various discourses seem still more thin and commonplace. The fine manner seemed thrown away on the poor matter. Talma could not have struck better attitudes, or managed his voice better than some of the speakers; but it would have taken Cicero or Demosthenes to make the speeches worthy of the setting, and the speeches consisted mostly of commonplaces and platitudes taken in a loose way from the most accessible books, and poorly put together. Not one bore any trace of a careful preparation as regards facts or logic. One gentleman who dealt with a historical subject had not taken the trouble to bring his reading down to our own day, and the result was that his peroration was made up of a great and, under the circumstances, discreditable blunder. All the speeches, indeed, kept pretty clear of facts, and carefully avoided anything like a line of argument. None contained any sign of wide or accurate reading. One, which was perhaps the best delivered, was a kind of rhapsody worthy of Ossian. In fact, it is only by using the word oratory in the sense of "rhetoric"—that is, in its lowest and narrowest sense—that the contest could be called a contest in oratory at all, and it was difficult to avoid the conclusion that oratory cultivated in this way tended to mark a distinction between sound and sense, than which nothing in education is to be more carefully avoided.

It was somewhat interesting to observe the revelations made by the speeches as to the ideals cherished by the orators. The one on which, as was not unnatural, the admiration of nearly all was concentrated was the come-outer, the brave man who says strange things which afterwards come true, but is persecuted by his contemporaries for saying them, or who leads in some movement which looks hopeless in its beginning and brings ridicule on him, but turns out a great success in the end. This was all very well, but it would have been encouraging if there had been some signs of admiration also for the steady, faithful, persevering man, who does his duty in beaten paths. The mind of the orators evidently turned towards achievement through brilliant strokes or devious ways, rather than through silent and unobtrusive tenacity. But there was nothing more marked in the orations than the love of imagery and pictorial illustration, and in this they were a curious reminder of the speeches in the *Congressional Record*, a volume which few Americans look into, but which is full of interesting revelations of character and mental habits. In nothing more than in the use of illustrations is the difference between the real and the sham orator shown. With the former they simply furnish a means of lighting up his argument, or bringing the hearer's fancy to the aid of his attention; with the latter they constantly fill the place of arguments themselves. The one, for instance, will bring home to you vividly the changefulness there is even in the dark things of life, and the unreasonableness of despair, by pointing out that every cloud has a silver lining; the other will tell you to expect relief in your troubles *because* clouds are sure to pass away and the sun to shine again. Congressional orators frequently get over the difficult spots in their ratiocination in this way by resorting to images drawn from natural phenomena. And in no debates are they so apt to do this as in debates on finance. Again and again have the beneficial effects of inflation been proved by showing the fertilizing influence of water on a dry and barren plain. We have referred in another column to the late Senator Morton's argument that the financial experience of German men was of no use to American men, *because* you could not make a plaster cast of the surface of Europe fit the surface of the United States. The temptation to this abuse of imagery in such displays as the Intercollegiate contest is, of course, very great. The audience is very large, and could hardly be less critical, and is easier to hit with a trope or simile than with anything else; and it is therefore not surprising that the orators resort to whatever draws applause and seems likeliest to keep their friends from feeling bored. This, too, will account in part for the hero-worship of most of the speeches. A glowing eulogy on Lincoln, or Martin Luther, or William Tell can be brought in apropos of almost anything, and never fails to bring down the house.

At the bottom of all attempts of this sort to train young men to be orators, there is the radical error that writing a florid or bombastic essay on a subject with which one is imperfectly acquainted, learning it by

heart and repeating it in public, is oratory, or can lead to oratory in any proper or useful sense of the term. The great difficulty with all young men, as regards either speaking or writing, is rather that they do not know what to say than that they do not know how to say it. Almost every young man who takes to speaking or writing early is apt to be naturally fluent with tongue or pen. The kindest thing a friend or teacher can do for such a person is not to encourage him to take lessons in elocution and spout in public whatever comes easiest to him, but to train himself carefully in the mastery of subjects and the arrangement of arguments. The imagery and other ornamentation should come afterwards. To lay them on effectively needs taste and judgment, which do not always come naturally. It ought to be more discreditable to a young orator to be inaccurate, or ignorant, or slipshod as to his facts, or illogical as to his conclusions, than to break down in his delivery. If we ask any one who has made much effective use of his tongue in public, What is it that an orator most needs? he will tell us that it is to be able "to think on his legs," as the popular phrase is—that is, to have the full command of his faculties and of his materials or knowledge while actually addressing an audience. That this can be acquired by training, that it is an invaluable acquisition, and that in acquiring it all the mental powers may be strengthened, is known by a vast amount of experience. Now, to this such exhibitions as the Intercollegiate contest and commencement orations contribute nothing, absolutely nothing. The true training for such oratory as we need in our day and in this country is to be found in debate—that is, in the discussion of questions involving the answer on the spot of arguments there heard for the first time. To do this successfully needs careful preparation, full knowledge of the subject, and full command of this knowledge, and readiness and skill in arranging or drawing on it. It is this kind of training that would give our educated men their legitimate influence in shaping public opinion, and in elevating the public taste and controlling legislation. Far from cultivating this, however, one of the noblest and manliest of arts, our colleges, in so far as they have given any attention to the matter at all, have devoted themselves to encouraging the "demonstrative oratory" of the Greeks—that is, the repetition by heart of elaborate written essays—which was an agreeable and perhaps useful accomplishment in days when there were neither books nor newspapers, but a large population of lounging critics who were ready to listen to anything which wiled away the time, and to whom rhetoric was one of the fine arts, and language as delicate an instrument of expression as music. We cannot bring back those times if we would, and the more we try, or seem to try, to do it, the wider the gulf we create between the universities and the every-day life of the country (which is wide enough already), and the deeper we make popular distrust as to the value of university training. It was a curious and significant circumstance that not one of the subjects chosen by the young men who declaimed the other night at the Academy of Music, except one, had the smallest connection with the topics which are now agitating the world—the problems of trade, finance, religion, and war—which all civilized men are now pondering with fear and trembling. One gentleman spoke on the "Convictions of Labor," but as mystically and vaguely as if he were addressing the "Liberal Club," or as if "Labor" meant some sort of abstraction, and not men called laborers. As to the others, it seemed as if the themes which are now convulsing the world had never reached their ears, any more than if they had been bred in convents.

It is tolerably clear that the educated class in America is not likely to find in our time the entrance to official life any easier than it is now. Why it is, and whose fault it is, we do not propose to discuss here. Of the fact that our legislatures, both National and State, contain an increasingly small proportion of college-bred men we believe there is no question, and we would advise college-bred men to give up the hope of any such immediate change in the conditions of public life as will give them the official prominence in it they once held. But this, instead of furnishing a reason for neglecting public affairs altogether, furnishes a reason for seeking other channels of influence or power, and those channels undoubtedly are the platform and the press, and the oratorical training given at colleges should have this in view. We have had enough of "demonstrative oratory"; what we need now is men who can hold their own against all comers on the things of which all the world is thinking and by which the world is shaken; who are not afraid of a blatherskite, and who will not be willing to let him do all the talking on the questions of the day. There could hardly be a more striking illustration of the shortcomings of our colleges in this particular than the history of the pending silver movement. It is, all things considered, the boldest and most persistent assault which has been made on public and private faith since the foundation of the Government. It has elicited a prodigious amount of speaking and writing, and has revealed depths of folly, ignorance, and knavery which no lover of the country can see without alarm. And yet how many "educated men," properly so called, have taken part in the discussion it has caused? As far as our observation has gone, one might almost count them on the fingers of one hand. They have for the most part treated it as if it were a "politician's" question, and left it to the newspapers, and buried themselves in their books and private affairs, or, if they have spoken at all, have confined themselves to general and inoffensive observations on the advantages of virtue in the conduct of public business.

THE EUROPEAN SITUATION AFTER PLEVNA.

PARIS, December 28, 1877.

THE fall of Plevna has produced the greatest sensation here, even coming in the midst of a political crisis which engrossed the public attention. This great event has a military as much as a political importance. It can be well said that the art of war has been completely transformed by the use of arms which allow the infantry to fire very rapidly and at great distances. Many of the famous manœuvres which have rendered the name of Napoleon immortal, and gave him for a few years the domination of Europe, would now be quite impossible, and the great warrior would be obliged to change his strategy as well as his tactics. The use of the new arms was shown for the first time in your great American war; your generals discovered almost instinctively and under the pressure of necessity the laws of the new warfare. They found that war has become to a certain extent a question of arithmetic and geometry; that the bravest troops cannot advance against a long front of men who can fire rapidly, and who are protected by improvised intrenchments, or even by rifle-pits. The siege of Richmond became the most extraordinary illustration of the new rules of war: the besiegers had to defend themselves exactly in the same way as the besieged; redoubts were opposed to redoubts, trenches to trenches; the long coil of fortifications was drawn round Richmond; the courage was equal on both sides; each party was impregnable in its own intrenchments; in the end the besieged were obliged to capitulate.

So it happened again at Plevna. There are probably no better troops than the troops which were commanded by Osman Pasha—sober, hardy, obedient, imbued with the courage which is inspired by a strong religious faith; nevertheless, as soon as the road to Sophia was shut on Osman, as soon as the circle of rifle-pits and trenches was complete round Plevna, the defeat of the Turks became, so to speak, a question of time. Osman attacked the redoubts of the Russians on the last day, for the sake of his own honor and of the honor of his army; he probably had little hope to break through the lines which were defended by such a formidable fire. I have heard from an eye-witness an account of the attack on the lines at St. Privat, which were held by Marshal Canrobert before Metz. Canrobert had, so to speak, buried all his men in rifle-pits; when the Prussian guard advanced against his line a tremendous fire arose from the earth; the plain was swept by projectiles in rapid succession; in ten minutes six thousand men, the flower of the German host, were on the ground, the victims of a boldness which no longer finds application in the present system of warfare. The Germans succeeded in taking Metz, because Bazaine kept his army before it; he was shut in, hemmed in as Osman Pasha was at Plevna. The city fell with the army, while the destinies of the city and of the army might have been kept separate.

It seems as if the rule of numbers was invading war as well as politics; the new system of warfare requires immense armies, capable of enveloping any position, any army, opposed to it. The moral, individual qualities of the soldier seem to be becoming less important. Take the most stupid soldier, place him in a rifle-pit, give him an excellent gun and plenty of cartridges, suppose him to be an atom among thousands of other atoms equally destructive, and you can produce the most terrible effects with elements in themselves inferior. A Moltke, a Todleben, will play at war as we play at chess. Far be it from me to depreciate those moral qualities which, at a given time or given point, can still play a very important part. It seems to me, however, that war is becoming altered in its character, that it now requires cool strategists, able to move enormous masses of men. I say it with regret because these conditions seem to impose upon all the civilized nations of Europe the system of compulsory and universal military service; all the nations which take so much pride in their civilization must perforce become armed nations. England, isolated in her island, may perhaps escape this necessity, espe-

cially if she contrives to make in India a nursery of soldiers. Her army, in order to be very effective, need not be composed exclusively of British soldiers; it only requires English commanders and officers, English discipline and English arms. The military teachings of the present war between the Turks and the Russians throw a sort of gloom over the future of Europe. The friends of civilization cannot help being satisfied in seeing a race of conquerors who have been a curse to the finest parts of Europe fallen from their old glory, and threatened in Constantinople itself. And the Turks ought to be driven back to Asia Minor. New states would soon flourish in the valley of the Danube; Greece, assuming the proportions of a real state, would soon become an important empire; the Rumanians, who have shown real military qualities, might become agents of civilization in the west of Europe. But the satisfaction which can be felt at such prospects is diminished by the vision of a Europe which will be perforce in arms from one end to the other. Till the new equilibrium is found which must take the place of the old, till time has soothed the passions and angers which are now felt, the rising generations will all be taught the art of war, and enormous forces will be permanently wasted. The last word of civilization will be a state of perpetual (real or virtual) warfare. What, under these circumstances, will be the future of the few small states which are still in existence? What can be the chances of Belgium, of Holland, of Switzerland, of Denmark, in this great struggle for life of ardent, ambitious, and unscrupulous nationalities? "L'Europe, quelle est cette femme?" once said Forcade, in one of his luminous chronicles in the *Revue des Deux Mondes*. He was right; this Europe, known by the statesmen and the diplomatists of past times, no longer exists; and who can doubt that force will be a necessary agent of the transformation of the European states?

I have always believed in what is called the alliance of the three Emperors. At the time when it was the fashion to represent the Germanic and the Russian interests as necessarily hostile, I did not doubt that there was a complete understanding between the men who can direct the policy of Germany and the policy of Russia. At the time when Klaczko wrote his book, 'The Two Chancellors,' I did not believe that he would succeed in his effort to separate Germany and Russia. He there represented Russia as having been completely outwitted by Prince Bismarck, after having been his tool during the war of Sadowa and the French war; but Prince Bismarck, notwithstanding the great antipathy which is felt in Germany towards Russia, especially among the Liberals, notwithstanding the fidelity of many statesmen to the old Metternichian doctrines, entered into a close alliance with Russia, and did so with his usual frankness—a frankness the brutality of which is often as deceitful or more deceitful than duplicity. He drew Austria by a gentle compulsion into the alliance. I think that I am not much mistaken if I affirm that *all* was arranged more than two years ago, in the expectation of Russia's victory over Turkey, between Germany, Russia, and Austria-Hungary. Nothing was arranged in view of a possible defeat. Russia took *all* the risks on herself; if she had suffered an irreparable defeat, she would have been obliged to recross the Danube without any compensation for her great sacrifices. The alliance of Germany was only intended to guarantee to her the neutrality of the other European powers. In case of victory, however, I have reason to believe that something approaching a positive agreement has been prepared. There is nothing in common between Poland and Turkey; what has been prepared resembles, however, the famous partition of Poland. In this case the three allies will not make conquests, nor increase considerably their own possessions; new states will be formed which will be placed under the guarantee or protectorate of the allies. Even before the war broke out Prince Charles of Hohenzollern had made a convention with the Czar for the passage of the Russian armies; the Rumanians have fought bravely by the side of the Russians, and Bucharest is likely to become the capital of an important Danubian state, perhaps of a Danubian kingdom, which will cease to be under the nominal vassalage of the Commander of the Faithful. The conduct of Count Andrássy has taken by surprise the friends as well as the enemies of Austria. While the Magyars made demonstrations in favor of the Turks, the Slavs were not allowed to show their sympathies for Servia; there was no desire at Vienna to encourage the rebellion of a considerable body of Slavs. When the settlement of the Eastern question approaches, these apparent inconsistencies will be explained. Count Andrássy was in the secret of the Emperors; he calmed Hungary at a time when any movement of Austria-Hungary would have been injurious to the Russian projects. Austria-Hungary will have her reward, and I should be surprised if there was not in the Imperial family an Archduke all ready to do in Bosnia, Herzegovina, Servia, and even Bulgaria, what the Prince of Hohenzollern will have to do on the Lower Danube.

The offers of mediation which Turkey has made since her great defeat at Plevna have met and could meet with no success, since Eastern affairs have come to the point where human things, after long troubles and anxieties, can at last find their natural development and termination. I have read this morning a letter from St. Petersburg, written by a competent judge, describing the enthusiasm felt by the Russian people, and I noticed the words, "Our Czar will himself *dictate* the peace." The war will go on, and it is even said that the Czar is anxious to go now to Armenia. Who is going to stop the natural development of events? Who will rise and tell the Russians that they will not be allowed to press victory like a fruit full of juice? Who will oppose a contrary solution to the solution so long ago marked out by the Chancellors of Europe? Italy has placed herself completely in the orbit of the three powers. During the summer she sent Crispi, the President of the Chamber of Deputies, to Vienna and to Berlin. France is determined not to recommence a Crimean war, and whether her Minister of Foreign Affairs calls himself Decazes or Waddington her policy is so plain, so natural, that no power in Europe can hope to drag her for its own benefit from her isolation.

These mighty considerations cannot fail to impress themselves on the statesmen of England. Great Britain has, single-handed, done wonderful things; but a war against Russia, inflated by victory, satisfied with the sanctity of her cause, supported by the alliance of Germany, by the assent of all the minor powers of Europe, would be such a tremendous undertaking as even Lord Palmerston, if he was still alive, would hesitate before attempting. And what would now be the object of the war? Can the rule of the Turk be re-established in the provinces now occupied by enormous armies? can a British army retake Plevna? The war could only be concentrated around Constantinople. We might have a siege of Sebastopol reversed, but at the end of such a siege, whatever the result might be, the yoke of Turkey over the greater part of her Christian provinces would none the less be broken. England is hesitating; she asks herself whether she had not better give up the cause of Turkey as a lost cause and assure herself of some naval positions in order to increase the security of her commerce in the East, or whether it is still time, by prompt and decisive action, to save the remnants of the Treaty of Paris. It is never safe to prophesy what England may do; Baron Brunnow misled the Emperor Nicholas when he assured him that England would never go to war. England is prudent, she is cautious, she is intelligent, and can see the most distant consequences of a fact; but she is proud and passionate, and there are moments when all wisdom seems to her folly, and when all her prudence is lost in the instincts which are always dormant in her race. When Parliament meets on the 17th of January she will approach one of those moments which are the turning-points in the history of a nation.

Correspondence.

THE STABILITY OF THE GOLD STANDARD.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Will you have the kindness to enlighten some of your benighted Western readers by answering in your paper the following queries?

1st. Is there, or can there be in the nature of things, an absolutely invariable unit or measure of value, as a yard is a measure of length or a bushel of quantity?

2d. Is the value of gold irrevocably fixed by the cost of its production, or does it, like that of all other commodities, though being made by law the standard, and consequently remaining nominally the same, in reality constantly vary with the supply and demand?

3d. If a gold dollar is always and everywhere of the same value, really as well as in name, how can it pay at one time to transport it from New York to London and at another time back again?

4th. Supposing that it does really change in value, according to the supply and demand, how could the fact be ascertained and the variation measured while it is the only standard, and, of course, nominally the same?

T. P. Seeley, M.D.

Chicago, January 3, 1878.

[1. There is not, and there cannot be; because a measure of value measures desire as well as quantity. Gold is a commodity, and the object of desire as such, and for reasons arising out of its steadiness

of weight, its bulk, durability, and comparative cost of production, is a commodity through which it is convenient to exchange other commodities.

2. No, it is not; it varies partly with the cost of production, and partly with supply and demand.

3. The gold dollar is not always and everywhere of the same value, because the supply and demand are not always and everywhere the same. It pays to transport it from New York to London, and *vice versa*, when its value, owing to exceptional causes, at the one place is sufficiently greater than its value at the other to pay the cost of transportation and a small profit. This variation in value has been so often explained as to be one of the commonplaces of political economy. The favorite and most useful illustration of the process is that which supposes the world's supply of gold to be a central reservoir, from which the gold flows to those points at which the demand for it has risen and away from those at which the demand has fallen, and this ebb and flow goes on constantly, forming a sort of general tendency to equilibrium. Demand for gold is indicated by a fall in prices, or, in other words, by an increased readiness to sell, say in New York, after a panic. It then flows to New York from London until the supply in New York is such as to raise prices there and lower them in London, and it then flows back. In other words, it is constantly seeking its level, like water, all over the world. One advantage of using the same currency as other nations is, that we can, when short of money, draw on this central reservoir. In 1873, for instance, being out of monetary connection with Europe, the gold supply of Europe could do nothing to relieve the local pressure. When it came here it lay in the banks idle, greenbacks all the while bringing a heavy premium. The silver lunatics propose to continue this isolation.

4. The only way of finding out whether it has changed in value is by finding out whether its power of purchasing a number of other commodities, sufficiently large for safe generalization, has increased or diminished. To prove it, an examination of the silver-price of a variety of commodities in various commercial countries would be necessary.—Ed. Nation.]

GOVERNOR RICE'S MONARCHICAL CIVIL SERVICE.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: It is greatly to be regretted that the Governor of Massachusetts should have announced himself on the side of Messrs. Conkling, Blaine, Butler, and Chandler in respect to civil-service reform. It is further to be regretted that he took advantage of his official communication to the Legislature for an announcement so contrary to all the latest utterances of the conventions and of the best public men of Massachusetts.

We say that we regret his action; we cannot say that we are surprised. With rectitude in his pecuniary relations to the world, with all the ordinary household virtues, and with excellent talents for administrative office, still it has never been thought or claimed that Governor Rice has in him any of that stuff of which heroes, martyrs, or reformers are made. His want of backbone, his almost morbid dread of unpopularity, are as well known in his State and as freely acknowledged as any fact in his history. He has been entrusted with a series of offices in spite of these defects, and because of the good qualities we have named.

The paragraph in which he treats of civil-service reform is carefully composed of strong and high-sounding generalities, but on everything practical it is a complete surrender. His quick eye for popular effects showed him how civil-service reform could be opposed with the most popular results, the least risk to himself, and leaving to himself the easiest opportunities for receding in case his reckoning of political probabilities should turn out mistaken. He is painfully impressed with the consideration that a permanent civil service, one in which the tenure shall be good behavior, however desirable, is monarchical! It is unsuited to a republic! The only civil service suited to republican institutions is such as we have been blessed with the last forty years.

"Much of the controversy on the subject has arisen out of the differing methods and politics employed or advocated to secure these results. It has sometimes appeared, to those who have given thought to the matter, that the partial failure which has hitherto attended the efforts to improve the civil service has come from mistaken arguments, which would, if successful, engraft upon our republican government the characteristic civil service of monarchies; and that many of the complaints made against the American system of civil service are, in reality, complaints against a republican form of government itself, through the system of civil service, which is a necessary part of that government. In a monarchy, authority in the civil service is represented in the crown; and schools of training may be maintained, and their graduates appointed to places in the various departments, with the certainty that, if found to be competent and faithful, they will remain there through life, or through the continuance of a dynasty. But a republic is a monarchy upside down."

"*The* American system," then, is the spoils system of the last forty years! And it is "a necessary part of that government"! A system of good-behavior tenure, irrespective of party voting and acting, for the lower offices, is the "characteristic civil service of monarchies"! And all this because "a republic is a monarchy upside down"! We supposed better things of a republic. We supposed it had a positive and distinct character of its own, and was not something else inverted, topsy-turvy, or lying on its side. If a republic is a monarchy upside down, we suppose a governor is a king standing on his head. Some people thought so at Philadelphia, in 1876, but we never sympathized with those envious speeches. We took pride in seeing the Governor of the great commonwealth surrounded by the most splendid retinue and gorgeous escort of them all.

It seems to us that His Excellency's description of a republic fits perfectly the present civil service. It is, if anything ever was, a despotism with the heels at the top and the brains at the bottom. Its rule has been despotic and personal, its motive-power spoils, and its tenure political personal servitude, unworthy of the free citizens of a republic.

Armies and navies have been characteristic of monarchies. No reader of history can forget that a regular army was opposed in England, on the accession of William III., upon the ground that it was unworthy of a constitutional monarchy—the characteristic tool of despotism; and the historical evidence to that position was insuperable. But Lord Somers and the wisest Liberals of that day had faith enough in the people and parliament of England to believe that they could maintain an army and navy with no danger to their liberties, and so it has turned out. Our Army and our Military Academy were attacked on the same grounds; and now, after the Mexican War and our civil war, an occasional demagogue is heard attempting the same cry, but in a feeble way, and with no acclaim in his support. The argument is equally good against the good-behavior tenure of the judges, which is the pride and bulwark of Governor Rice's State and of the republic, and it was used with too much effect by demagogues in times past, so that the corrected opinion of this day finds it difficult to restore that tenure where it has been lost. The change in the judiciary from one dependent on "the powers that be" to a tenure during good behavior is the greatest advance ever made in England toward freedom, good government, law, and order. The next was the emancipation of the vast body of inferior civil servants from the control, not of the Crown, but of the Cabinet and its leading supporters, and putting them upon a good-behavior tenure, irrespective of their votes, and freed from the personal servitude to party leaders. The English Liberals made this change, and the English Radicals are its devoted supporters. When Mr. Mundella, the Radical member from Sheffield, was in this country, observing our institutions with a keen and practical eye, he left us, in his speech at the Cooper Institute, a solemn warning against the effects of our present civil-service system. It was the most discouraging thing he had seen in America. He held up the independent good-behavior tenure of England as a system distinctly favorable to the independence and dignity of the people, and adverse to the despotism of one or of the few.

It taxes one's patience and good nature to criticise such talk as this, from whatever source it comes. But when it is used by intelligent men, whether from lack of virtue or of courage, to prop up a system which has disgraced and imperilled our republic in the eyes of republicans and liberals the world over, and furnish the advocates of despotism with their best arguments against us, we can only hope that the people will show more faith in themselves and their institutions than do their political advisers; that they will not sit down under the evil as a "necessary part of their government" because it is "a monarchy upside down," but will go forward in the belief that a republic can stand an independent tenure of its civil servants, subject to removal only for misconduct or incapacity, and no longer the trembling mendicants before the local party power, without danger of being turned into a monarchy standing on its feet. And we trust that our public men will not be scared by Governor Rice's insinuation, that all who support a reformed civil-service system are

secret enemies of a republic; and that he himself will be converted by seeing an unmistakable turn of the tide in its favor.

A Massachusetts Republican.

Boston, January 10.

PERSONAL FRIENDSHIPS AND PRESIDENTIAL APPOINTMENTS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Your course towards President Hayes is eminently fair. I say this because I wrote you a note of criticism a year ago in another connection. But in a recent article you named various appointments made by him to which you took more or less exception. You named, however, Wm. Henry Smith, Collector of Chicago, as one instance of an appointment made upon the merits of the man. I happen to know a good deal about that. Mr. Smith *was worthy to be appointed upon his merits only;* but he is and has long been an intimate personal friend of Mr. Hayes, and rendered him very efficient service in the campaigns for the Governorship of Ohio. The point, however, is, Does civil-service reform require that a man eminently fitted for a position should fail of that position simply because he is a personal friend of the President?

Very truly yours, James H. Taylor.

Rome, N. Y., January 8, 1878.

[No, it does not, under ordinary circumstances, or rather would not were the civil service reformed. But when the fight against appointments through favoritism and influence is just beginning, and when the public has not yet been educated to believe in the possibility of anything else, or in the sincerity of those who advocate anything else, we think the President does the cause considerable injury by appointing men who, however good, are his personal friends, or have rendered him personal service, as long as anybody else equally well fitted for the place can readily be found. Such appointments give scandal, and shake the popular faith, and, in fact, are condemned by the argument which forbids the most upright judge to take presents from suitors.—Ed. Nation.]

TREATMENT OF COOLIES IN CUBA.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In your issue of October 18, speaking of the report of the Chinese Commissioners to Cuba, as recently republished in China, with illustrations, you say: "A few of the scenes we owe solely to the artist's imagination, like that in plate 39, . . . and probably in that in plate 36, where the sugar is being refined with men's bones."

I went with the commission to Cuba, and while there read and copied several hundred of the statements of their grievances which were made by the coolies to the Commission, and furnished the materials for a large part of the report. I also heard through the interpreters of the Commission much that was said by the coolies that was not committed to writing. Among the complaints made of ill treatment, in forms too varied and horrible to be easily imagined by any one who had not the opportunity to hear and see those most wretched men, none were more frequent and bitter than complaints about the disposition of the bodies of those who died—the leaving them unburied, throwing them into the sea, throwing them into pits, etc., and, along with the rest, the statement was again and again made to us that the bones of Chinamen were used for refining sugar. This was almost the first complaint that we heard, and it was repeated by scores of men. Whether Chinamen's bones, or any bones at all, are so used I do not know; but there is no doubt whatever in my mind that the coolies in Cuba generally believe that sugar there is refined in the way depicted by the artist. Probably the artist got his information from some of the servants or attachés of the Commission, unless, indeed, the few coolies who have from time to time returned to China may have circulated this story there. Henry T. Terry.

Tokio, Japan, November 25, 1877.

Notes.

Cassell, Petter & Galpin publish early next month a 'Dictionary of English Literature,' by W. Davenport Adams; a comprehensive guide to English authors and their works, and, if we may judge from the prospectus, a cross between Allibone, Vapereau, and Bartlett ('Familiar Quotations').——G. P. Putnam's Sons announce for immediate publication the following works not previously mentioned in these columns: 'Over Mental Work and Emotional Disturbance as Causes of Cerebral Congestion,' by Dr. Wm. A. Hammond; 'A Manual of Nursing,' by Dr. Victoria White, revised and edited by Dr. Mary Putnam-Jacobi; 'Canoeing in Kanuckia,' by Col. W. L. Norton and John Habberton, illustrated; 'Pottery,' by Geo. Ward Nichols; 'Handbook of Ceramic Art,' by M. S. Lockwood; a series of art manuals by Mrs. Robert Carter, principal of the Cooper Union School of Design, beginning with the 'Art of Sketching from Nature'; 'The Elective Franchise in the United States,' by D. C. McMillan; and 'Railroads and Railroad Questions,' by Charles Francis Adams, jr. The same house have begun issuing a series of "Economic Monographs," which already includes: 'Why we Trade and How we Trade,' and 'The Silver Question,' by David A. Wells—the former embracing part of Mr. Wells's controversy with "Merchant" in these columns; and 'The Tariff Question,' by Horace White. These monographs correspond very well with Von Holtzendorff's *Zeit- und Streit-Fragen* series.——Vol. xii. of 'Documents relating to the Colonial History of the State of New York,' just issued from the office of the Secretary of State, Albany, consists of documents pertaining to the Dutch and Swedish settlements on the Delaware River (1624–1682), translated and compiled by B. Fernow, keeper of the Historical Records. Mr. John Bigelow furnishes the introductory historical *aperçu*. It is a serious defect of the volume that the table of contents is not paged, and that there is no index.——A remarkable catalogue called "2,700 Personals," has been sent us by Charles L. Woodward, of 78 Nassau St. It is a condensed list, in alphabetical order, of funeral sermons, eulogies, biographical sketches, etc., generally so much in request and so hard to find.——Mr. Wm. Cushing, of the Harvard College Library, has indexed the *North American Review*, both for subjects and authors, down to 1878, and invites subscriptions to a bound volume at $2 50.——Professor Simon Newcomb has been elected a foreign member of the Royal Society of London, an honor hitherto enjoyed by Dr. Asa Gray alone among living Americans.——Prof. Tyndall's latest contribution to the Spontaneous Generation controversy—an account of his researches during his last summer's stay in the Alps—will appear in the *Popular Science Monthly* for February.

—Messrs. Porter & Coates write us from Philadelphia:

"We notice that in your review of Hullah's 'Music in the House,' in your number of 10th inst., you speak of it as being preferable to a dollar's worth of trashy sheet-music, thereby creating the impression in the reader's mind that the price of the book is $1. Will you please make some mention of the price of it in your next issue, as intending purchasers would then remit the correct amount (75 cents)?"

—We have received from B. Westermann & Co. the *Almanach de Gotha* for 1878. In its select portrait-gallery President Hayes figures among princes and princesses, and in the "Chronique" the United States, as usual, holds the first place, the Presidential struggle furnishing most of the incidents recorded. The novel features of the *Almanach* are few, but some are of considerable value. The census statistics of Germany and of Chili (1875) have been slightly corrected in accordance with the latest computations; the bare result of the French census of 1876, announced last November, is also given; and the American editor and statistician will find convenient our State and city censuses of 1875 which are here added in foot-notes. The comparative tables at the end of the volume are noteworthy in more than one particular. Thus, the issue of the Russo-Turkish war could not be better predicted than by the simple statement (p. 1027) that the army of Russia on a peace-footing is 787,998 strong, while that of Turkey is 157,667. For the first time the statistics as to the length of railroad lines have been supplemented by tables showing the number of persons transported and tons moved, absolutely and per kilometer; the gross receipts (total and respectively from passengers and freight), and the net proceeds after deducting costs of working. These have been prepared by Professor Stürmer. Still more valuable just now are Dr. Ad. Soetbeer's observations on the precious metals and on currency and banking systems, both European and American. Tables showing the production of gold and silver during the present century, in which the United States overtakes and surpasses Australia and Mexico; the relative value of the metal products, from which it appears that silver, which in the first decade (1801–10) was worth 77.3 per cent. of the total, was in 1871–5 worth only 42.8; the exportations to British India; the ratio of the two metals since 1830, the average of silver having fallen from 15.67 in 1831–40 to 17.79 in 1876; the mean price of silver at London for each month of 1875–77; the monetary reform in Germany;

the metallic reserve and note circulation of the Banks of England, France, Germany, and Austria ; and some German statistics of circulation and exchange. Dr. Soetbeer announces his intention to publish shortly an essay embracing the most salient data in regard to the economic history of the precious metals from the beginning of the sixteenth century to the present day. This work will be awaited with interest.

—The first number of the *American Naturalist* (vol. xii.) issued by its new publishers, McCalla & Staveley, Philadelphia, shows that in respect to its external appearance the change of management has not been for the better, and the contents are at least not superior to the average of former issues. What is more ominous, however, is the defection of scientists like Messrs. Alexander Agassiz and J. A. Allen, and Professors Gray, J. D. Whitney, Hagen, Shaler, J. D. Dana, Marsh, Verrill, Newberry, etc., who in a private circular withdraw the use of their names and support. Another, more special, scientific periodical, deserving a good word on the opening of its new volume (vol. iii.), is the quarterly *Bulletin* of the Nuttall Ornithological Club, Cambridge, Mass. We are glad to see that the conductors of this useful publication, which, by the way, is not an organ or in any way restricted except to ornithology, have been encouraged to enlarge it to forty-eight pages, with a proportionate increase in the subscription price to $2. A special feature of the present volume, says the prospectus, will be an exhaustive résumé of the current literature relating to North American ornithology. The January number is embellished with a colored lithographic representation of the *Passerculus bairdi*, and contains the first of a series of important articles on the first plumage in various species of North American birds, by William Brewster, and an excellent piece of criticism, by J. A. Allen, on Mr. A. R. Wallace's "Theory of Birds' Nests," which the reviewer finds wofully "inadequate." The *Bulletin* is printed at the University Press, and is altogether attractive. As both the *Naturalist* and the *Bulletin* appeal to general support, so a more than professional interest should be taken in the *American Architect* (Boston : J. R. Osgood & Co.), which entered upon its third volume with the issue of January 5. This weekly journal came full-grown into existence, and has been fortunate from the start in its editorial management. We do not remember to have read a number (and we have missed reading few) that did not contain some information for which every householder might be thankful. The discussions are mostly of a practical character, and calculated to diffuse sound ideas as to the nature of the architect's calling, his responsibilities, and the duty of clients to co-operate with him in behalf of honest building. The heliotype illustrations furnish some idea of the capacity of the architects who contribute drawings of their works ; or, when native material is scanty, represent well-chosen specimens of European architecture. In No. 106 Prof. Wm. R. Ware begins a series of papers on the difficult subject of perspective, to which we are safe in calling attention.

—The author of the article on "The Cosmogony of Paradise Lost" in *Harper's Magazine* for December writes us from London under date of December 28 :

"In the *Nation* of December 13, which I have just seen, I find that through a piece of culpable carelessness on my part I have incurred the charge of a deliberate plagiarism. I have no right to complain that the charge was made, and I simply desire to state that the offence was one of inadvertence and not of intent. The article in *Harper's Magazine* on 'The Cosmogony of Paradise Lost' was merely a condensation or adaptation of the Introduction to Professor Masson's edition of Milton. To attempt to palm off as my own a reproduction of the contents of so well known a book would have been no less foolish than unscrupulous. My article was one of a class very familiar to the compilers and readers of the monthly magazines, articles of which the material is taken directly and obviously from some book, either old or newly published, the original source receiving full credit. There is, of course, not the slightest objection on the point of morality to such reproductions, however unambitious they may be in a literary way. I have prepared very many of these condensations for newspapers and magazines, and have always given full and conspicuous credit to the original authorities. I failed to do so in the present case by one of those unreasonable lapses of attention which it may be easy to call improbable or incredible, but of which perhaps the experience of every man will supply an instance. As I was absent from the country when the article was printed, I did not see the proof-sheets and missed this opportunity of correcting my palpable oversight. I perhaps owe some apologies likewise to the editor of the magazine, for though I explained to him the character and source of the article, taking him Masson's book that he might have the diagrams reproduced, it was certainly my business to have been sure that the fact of the article's having been taken from Professor Masson's work was acknowledged."

—The *Sunday-School Times* (Philadelphia), of January 12, reproves the *Nation* for being "grieved at the increasing frequency of religious editorials in the secular press, especially at the Christmas season." As for the "queer pulpits" from which they are preached, it thinks nobody ought to object to a pickpocket's reading Luke's account of the Nativity to a bar-room audience ; and if this argument is calculated to disarm prejudice against Donn Piatt's "Sunday Meditations," for example, the following information seems to cut the remaining ground from under us :

"Most of the daily papers that print religious editorials are edited, like Thackeray's ideal journal, 'by gentlemen for gentlemen,' and are quite as worthy of a reputation for sincerity on the 25th of December as on any other day. Their graver articles are almost always prepared by the elder and more conscientious members of the staff, or, as is a frequent custom in city journals, by eminent clergymen outside the office."

That this, however, is not the view generally held by the religious press as to the origin of the "graver articles," appears from a recent remonstrance of the New York *Observer* (Religious Department). That journal insists that "the fact that many of the daily papers are engaged in discussing the doctrines of the churches is not to be looked upon favorably"; and again, that "it is not the province of the newspaper to discuss theological dogmas." The *Observer* would, we fancy, not have taken such strong ground if it had been familiar with the "frequent custom in city journals," or had suspected that it might really be censuring the work of "eminent clergymen outside the office." For a near neighbor of the *World* it is perhaps a little too unsuspecting.

—The latest European mails enable us both to correct and enlarge our necrological record of last week. The Danish poet, Christian Winther, died Dec. 30, 1876, and so by error was reported with the dead of 1877. M. Drouyn de Lhuys recovered "against almost all hopes." *Per contra*, Sweden lost Dec. 17, 1877, Johan Erik Rydqvist, the most eminent Scandinavian philologist of our time. In England, Dec. 23, died Thomas Wright, the indefatigable antiquary, author of the precious 'Dictionary of Obsolete and Provincial English,' of 'Narratives of Sorcery and Magic,' of a 'History of Caricature,' editor of the 'Political Ballads of the Commonwealth' and of numberless MSS. for various literary clubs and societies, translator of Napoleon's 'Life of Julius Cæsar,' etc., etc.—quite beyond our power to catalogue. He was of Quaker descent. The ingenious electrician, Henry Daniel Ruhmkorff, a Hanoverian by birth but a Frenchman by education, inventor of the "coil" which perpetuates his name ; and Taxile Delord, the conscientious historian of the Second Empire, also passed away in 1877. And it was Alexander Bain, the electrician, not the metaphysician, who died last year.

—The controversy over the trial of Galileo seems to have taken a new turn from the latest work on the subject. It will be remembered that the great astronomer was informed in 1616 that the Copernican doctrine was contrary to the Sacred Scriptures and not to be held or defended. In 1632 he published at Florence a Dialogue in which the above doctrine seemed to be upheld, and for which he was summoned to Rome by the Inquisition. He was accused of having obtained permission to print his Dialogue by concealing from the censor the fact that he had been expressly forbidden at the above date to make any utterance on the subject. Galileo replied that he had only given in his work the arguments in favor of the system, and that he had received no command on the subject, having been simply informed by Cardinal Bellarmin that the system of Copernicus could not be held as true or defended, and that he had not contravened this prohibition. A document was then produced by the Inquisition, which purported to be a report of the interview of Cardinal Bellarmin with Galileo on the 26th of February, 1616. It stated that the Cardinal, in the presence of the Commissary-General, admonished Galileo of the error of the above opinion, and warned him to relinquish it, and not to hold it *in any manner, or teach or defend it* by word or writing, otherwise the Inquisition would proceed against him ; which command Galileo accepted and promised to obey. This is the command that Galileo did not remember (in his examination he says the words above underscored, "*à me son giunte novissime, e come inaudite*"), and which Dr. Emil Wohlwill, in his book 'Der Inquisitionsprocess des Galileo Galilei' (Berlin, 1870), first pronounced a forgery. In the discussion which thereupon arose the value of the above document was variously estimated, one side declaring that it was forged in order to obtain a condemnation not otherwise possible, the other side upholding the authenticity of the report, and asserting that Galileo could have been legally condemned without it on the strength of what he admitted that Cardinal Bellarmin really told him.

—Of course, in order to settle the question definitively, a careful examination of the original papers was necessary, and their complete publication desirable. The fate of the volume containing the papers concerning

Galileo's trial is well known. It was carried to Paris by the first Napoleon, and restored by Louis Philippe on condition that it should be published, a condition only partly and incorrectly fulfilled by the publication of Mgr. Marino Marini's 'Galileo e l'Inquisizione" (Rome, 1850). In 1867 L'Epinois published in the *Revue des Questions Historiques* a partial and incorrect copy of the Vatican MS. In 1876 Prof. Domenico Berti published a copy of the MS. which he declared complete and correct, and, forgetful of the labors of L'Epinois, "edited for the first time," 'Il Processo originale di Galileo Galilei, pubblicato per la prima volta' (Rome, 1876). Berti's work was not well done, for he omitted five entire documents, and gave the contents but briefly of more than fifty others. Besides this, the order of the documents differs from that of the original, and the editor modernizes the spelling and punctuation in a most unwarrantable manner. In the same year appeared Karl von Gebler's interesting work, 'Galileo Galilei und die römische Curie' (Stuttgart, 1876). The author gave a life of Galileo and a detailed account of his conflicts with the Inquisition, declared the document of February 26, 1616, a forgery and supported his belief by cogent arguments. Berti, who upheld the authenticity of this document, replied that Von Gebler had never seen the original papers and could not pronounce on the falseness of one of the documents. Von Gebler thereupon went to Rome, and the result of his labors is a second volume of his work, entitled 'Die Acten des Galilei'schen Processes, nach der Vaticanischen Handschrift' (Stuttgart, 1877). In the introduction the editor confesses that he was mistaken, and that the famous document must be authentic. It is written in the same hand and ink as other papers of the same date, and on the same leaf with a document of the day before. Von Gebler shows that this leaf could not have been inserted later. The question then arises whether the report of Feb. 26 is a true report of what took place. This the author denies, and the whole matter is practically left where it was before. Von Gebler then gives a reprint of the entire Vatican MS. with the utmost bibliographic correctness, indicating the length of the lines and pages, the direction of the endorsements on papers, etc.; and the student has now for the first time all the materials for an independent examination of the question. While Von Gebler was pursuing his labors in the Vatican, L'Epinois was there engaged in the same task (unknown, however, to the former), and shortly after published 'Les Pièces du Procès de Galilée' (Paris, 1877). This editor has also given a complete and careful copy of the MS., with photographic copies of the most interesting papers, among them, of course, the reports of Feb. 25 and 26, 1616. Although the controversy is as far as ever from being settled, we have at least gained these complete and accurate transcripts of the record of one of the most interesting ecclesiastical trials in the history of the Romish Church. An able review of the question in its latest phase was begun by Dr. Scartazzini in the *Rivista Europea* for December 1.

EGYPT.*

WHAT Peter the Great was to Russia, Mehemet Ali was to Egypt. The one created an unchecked absolutism by destroying the Strelitzes, the other by exterminating the Mamelukes. Each formed an army on the European model with the help of foreign adventurers; Solyman Bey was Mehemet Ali's Lefort. Each violently modernized his country, vastly expanded its limits and power, and, so to say, introduced it into the Occidental concert of nations. Both were unbridled despots, intensely ambitious, crafty, and, when needed, cruel. Each achieved more by revolutionary reform than by arms, although both were conquerors. The innovations of both, though thoroughly unnational, have succeeded in radically changing the forms of government and administration.

But here the parallel ends. The reforms of Peter were imposed upon a large, independent, homogeneous, sturdy, and comparatively young nation of northerners; those of Mehemet Ali upon an exhausted and ground-down population of mixed race, occupying a sub-tropical dependency of a tottering empire, and bound by religious allegiance to the master of its master. The conquests of Peter extended the limits of Muscovy in the direction of more civilized nations, as well as in that of the decaying East; of the conquests of Mehemet Ali only those remained permanent which enlarged Egypt with domains of tropical and almost equatorial barbarism. Peter became the ruler of a power able to cope not only with its feebler neighbors, Sweden, Poland, Turkey, and Persia, but also with the mightiest of nations; Mehemet Ali conquered all his neighbors, Wahabees, Nubians, and Turks, but naturally succumbed to the intervention of the great European Powers. The empire left by the former was destined to grow by its collisions with the surrounding states, almost all then on the decline; the semi-independent state created by the latter was doomed, by its position on the road to India, to fall under the more or less pronounced protectorate of a great maritime power.

In one respect the comparison is unfair. We compare the Egypt of to-day with Russia as we know her, while we ought to compare her with Russia under the fourth successor of Peter. Egypt, under Mehemet Ali's fourth successor, is more surprisingly, and perhaps more beneficently, transformed than Russia was then. In any case, whether Egypt is destined to realize the dream of a great new Arabic empire or not, she presents one of the most curious phenomena in the history of our century, and a plain and unadorned picture of her present condition, such as Mr. McCoan's is, is a welcome addition to our ethnographical and statistical stock of knowledge. That writer is far from being devoid of ancient or modern Oriental lore, and might easily have rendered his pages more attractive by sketches tinged with Eastern glow or with reflections of Pharaonic hues, but he has preferred giving us a strictly matter-of-fact account of the realm of the Khedive as it is, mainly considered as a government. We are glad of his choice. He has seen fit, also, to leave out of his picture the social life of the country, for the reason that he considers "the vivid portraiture of the manners and customs of both Arab and Copt" drawn by Mr. Lane in his 'Modern Egyptians' to be "as true still as it was forty years ago." We will follow the author in his observations.

The part of Africa ruled by Ismail, the son of Ibrahim Pasha and grandson of Mehemet Ali, extends from the Mediterranean to near the equator—its southern limit "may for the present be fixed at Gondokoro (lat. 4° 55′ N.)"—and from the Red Sea and the Indian Ocean to beyond Darfoor, measuring more than eighteen hundred (not "1,600") miles from north to south, with an average breadth of about three hundred and fifty miles. But the Egypt of politics and trade, to which our author limits his pages, is still the Egypt of the Pharaohs and Ptolemies, mainly consisting of the Delta and the narrow valley of the Nile up to the first cataract, in lat. 24° 5′. Of this country only about eleven thousand square miles are watered by the river, of which less than two-thirds—4,625,000 acres—is actually under tillage. The total cultivable surface of the annexed territories—Nubia and the Soodan—is roughly estimated at 150,000 square miles. The population of Egypt proper, compared to the cultivable area, is denser than that of any state in Europe, not excluding Belgium, numbering "rather over than under 5,500,000"; that of the annexed provinces, on a mean of the conjectures of various travellers, is vaguely estimated at 10,000,000 or 11,000,000.

The component elements of the population of Egypt proper are thus approximately computed: Settled Arabs (fellahs), 4,500,000; Bedouins, 300,000; Turks, 10,000; Copts, 500,000; Abyssinians, 3,000; Nubians and Soodanees (mostly slaves), 40,000; Jews, 20,000; Rayah Greeks, 20,000; Syrians, 7,000; Armenians, 10,000; various foreigners, 90,000. Of the main element, the Arabian, only one-third is considered to be of purely Semitic descent, and the bulk as descendants of the Copts who embraced Islam immediately or at various periods after the Arab conquest. The fellahs are a fine race, muscular and tall. "The agriculture of the country is mainly in the hands of the Moslem fellaheen, its accounts-keeping in those of the Copts; the Turks are for the most part proprietors and officials, the Negroes domestic servants, and the Levantines and Europeans, in their multitudinous varieties, traders, shopkeepers, and dealers in money." The natural increase of the population is considerable, having risen from the annual number of 33,000 during the ten years ending 1861 to nearly 47,000 in 1862–6, and to 63,000 in 1867–71, and thus, if continued at the last rate, promising the doubling of the population in less than sixty years.

The Arabic element, fostered by religious influences, gives to Egypt its national character, which is still preserved not only in the rural districts but in Cairo and almost all other towns, the showy and noisy appearance of the European and Levantine admixtures notwithstanding. And yet, how unlike in appearance is the urban Egypt of to-day to the urban Egypt of the Caliphs or Mamelukes? Here is Alexandria—the St. Petersburg of the Khedive—glorying in "dockyards and arsenals, steam-engines and steamships, mills, factories, railways, and electric telegraphs," and there Cairo—his Moscow—with its hotels and blocks of European shops and dwellings, its opera-house and French comic theatre, its "Greek and German *brasseries* and musical *cafés*," and its "new Khedive Club, founded on the model of our best London institutions, under the patronage of the heir apparent," and its balls and concerts at the palace

* 'Egypt as It Is. By J. C. McCoan. With a Map, taken from the most recent survey.' New York: Henry Holt & Co. 1877. 8vo, pp. 417.

during the winter, which "bring together the official, financial, and commercial *élite* of both Cairo and Alexandria."

The aspiration of Egypt is to become an Arabic power, distinct from Turkey in nationality, and our author entertains no doubt that were the Khedive, now a viceroy whose dignity is secured by solemn stipulations to his descendants in a direct line of succession, to declare his entire independence to-morrow, he would be supported by all classes of the Egyptian people. He now pays a tribute of £685,308 to the Sultan, is bound to give him military aid against his enemies, and has no representation abroad; in every other respect he is the sovereign of Egypt, its absolute ruler. He negotiates treaties, raises armies, carries on war, imposes taxes, and issues decrees, untrammelled by a veto of the suzerain or a vote of the people. An Assembly of Delegates, consisting of village sheikhs and other provincial notables, is convened, it is true, every year, to receive a report on the administration, and consider all proposed fiscal changes, and other matters laid before it; but its function is, at the best, advisory, without any legislative power. But while considering the Khedive as his king, the Moslem Egyptian is also bound by religious ties to the Sultan as his Caliph, and "in any struggle involving positive peril to *Islam*—not merely political danger to the Porte—the Arab would infallibly make common cause with the Turk."

The higher administration is completely fashioned on European models, including a Privy Council, a Cabinet of eight ministers, and numerous bureaus; but, in reality, "l'état c'est le Khédive." He both reigns and governs, and the highest dignitaries are merely the tools of his will. Mr. McCoan's picture of him smacks of panegyric. According to him the Khedive is the reverse of a modern Sardanapalus, which a "common fallacy" makes him to be; he is as a ruler a kind of Frederic the Great, "seeing everything, knowing everything, and ordering everything for himself," almost without interruption or rest. Unfortunately, however, he inherited from his predecessor not a model army and an overflowing treasury, as the restlessly active Prussian did, but resources drained in every respect, and the costly enterprise of the Suèz Canal, which, with other public and private enterprises of a dazzling character, with blackmail to Stambul, and extortionate interest on loans added to loans, gradually plunged Egypt into the vortex of financial ruin, and finally, in November, 1876, placed her resources under foreign revenue controllers, and subjected her to international tribunals. The period of financial and economical misrule which then ended with the fall of the minister of finance, Ismail Sadyk, is acknowledged by our author to have been one of unparalleled extortion and corruption, though he endeavors to whitewash the all-seeing and all-ordering prince.

The financial condition of the country is thus epitomized: "In 1835 the revenue was estimated at £2,600,000, and the expenditure at about £2,300,000, without any public debt whatever. In 1862, the last year of Saïd Pasha's reign, the figures had risen respectively to £4,929,000 and £4,330,000, with a debt of £3,292,300; while last year's budget claimed an income of £10,772,611, against an outlay (exclusive of interest on the floating debt) of £8,981,852, with a total state debt since fixed by the Göschen-Joubert scheme at £76,000,000." As settled by the decree of November 18, 1876, the debt now roundly amounts to £80,393,000, on most of which the interest is 7 per cent. In regard to taxation the strain "has reached a point beyond which, for some years at least to come, it cannot be safely carried." The general corruption prevailing among officials, extensive smuggling and other customs frauds, and exemptions enjoyed by foreign residents under special capitulations, deprive the Government of much income, direct and indirect. The civil list of the Khedive, including grants to the heir apparent and his two brothers, and the numerous families of the preceding viceroys, amounts to £560,000 annually, which, Mr. McCoan says, "cannot be considered excessive." An army of about 30,000 and a very poor navy consume about £900,000 a year. Economy is yet to be established, and faithful official energy to be charmed into existence. Yet trade is sound, manufacturing industry growing, and the aggregate of railway lines large—1,100 miles; and the country is also rich in harbors, docks, canals, telegraphs, and, for an Eastern land, in schools, museums, and other useful institutions, in great part creations of the reigning Khedive. Security reigns not only in the valley of the Nile, but in the adjoining abodes of the nomads. The stick of the tax-gatherer, for the use of which we hear some pleading, is less cruelly employed than formerly, and the *corvée* tax greatly reduced.

We receive also an extenuating picture of slavery as it still exists in Egypt. In both Turkey and Egypt, we are told, the condition of the slave differs "*toto cœlo* from that of the old Roman *servus* and the modern West Indian and American negro. . . . In the Levant he is simply an unwaged in-door servant, whom both law and religion protect from ill-treatment, and who, as a rule, is not only as kindly used as ordinary domestics in Europe, but enjoys over them not a few advantages." In Egypt, especially, he is "rather the dependent than the slave of his owner, who treats him—far more than free servants—as a member of the family, and in cases innumerable gives him his freedom after a few years, and starts him on his way to any fortune." Ill-treatment by masters is strictly guarded against by enactments of great humanity, partly based on the teachings of the Koran, and partly inspired by a desire of emulating Occidental progress. The importation of white slaves, male or female, has declined to a very low point. "The harem market is now chiefly supplied with Abyssinians," Circassian girls being too expensive and Arab girls entering the harem only as wives. The now prevailing fashion, even among the upper classes, is to have only one wife—that is to say, one legally married. The education of the female sex, the first foundations of which have been laid, promises to exercise a considerable influence upon social conditions, even in this part of "the unchanging East." The chapters treating of both slavery and public instruction belong to the most interesting in the book. Another highly interesting chapter is devoted to the "Daïras," or administrations of the vast estates of the Viceregal family, including the great sugar-factories and rum-distilleries in the Upper Valley and the Fayoom; and agriculture, commerce, manufacturing industry, the Suez Canal, the Soodan, etc., are all amply treated. But want of space prevents us from further following our author.

CHINESE CURRENCY.*

THE chief modern authority on which we have hitherto been obliged to rely in regard to Chinese paper money consists of some articles by Biot in the *Journal Asiatique* for 1837. The work now before us rests upon the same Chinese authority used by Biot, the history of Ma-twan-lin, but Mr. Vissering has subjected the original to more thorough examination, and with far greater advantages. His book is a study in Chinese and in the history of money. We propose to give a summary of the most important facts under the latter head which his book contains.

There are indications of an ancient currency of shells or beads in China, which were used for ornament in embroidery or a kind of jewelry, like the wampum of the American Indians. This was succeeded by a currency of cloth (apparently in units of a dress pattern) and knives as standards in barter, like beaver-skins among the Indians. The introduction of metallic money falls in the third thousand years before Christ. The forms in which it was first coined (by casting) appear to have been imitated from the barter currency last mentioned. Some coins are in the shape of garments and some in the shape of knives. Yellow, white, and red metals were used. Round coins, with a square hole in the middle, were introduced 1022 B.C. Cast coins of this shape represent the highest development of the art of coinage ever reached by the Chinese. Gold went out of use for money about the commencement of our era, and silver was not coined, although references to it as a monetary material occur. The supply of gold and silver in China was small, and its value high, while the cost of living for a man of the lower class was one cash per day. One thousand cash (small copper coins) were worth one tael of silver (1½ oz.), so that one cash was about 1½ mills of our money. Silver was to gold as 10 to 1. Hence coins of gold or silver were not convenient.

Several concurrent traditions narrate that money was first coined by the common people in times of calamity. This seems to mean that all lived ordinarily by agriculture and exchanged by barter, but when the crops failed they took to mining copper, which they cast into coins for convenience in exchanging it for goods. It was first used for the general purposes of money by merchants. The historian mentions the development of trade and industry by the use of money only to lament it. He quotes one Lao-tsze, a philosopher who has some followers now, as follows: "The highest state of perfection of good government is reached when the people think their food sweet and their clothes beautiful; when they rejoice in their uneducated simplicity; when the inhabitants of neighboring states, who are so near each other that they can see one another, and hear the crying and barking of their fowls and dogs, have grown old and die without having had mutual intercourse."

In the year 119 B.C. white deer-skins were used as a sort of currency for levying forced loans on the grandees of the court. There is in connection with this an obscure reference to some similar token-currency as

* 'On Chinese Currency, Coin, and Paper Money. By W. Vissering, LL.D.' Leyden: E. J. Brill. 1877.

having been used long before. These bits of white deer-skin were conferred on the nobles as marks of honor at an arbitrary price. At about the same time coins of a mixture of tin and silver were issued at an arbitrary rating. There were three sizes, in weight as 4, 6, and 8, but they were rated in value as 300, 500, and 3,000. They were counterfeited both by officials and people. In 117 B.C. the money was restored to its real value.

About the commencement of our era a usurper restored the knife-shaped coins under two forms, one of which bore gilded symbols and was rated at 50 cash, the other at 500. By picking out the gilding the lower might be raised to the higher. This ruler introduced in all twenty-eight sorts of currency, of five substances—gold, silver, copper, tortoise-shell, and other shells. The confusion and misery which ensued led to his assassination.

During the division of the empire the abuses of money went on. In 465 A.D. a deposed emperor coined very thin light coins, which were at once counterfeited. As soon as the money was depreciated the most lucrative occupation was "making money." These coins were called "weed-leaves." One thousand coins piled together were only three inches high. Some were as thin as a thread. A statesman of this period declared that the reason why the stringent laws did not prevent false coining was that the Government itself did not make its coins of full weight. He taught that "money is an instrument in daily use to further exchange." In the Northern Empire the depreciation was such that a pound of copper could be bought for 81 cash, and 200 cash-pieces could be made from it by the false coiners. It was provided that a string of 100 cash of standard weight should be hung over the gate of the market, and in lodging-houses and shops.

In 622 a reform of the coins was brought about, but not enough were supplied. The false coiners, therefore, still kept at work. The good coins were hoarded or melted. Forty years later the good money was abolished. A decree of 734 introduced barter, apparently in despair of the coinage problem. In 758 coins were cast of the legal weight, but arbitrarily rated. Prices rose enormously, and hundreds died on the roads from want. Recourse was had to stones for grinding rice, which had a fixed value, as money. By the abuse of money the nation had robbed itself of money. It lost all the advantages of money, and had to return to barter. It could not support the population which had been produced under the advantages of the money system.

At the end of the eighth century we find the first mention of paper money of any form. It consisted of certificates of deposit called "flying money," issued for coin deposited by merchants to avoid the risk and trouble of carrying the heavy coins in use. It was soon abolished—we are not informed for what reason. In 809 it was proposed to reintroduce flying money, and to issue it either for money or merchandise deposited, charging a premium on the notes of 100 cash on every 1,000 string (string of 1,000 cash ?). None accepted this invitation, and the premium was abolished. The paper, however, did not yet come into use.

In 817 a decree fixed the amount of coin which any one might possess at 5,000 string, and ordered anything over this amount possessed by any one to be expended within a month. Next it was forbidden to use copper in ornamenting Buddha images, or for any but a few specified implements in the temple. Then it was proposed to confiscate the copper in the temples. "Intestine division and anarchy increase more and more," and there is a gap of forty years in the history. "Within the period of 53 years (907–960) there reigned five different imperial families. In these times of commotion and bloodshed the monetary history is confined to the abolishment of the existing [regulations] and the introduction of all sorts of restrictive measures."

At the end of the tenth century iron coins were introduced, and the former troubles were enhanced by those of a double standard. The legal ratio is given as 10 of copper to 1 of iron, but the coins were cast in the ratio of 12 to 5 gross weight, or 3½ to 1, pure contents. Other coins give a ratio of 5 to 1. The only reason assigned for these variations is that the iron coins, if of the weight which value required, were inconveniently heavy. The value of either metal was so slight and variable that a constant ratio could not be established. There was considerable exportation of coin, but it was not free and active enough to work out the effect of incorrect rating in that way. The false coiners effected the same result. They coined the cheaper metal and exchanged coins of it at a profit of from 100 to 200 per cent. There came to be in use (1) large copper coins with a weight of 3, and a nominal value of 10, small copper coins; (2) small copper coins at a premium in iron; (3) small iron coins of no constant value. A reformer arose who proposed a coin of six parts iron and three parts copper. "He was convinced" that this would overcome the difficulty. The iron, however, was found too hard to work, and the values were not properly adjusted, so this scheme was abandoned. The false coiners only varied their industry by making the large copper coins, which, at the above rating, offered them even greater profits than iron coins. By rating the small copper coins at two iron coins each, and correcting the rating of the large copper coins, the false coining was stopped, but other evils remained, for the iron coins had only half the value in bullion which they had as coins. In the end iron coins were restricted to some provinces, and copper coins to others.

At the end of the eleventh century a plan of advances of capital to poor men, to enable them to cultivate the fields, was tried. Through the dishonesty of officials the interest and the repayments were not collected by the Government, "distress and impoverishment taking the place of the expected advantages to the people, while, on the part of the state, vast sums were irrecoverably lost."

In 960 paper money appears again. In the Western provinces it was issued by a bank or syndicate of wealthy families against a deposit of coin. The Government, adopting the plan, opened offices in the treasury at the capital, at one of which deposits might be made and at the other notes obtained. A premium of two per cent. was charged for the latter. These notes were like warehouse receipts, and were issued for merchandise as well as for money. In 1011 bills of exchange were first issued. They soon displaced the former notes. Conversion on demand was never provided for. The bills were drawn for a term of sixty-five years, and every three years there was to be an opportunity for demanding their redemption in specie. The "basis" deposited when the first issue was made was three-sevenths of its amount. At first the issue was strictly limited in amount. It is easy to see what great advantages these notes offered. At the prescribed periods few demands for redemption were made. The reserve fund was therefore neglected, and finally used for other purposes. In 1076, when the term expired, the notes could not be redeemed; but in anticipation of this a new issue had been made in 1072, for twenty-five terms of redemption of three years each. The old issue was "redeemed" with these, if at all. In 1107 the bills of exchange of one province were changed into irredeemable bills of credit. The circulation of bills was now twenty times what it had been in 1023, and their value had depreciated. Few had been redeemed. Notes of the new issue were worth one for four of the old. The "bank for the issue of bills of exchange" was now changed into the "bank for the issue of bills of credit," and a new issue was made for forty-three terms of one year each, to bring the two former issues to a round sum. A magistrate's report shows that a depreciation existed by which a note issued for 1,000 cash was worth 100; soon after it was only worth 10. To force a circulation of the bills the Government decided to pay out only bills, or, if it paid out cash, to deduct one or two tenths.

About 1125–7 the Tartars invaded the Empire. To keep up the war against them unlimited paper issues were made, and every expedient was tried to give them circulation. Some were issued bearing the name of gold and silver weights, and promising payment in those metals after the war. In 1131 two new forms of paper were issued. One was "frontier-notes," with which to buy supplies for the army. These seem to have been orders on the custom-houses for cash collected by them. They were redeemed also in receipts for Government products, which, in turn, were redeemable at the Government stores by the merchandise specified. These notes had three years to run. In the second year a man might pay half his taxes in these notes. Another kind of paper is called bonds, issued nominally for deposits of money or goods, but, as it seems, nothing but bills of credit. These were multiplied in vast issues, and seem to have become the prevailing form. In 1166 they were exchanged for other notes at 10 on the 100. Then followed tyrannical decrees about exchanging and rating, accepting and refusing, and redeeming and deferring, the notes, too numerous to mention. In 1209 the bonds had been issued in such quantities that they did not perform the functions of money at all. New notes were printed on paper mixed with satin and saturated with olibanum, and issued at one for two of the old. Confidence was now entirely destroyed, and the inquisitorial proceedings of the Government, encouraging accusations and denunciations, spread distrust and terror throughout the community.

Paper money had long been used in the western provinces as well as in the central provinces, whose history we have followed. In 1210, after the old bills of the western provinces had been twice withdrawn, they were equal to the new ones. The Tartars had also borrowed the invention, and, last of all, it had been introduced into the eastern provinces.

The consequence was that in the thirteenth century the whole empire was overwhelmed by the mischiefs which it produced, amounting to anarchy and almost a dissolution of society. Adjectives seem vague and feeble when used to describe such a state of things. Vissering thus sums up the picture as presented by the Chinese historians: "Provisions rise in price, trade is paralyzed, weeds cover the fertile fields, false coiners spring up like clouds, the officials practise extortion on the people, the posterity of those who were born in affluence die miserably from want, and the bodies of tens of thousands, not killed by the sword of the enemy but starved with hunger, cover all the roads of the empire." He also gives the following summary of the work of Wang-ki, the continuer of Ma-twan-lin: "One issue succeeded another. New names were invented to delude the people. Solemn promises were made that henceforth the Government would fulfil what it had charged itself with. The result was that again and again old debts were paid by incurring new in order to defer the impending bankruptcy of the state."

In 1260 China was conquered by Genghis Khan. The Mongols, however, continued to use paper money, and in time it ruined them also. We have no detailed history of it. Vissering thinks the people did not use it except in transactions with the Government. In the middle of the sixteenth century China was conquered by the Mandchus, when paper money was abolished. The fundamental reason for the long mistakes of the Chinese in the matter of currency seems to have been that they could not devise a good system of public finance. They did not issue paper money when they had a surplus revenue or were at peace or to aid private debtors. In very recent times banks of issue have been established in some cities of China. They are under stringent obligations to redeem on demand, and their circulation is very limited in area. The Government engages in this business, but under banking rules and not as a political power.

This book contains a fac-simile of a venerable greenback issued in 1375.

Manners and Customs of ye Harvard Studente. By F. G. Attwood. (Boston: J. R. Osgood & Co. 1877.)—These cartoons from the *Harvard Lampoon*, the work of a student in his leisure moments, deserve the honor of being reproduced and bound together. Whether we consider the humor displayed in them, the fidelity of characterization, or the skilful draughtsmanship, they take a high rank in caricature. We recall nothing so good of their kind in this country, and, as we ventured to remark the other day in speaking of the *Lampoon*, Mr. Attwood is a worthy disciple of Richard Doyle, who, in his 'Jones, Brown & Robinson' and other familiar outlines in *Punch*, stands at the head of the school. It is easy to pick out the best of these twenty-six cartoons, and yet the average is remarkably well sustained. The smaller the canvas, so to speak (there are sometimes two drawings on a page), and the larger the scale, the poorer, as a rule, is the result. Mr. Attwood is strongest, and is very strong, in dealing with crowds, which he endows with singular vivacity and individuality, and he has a rare sense of perspective. These qualities shine in the views of commons in Memorial Hall, of the foot-ball game, the Republican torchlight procession, the Class-Day procession, the Class-Day exercises around the tree, etc. In the three last mentioned the movement of marching and swinging round the circle is admirably suggested, and so, in a more exaggerated and less artistic way, is the rush for prayers; an unseemly spectacle, which we hope may be soon abolished by removing the cause. Most of the designs depict the *milieu* with an accuracy that may be relied upon by those who have never been at Harvard. The college yard, with its trees, walks, and buildings, and the various interiors, are truthfully sketched both in the cartoons already selected for praise and also in the fencing scene in the gymnasium, the recitation and examination rooms, and the scene at the boat-houses—the last showing a delightful bit of landscape on the banks of the Charles. Some of the less edifying and least successful designs will confirm the opinion which we have heard expressed that, if a better education is to be had at Harvard nowadays than before President Eliot's revolutionary incumbency, the opportunities for wasting one's time are also greatly increased.

Mr. Attwood is still a contributor to the *Lampoon*, and the best of its humorous artists; but in departing from outlines his defects appear and his superiority disappears. We shall doubtless have from him in due season a volume, uniform with the present, on the 'Manners and Customs of ye Bostonians,' in which he has already made some happy hits.

A Book for the Beginner in Anglo-Saxon. By John Earle, M.A. (New York: Macmillan & Co. 1877.)—Mr. Earle has prepared a manual for comparatively elementary pupils. He is well known as an Anglo-Saxon scholar, and also as the author of a popular work, the 'Philology of the English Tongue.' Twenty-nine of the ninety-five pages are taken up with selections from the several Gospels, and the remainder with grammar, including three valuable pages on poetry. Except that it lacks a vocabulary, it contains enough to start a pupil very well. In simplicity the book is preferable, for certain classes of beginners, to any that we have seen. The author pleads (in the preface) for the wider study of Anglo-Saxon, as tending to furnish a ground for thought-barter between the graduate and non-graduate world. He introduces the distinction of symbolic and presentive words—elaborated in the 'Philology'—and gives good illustrations of it, though the distinction seems too refined for mere beginners. The forms of the pronoun of the first person are given more fully than those of the third, which are not given fully enough. The syntax is brief, but the treatment is interesting and valuable.

Mr. Earle has allowed his book to contain some errors which revision would have removed. The old character for *wén* is retained in many modern books, and is as unfamiliar as either *edh* or *thorn*. *A* and *i* have other sounds than those mentioned on p. 1, and it is not likely that the Anglo-Saxon *u* had the neutral sound heard in *but*. The presentive *hād* exists in the modern symbolic *-head* as well as *-hood*. The terms *strong* and *weak* are used in different senses in describing the inflections; and in defining the strong and weak declensions of adjectives the author says the opposite of what he intended. On p. 28 the genitive and dative case-forms have changed places in the singular of the weak declension, and on p. 36 (seventh line from top) *ordinal* should be *cardinal*. The correction of these and of some other errors will, with the addition of a vocabulary, add much to the value of the book.

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, JANUARY 24, 1878.

The Week.

THE latest evolution of the silver movement is a "League," got up at Washington, and composed of members of Congress of both parties (B. F. Butler being one of the chief promoters of it), and having for its object the remonetization of silver, maintenance of the greenbacks in circulation, and their substitution for national banking currency. They held a private meeting on Tuesday, at which Mr. Fort counselled the abandonment of the attack on the national banks, as undertaking too many things at a time, and carried his point; and B. F. Butler then made the suggestion that if the President annoyed the silver-men by vetoing their bill, they should refuse to vote the appropriations until he surrendered, and his remarks were received with great applause. It was said that one hundred and fifty members of the House would support this little plan, but, as a trifling concession, they would pass the Post-Office appropriations in order not to inconvenience the people. The enlightened assemblage then adjourned, subject to the call of the chair. It can hardly be doubted that the promulgation of this desperate and revolutionary scheme shows a decline of confidence on the part of the silver-men, and is really an attempt to intimidate the President.

The Charleston Chamber of Commerce has followed the example of that of New Orleans, in passing unanimously a series of resolutions denouncing the attempts to postpone resumption and remonetize silver as "incompatible with national, commercial, and personal honor," and protesting against the payment of the bonds in anything but gold, and declaring it "shameful to permit by law or encourage by national legislation the payment of public, corporate, and private debts in a debased coinage, especially and avowedly created for the purpose." This is all true and good, but we fear it will offend people in the West. Senator Butler, of South Carolina, has been talking in the same sense. Another good sign comes from the South in the account of the elections in Beaufort, Georgetown, and Sumter (S. C.), where the Republicans elected all their candidates without the aid of troops or carpet-baggers. In Sumter the election was for members of the Legislature, and after the vote some Democrats carried off enough ballot-boxes or ballots to leave a majority for the Democratic candidate. The vote had, however, previously been counted, and showed that the Republican candidate had been elected, and the Commissioners of Election (Democrats) made no return of the election, but sent a simple statement of the facts to the House of Representatives, which thereupon promptly seated the Republican candidate. We hope those who have held that the South is now an exception to the ordinary operation of social and political laws will take note of these facts. They show, with scores of others, that the forces of civilization work in South Carolina as well as elsewhere.

Congress continues to dawdle. The Senate has been mostly occupied in persuading itself that the Matthews resolution ought to pass, the opposition being imperceptible. On Wednesday week Mr. Morrill's motion to refer it to the Judiciary Committee was defeated by a vote of 31 to 19, in a thin session. On Monday Mr. Cameron introduced a bill, understood to be not his own, providing for free coinage of the dollar of the fathers, and making it a legal tender for all debts, public and private, in conjunction with gold only, and to the amount of fifty per cent. only. Mr. Beck, on the same day, moved a concurrent resolution designed to prevent the imposition of further taxes on behalf of the sinking fund, and the issuing of any more bonds to reduce the national debt till Congress shall so order. Mr. Beck thus goes Mr. Matthews "one better." For the rest, the Senate spent Thursday in listening to more or less perfunctory eulogies of the late Senator Morton. Among them all, the substance of what Mr. Morgan, of Alabama, had to say—viz., that in a time when all public men were liable to suspicion Mr. Morton was never suspected of corruption—seems to us most worthy to be repeated and remembered. The House paid its respects to the dead Senator on the following day. On Friday the Senate received a message from the President covering a letter from the Attorney-General which declared the Executive powerless to initiate proceedings against the Union Pacific Railroad for its discrimination against the Kansas Pacific, and that additional and explicit legislation was necessary. A bill to provide this legislation, and to furnish the Attorney-General authority for intervening, was introduced by Senator Chaffee, of Colorado, on Monday. On Tuesday, Mr. Blaine supplied the indispensable *bouffe* by an attack on Massachusetts in a pretended welcome to a statue of a Maine governor. On Thursday the House passed a joint resolution of thanks to the explorer Stanley, and a bill from the Judiciary Committee empowering the accused in criminal cases before Federal courts to testify in their own behalf if they so desire. On Monday Mr. Southard, of Ohio, moved to suspend the rules for the passage of a bill making customs-dues payable in greenbacks after Jan. 1, 1879. As such a bill would be superfluous in case of resumption, it was properly regarded as hostile to resumption, and the motion received less than a two-thirds majority, 154 to 96.

Secretary Schurz has been applying his "theories" in what some of "the practical men" must consider a most repulsive fashion to the investigation of affairs in the Freedman's Hospital at Washington. Charges of a serious kind were made to him against the management of the institution, and notably that at certain periods of the year double the amount of needed supplies were bought for it. He therefore appointed a Committee of Investigation, composed of Dr. Hood of the Pension Office, Mr. George Ewing of his own office, and Mr. J. H. Walsh of the Land Office. They reported accordingly, acquitting the officers of the hospital of everything brought against them. Unfortunately for themselves, however, they annexed to the report the testimony which they took, and, more unfortunately still, this testimony the Secretary read, and was surprised to find that it in no way bore out the report—in fact, contradicted it. To make sure of his own impression, however, he submitted it to the Solicitor of the Interior Department, Mr. Marble, for review, without informing him of his own conclusions. The Solicitor discovered the same fatal discrepancy. The Commissioners, being summoned, were puzzled, and at last one of them explained that the report was based on testimony not reported. This remarkable explanation was, of course, followed by the repudiation of their report, and the removal of Dr. Palmer, the manager of the hospital. This at once brought down the trustees of the Howard University, with the Rev. Dr. Patten at their head—Seelye fashion—to protect Palmer and appeal to the President. They were, however, met at the White House by the Secretary with his "theories," and overthrown after a full hearing.

That Mr. Bristow's name still stands, as it stood a year ago, for reform, and that the disappointments, small and great, which the present Administration has inflicted on reformers have caused them to return to him both with hope and remembrance, was shown in an invitation to dinner which he received in Boston last week from a number of those who supported his nomination at Cincinnati. The success of the entertainment and the outspokenness of Mr. Bristow's speech have probably caused more of a flutter in the political world than its promoters expected. He spoke with great earnestness in defence of an honest currency, on the importance to all classes of a stable standard of value, and on the absurdity of supposing that it is the rich and not the poor who most profit by it. He expounded once more the Fifth Resolution of the Cin-

cinnati platform, and reminded those who are discouraged by the small progress yet made in carrying it into execution that they were attacking "an ancient and deeply-rooted practice," that "their enemies were strongly entrenched," and that success must be won by a series of progressive movements, and pointed to the anti-slavery struggle as an illustration of what may be accomplished by persistent effort from small beginnings. He was on all these points loudly applauded. We regret to say that a letter was read from Governor Rice which said that "he heartily united in the desire for the purification of the civil service, for which Mr. Bristow's name has long been a synonym." There must be some mistake about this. Mr. Rice is really in favor of the present system, and thinks a republic ought to be officered as if it was "a monarchy turned upside down"—that is, with the chief executive officer at the bottom and on his head, where he can neither see nor control anything that is going on up around his legs, where the public and the administrative machinery must be supposed to be.

A very interesting though somewhat crude report on the "tramp" nuisance has just been submitted to the Governor of the State by the chief of the Massachusetts detective force. It is suggestive, though at a long interval, of those adventures of an "Amateur Casual" the appearance of which in the columns of the *Pall Mall Gazette* early in 1866 first brought Mr. Greenwood prominently into notice. The chief detective, it seems, in July last sent out two of his force to experiment on "tramp" life among the Berkshire hills. Their experience was somewhat startling. They seem to have found an unorganized brigandage existing amid those pleasant summer resorts. They met and associated with gangs of vagabonds following theft and beggary as a profession, camping together by scores in the woods, begging, stealing, drinking, and fighting. They were natives of many lands, but chiefly Irish. An outgrowth of the famous "bummers" of the Rebellion, their ranks "are constantly receiving accessions from young men who are even more reckless and unscrupulous than those who preceded them." Pretending to travel in search of employment, they despise every kind of honest labor. So great has the nuisance become that the chief detective says: "Instances have been brought to my notice where people who live in the outskirts of towns are compelled to leave their homes to avoid the dangers and the troubles which threaten them from this cause"; while "reports come from all parts of our commonwealth of crimes committed—thefts, incendiary fires, assaults, rape, and even murders—which can be traced to no other parties, and which must have been committed by no other class of people." Their number during the winter season he estimates at about one thousand in the entire State.

The remedy proposed for this growing evil shows very clearly that Chief Detective Luther Stephenson, jr., is not a student of social science. Had he ever read as familiar a book as Renwick's Life of Count Rumford in Sparks's 'American Biography,' he would have found exactly the same condition of affairs portrayed as existing in Bavaria a century ago. "Under the pretence of being travelling journeymen, numbers of idle mendicants were continually strolling from town to town, and returning, to begin a new circuit, as soon as time had been allowed for their faces and persons to be forgotten. . . . Beggary had become a trade, and was handed down as a profession from generation to generation. Numbers had, therefore, grown up not only unacquainted with any description of work but with the greatest aversion to regular labor. Crime had become rife among them, and they were callous to all sense of shame." To cure this condition of affairs, Count Rumford did not, however, as Mr. Stephenson recommends, have recourse to a system of licensed vagrancy. He arrested the beggars, and set them all to work for their food and lodging first, and proceeded, with profound knowledge of human nature, to reform them afterwards. If the "tramp" evil assumes in this country, as now seems not improbable, dimensions of a really alarming character, the great difficulty in the way of properly handling it will be found in that same feeling which now resists any effort to limit the suffrage on questions of municipal expenditure. As the immutable natural right of persons to travel about for the purpose of obtaining employment cannot be curtailed, the army of tramps will enjoy a long immunity from molestation. The problem is, in truth, one not easy to solve theoretically. No person because he is poor should be tied to the soil, and yet the sturdy beggar should be restrained. The practical remedy will probably be found in Massachusetts just where Rumford found it in Bavaria. The spectacle of a goodly number of professional vagrants being promptly arrested and made to work, and work hard, for their board and lodging will greatly encourage the rest to efforts at voluntary and honest labor.

There has been nothing more curious of late than the amount of interest excited by, and discussion expended on, the question of the existence or non-existence of hell, and on its nature as a place of punishment. The "secular press," too, has given nearly as much attention to it as the religious press and the ministers, most of whom have preached on it. But the attempt to get at the exact opinions of the clergy about it may be said to have failed, and doubtless for the simple reason that very few if any Protestant ministers now hold to the old literal fire-and-brimstone theory, and when once this is abandoned all descriptions of the sufferings of hell must necessarily be vague and shadowy. Many of the reporters and newspaper writers who have pursued the subject seem to think it a question of majorities, and that if the greater number of ministers say that there is a hell, a hell there is. The matter has given rise among the "seculars" to a good deal of levity, and there has been much jocose insinuation that those who argue against future punishment have strong personal reasons for wishing that there may be no such thing. The plan of settling the question by "most votes" will doubtless find favor in the West, which now seems disposed to solve even geometrical problems by the ballot. We should all like to know what "the Ohio opinion" is on the subject, and, above all, what Mr. Stanley Matthews says about it. We hope he is not going to leave the Senate without settling it. A joint or concurrent resolution on it from his gifted pen would be a useful and appropriate close to his remarkable official career.

The Central Park in this city, after having for twenty years escaped the political net, seems likely at last to become the prey of Tammany by the dismissal of Mr. F. L. Olmsted, the designer and, until now, the director of it, and the transfer of the active management to four commissioners, all of whom are wholly ignorant of landscape gardening and owe their positions solely to their political connections, and three of whom are almost unknown to that portion of the public whose opinion on park management is of any value. The amount of money which has been spent on the park is so great, and its usefulness to the city as an attraction to residents and a health resort for all classes so marked, that it is to be hoped that some effort will be made at Albany, if none can be made here, to save it from damage by putting it into the hands of a single commissioner appointed by the mayor. This is absolutely necessary for proper responsibility in its management. No one man would venture to propose what these four commissioners propose—to carry on a public work of this class out of his own head without professional assistance. A strong protest against their proposed action, signed by 185 of the leading citizens and firms, of all parties and all professions, was presented to the Commission on Wednesday.

During the week the price of gold fell to 101¼, the lowest since April 26, 1862, making the gold value of the U. S. legal-tender note for one dollar $0.9852. The decline was due in part to the fact that $1,500,000 gold was on its way here from London. The explanation of this apparently strange movement at a time when U. S. bonds are coming back on every steamer is, that the excess of our trade exports over our trade imports is so large that the bonds returned have not been sufficient to offset it entirely, and that the London money market is so easy that no effort is made to force this

country to take U. S. bonds in payment instead of gold. In New York the Matthews resolution is lightly thought of, inasmuch as even if it be adopted it cannot have the force of law. Whether a solemn declaration of a large majority of the legislative branch of the Government that the bonds can by right be paid in silver will be received with the same complacency in the foreign markets, is not so clear. Silver closed in London at 53½*d.*; and the gold value of the bullion in a 412½-grain silver dollar at the close of the week would have been $0.8933.

Dun, Barlow & Co.'s interesting annual statement of the failures of last year throws more or less light on the cause of the growth and spread of the silver frenzy. The total amount due by the bankrupts of 1877 was $190,700,000, which is a slight decrease on 1876—only half a million—a decrease of $10,300,000 on 1875, an increase of $35,500,000 on 1874, and a decrease of $37,800,000 on 1873, the panic year. The financial disease during the past year seems to have raged more particularly among the small traders. It is the distribution of the failures, however, which is instructive, as regards their influence on opinion touching the currency question. The failures in the Eastern States have steadily declined in amount during the past three years; in the Middle States there was a slight rise in 1877 over 1876, but a decline from 1875, and the amount last year was large—$77,173,750. In the Southern States also there has been a steady decline from 1875 on. In the Western States, on the contrary, there has been a steady and heavy rise since 1875—that is, from $33,948,254 in that year to $56,187,074 in 1877. It is impossible to doubt that it is this increasing difficulty in settling with creditors which led to the discovery in 1875 of "the gold plot" of 1873, and produced that remarkable burst of filial affection for the old dollar on the part of a vast body of men who never saw or handled it, on which the civilized world is now gazing with cynical interest. It is also worthy of observation that the failures of the first nine months of 1877 were comparatively few, and small in amount, but that after Congress met in October they increased heavily. It may be that Congress was not instrumental in causing this, but it is difficult to avoid the conclusion that the prolongation of uncertainty produced by the outburst of the silver craze at Washington brought down great numbers who had struggled through the year, and who, with a continuance of peace and quiet, would have survived.

The English Parliament was opened on the 17th as announced. The Queen's speech, which was read by the Chancellor, after recalling England's determination to remain neutral in the contest, said that Turkey, after the late successes of the Russians in Europe and Asia, had applied to all the Powers for their good offices in bringing about negotiations for peace, but they had refused to interfere. The Sultan then applied to England alone, and the Government transmitted to the Czar the expression of the Sultan's desire for peace and of its own hope that it might be possible. Further communications on the subject had been exchanged, but the result had not yet been announced, further than that Russia firmly insisted that the Turks should apply directly to its commanders in the field for the opening of negotiations and the cessation of hostilities. The Queen declared that neither belligerent had infringed the conditions of English neutrality as laid down at the outbreak of the war, and until it did so her attitude would not change, but she could not conceal from herself that some unexpected occurrence might render it necessary to take measures of precaution.

In the debate on the address which followed, Beaconsfield distinctly denied that there were any divisions in the Cabinet, or that he had said or written anything during the recess to cause uneasiness. Sir Stafford Northcote took the same ground in the Commons, and the position of the Ministry as defined by both was one of expectancy—that is, thus far nothing to excite alarm or call for action had occurred, but as long as the Russian demands on Turkey were unknown it was impossible to say that all danger was over. In Beaconsfield's speech there was the usual vague and somewhat threatening boastfulness about the great things England would do if she had to fight, which seems to mean nothing in particular, but has nevertheless kept the country in a state of anxiety, and made the small and insignificant "war party" seem much more formidable than it really is. The Queen's speech and the debate seem to have taken away the Turk's last hope and precipitated the despatch of plenipotentiaries to the Russian camp.

Suleiman Pasha, pursued by Gourko, and threatened in front by Russian columns approaching the railway to Adrianople, made repeated stands between Tatar Bazarjik and Philippopoli—as it now appears—before giving up the hope of fighting his way through to the capital of Rumelia; but after very heavy losses was forced to abandon the direct line of retreat and march southward through the Rhodope Mountains, in the direction of Kavala, at the head of the Archipelago, thence to be transported by sea to Constantinople. According to a Turkish announcement, the bulk of his army has succeeded in reaching Drama, about eighteen miles northwest of Kavala. Tatar Bazarjik, in the rear of Suleiman, was occupied by General Skobeleff. Further east, Eski Zaghra, Yeni Zaghra, and Harmanly were entered by the Russians without resistance, and finally, on January 21, Adrianople opened its gates to them, the Turkish garrison having withdrawn after blowing up its stores of ammunition. Some Russian detachments are said to have advanced as far as Demotika and Usun-Köprü. In Constantinople, which was becoming gorged with starved refugees from the interior of Rumelia, preparations for defence were made under the military command of Mukhtar Pasha, the enrolment of all free males was decreed, and help was summoned from localities not directly threatened; the removal of the Sultan and the Government to Brusa, in Asia Minor, was expected under certain contingencies. Troops were concentrated at Kirk-Kilisseh, about thirty-five miles east of Adrianople. In Bulgaria, in the meanwhile, Kazan and Osman Bazar were evacuated by the Turks, and the investment of Widdin was completed by the Rumanians with the occupation of Florentin, on the Danube. The Montenegrins occupied Dulcigno, on the Adriatic, without resistance, and the Servians are reported to have taken Prishtina, and to be marching on Novi-Bazar in Bosnia. According to despatches from Greek quarters, an insurrection of some magnitude has broken out in Thessaly, under the lead of volunteers from Greece, and the royal troops at Chalcis have been ordered to march to the frontier; but the latter statement may justly be doubted. In Asia the Russians, on January 13, captured Artvin, a fortified town, about thirty-six miles south of Batum. Retrospectively we must remark that the Russians assert the number of prisoners captured at Shipka to have been as large as twenty-five thousand.

Server and Namyk Pashas, the Porte's plenipotentiaries for the negotiation of an armistice and, if possible, of a treaty of peace, appear to have proceeded on their mission with intentional dilatoriness, or else to have intentionally been delayed by the Russians. They reached Harmanly on January 16, and Kazanlik, then still the headquarters of the Grand Duke Nicholas, as late as the 20th. Nothing has yet transpired concerning their instructions, or those sent from St. Petersburg to the Grand Duke, that may be said to have an authentic look. According to concurrent telegrams from Constantinople, Count Zichy, just before the departure of the peace delegates from that capital, declared to the Porte in the name of his Court that Austria, though not opposed to an armistice on the basis of peace preliminaries, would not be ready, as a signer of the Treaty of Paris, to recognize a peace concluded without her assent to its different stipulations. This startling announcement, coupled with the report that Lord Derby had sent a similar declaration to St. Petersburg, seemed to receive a confirmation from the "official" acknowledgment of the latter fact by the London *Post*, and was also sustained by the Vienna *Neue Freie Presse;* but it was soon after declared by correspondents, both from St. Petersburg and Vienna, to be erroneous, Austria having made no new communication to the Porte since her answer to the Turkish note of December 12, asking for mediation, an answer which contained reservations similar to those now spoken of.

THE SOUTH AND THE SILVER FRENZY.

SOUTHERN politicians had before the war a well-earned reputation for cool-headedness and clear-headedness on questions not connected with slavery, and they especially distinguished themselves, except in Mississippi, by their honesty and sobriety in the management of their State finances. This has furnished to those who, like ourselves, have watched with alarm during the last ten years the gradual coalition of Republicans and Democrats at the North in open or disguised attacks on the public credit, a reason of the strongest kind for the close of the carpet-bag régime. We hoped that the leading men at the South, when once delivered from conflicts with their domestic thieves, would render real service at Washington in supporting the purification of the currency and an honest discharge of the public obligations. We know very well that a year ago hopes of this kind were treated by many good people at the North as chimerical if not wicked. The theory about Southern men which it was found convenient to preach during the late canvass was that they were intent not on the restoration of their fortunes, but either on the production of anarchy or the plunder of the Treasury. Opposed as this was to all the teachings of history and all experience of human nature, it was, down to the day of the count in February, in the judgment of a large proportion of the Republican party, almost useless to gainsay it. The count disabused a great many; the others have been ever since gradually opening their eyes. A remarkable article in the last *Harper's Weekly* acknowledges in terms that the campaign view of the Southerner was "a delusion," as we had the honor to point out to that paper and others at least a score of times between July, 1876, and February, 1877. The refusal of the Southerners to join with the Northern Democrats in breaking up the count and plunging the country in frightful disorder, showed that they were weary of strife, and that, if not model politicians in other respects, they longed for a settled government, even if it was not the government of their choice, and preferred even a President whom they did not think lawfully elected to the confusion of a conflict between two rival candidates. All that has since happened at the South points to the same conclusion. Industry has been reviving; the last crops have been very large, and could only have been sown and gathered by a community in which life and property were, on the whole, reasonably secure. On financial questions, however, the South is still weak. The enormous grants made to Northern railroad speculators since the war, the spoliations of the carpet-baggers, and the demoralization wrought by paper money, which was greater at the South than anywhere else, and the passion for dishonesty which their Democratic friends at the North continue to display, have apparently destroyed or greatly weakened the old Southern acuteness as to the conditions of sound finance. Forty years ago there would have been a score of Southerners in Congress pouring cold water on the heads of the silver lunatics; to-day a large number of them are apparently content to follow in Congress the lead of publicists like Bland and Kelley and Voorhees in dumb and docile silence, though there are honorable exceptions like Senators Bayard, Butler, and Hill. In their State legislatures they are trying to settle the State obligations with apparently as little thought of the future as might be displayed by Citizen Schwab in making an equal division of goods. Most of the "scaling" and "adjusting" schemes of the Southern States are puerile in their short-sightedness, and short-sightedness used not to be a characteristic of Southern politics. Even the defence of slavery, which towards the end was marked by so much madness, had all the characteristics of a deeply-pondered policy looking to remote results. Settling with public creditors at fifty cents on the dollar and five per cent. interest, to save taxation which nobody would feel, is a mode of securing happiness in which thought for the future has no place.

As regards the course of Southern Senators and Representatives on the silver question, there are certain considerations to which we take leave to direct their earnest attention.

1. The silver movement is simply a continuation of the inflation movement of 1875. All the inflationists support it. There is no paper inflationist who is not a silver-man, and the reason is that the remonetization of silver is, in his estimation—and he is right—the next best thing to fresh issues of paper money, of which he now despairs. It owes its present success to the union of the bad and thoughtless elements in both parties. It originated in the hostility of the Democrats to the public credit, which led them as soon as the war was over to throw their traditional hard-money doctrines overboard and take up the once-hated greenbacks as the best possible currency. It has been strengthened by the gradual apostasy of large bodies of Republicans, partly under the influence of unprincipled leadership and partly under the pressure of hard times. It is thus breaking up both parties. Neither can come out of it as it went in. It is gradually leading to the combination of the more rational and patriotic men of both in defence of honest and civilized government, and with this combination the best interests of Southern politicians lie. Of course there are plenty of materials for a dark view of the future of the United States, as of every modern state, but the conditions of good and successful government are well known; and if experience be of any value in human affairs, the influence of such men as are now dragging the country towards repudiation and fraud must pass, and their schemes be discredited and exploded. They have no future; they are not persons to be counted on or supported. The best allies of the South are those men of both parties at the North who think and reason and foresee, and are familiar with the causes of national prosperity as revealed by history, and do not, like Sitting Bull, imagine that whatever they do not remember or have never heard of never happened.

2. The silver movement is a true frenzy, such as often seizes on large bodies of men in times of danger or suffering, and is supported by delusions precisely similar to those which in more ignorant and excitable communities have led to frightful excesses. It must, therefore, whether it succeeds in procuring legislation or not, soon come to an end. In another year it is most probable politicians will be denying they ever "took stock in it," or even knew much about it. It is one of a kind of frenzies, too, to which the West, owing to its isolation and self-confidence and impatience and contempt for "abroad," as Stanley Matthews says, seems to be growing increasingly liable. The Granger movement was the last, and it is impossible to say what the next will be. In proof and illustration of this let us remark that it is based on a story for the like of which in absurdity one has to go back in Anglo-Saxon history to the witch-trials, and in French history to the first Revolution—viz., that a band of European capitalists came or sent agents to America in 1870 and began *secretly* to procure the passage of an act for the demonetization of silver, which they kept for three years before two Congresses and two committees, and had printed thirteen times, and finally got passed, all the while concealing its real nature from the 327 legislators and from the President and from the reporters of the newspapers; and all this in order to raise the price of their own bonds. There is no more ridiculous story than this in political history, and the fact that it has secured wide credence in a country like this, with such a press as ours, is in itself proof of a diseased state of the public mind.

The movement receives no support from any scientific man, or any man at home or abroad who has made a study of currency or is accepted as an authority on it here or in Europe. All the leading bi-metallists denounce or ridicule it, and point out its obvious consequences; and the fact that what they say makes no impression whatever on the silver-men, any more than it would on insane persons, is another noteworthy characteristic of the agitation. Finally, no silver-man, as far as our observation has gone, defends his plan with rationality or coherence. The same person will maintain in the same article or speech that "the money kings" procured the demonetization of silver because they knew it was going to fall in spite of them, *and* in order to make it fall; that it fell because demonetization threw great quantities of it out of use; that little or none of it was in use (a fact), but that demonetization has mischievously prevented its coming into use; that the debtor is entitled to the benefit of the fall, the contract having been

made in either metal; that if remonetized it would rise, and the fall would disappear; that there never has been any fall at all, the appearance of a fall having been caused by the rise in gold; that "cheap" money—that is, money of small purchasing power—is a good thing for the laboring man, so that the less he gets for his dollar the better off he is; and, finally, that the capitalists and bankers of the civilized world are opposed, by interest, to the revival of industry and the prosperity of other classes of the community, and prefer making profits by "plots" and "conspiracies" to making it by the regular business of production and exchange.

Now, we only need to state these things, we hope, to Southerners of ordinary intelligence and education to convince them that the silver movement draws all its strength either from delusions bordering on real insanity—that kind of epidemic insanity of which there are so many instances in history—or the downright dishonesty of sorely-burdened speculators, who think that even a brief rise of prices would enable them to get rid of their commodities or their debts. It is not in alliance with either lunatics or knaves, however, that the South can hope for regeneration. A thousand roads to prosperity have been tried by various peoples in various ages since the dawn of civilization, but one only has ever been found safe and easy for any people which sought to be both free and secure, and that lies through respect for plighted faith, for just weights and measures, for upright judges, and for the recorded experience of mankind. Any party which, in a civilized country, makes light of these things may reign for a while as mobs reign, but it cannot reign long, for even the social instincts of the race fight against it.

THE TURKISH COLLAPSE.

PROBABLY before this reaches our readers the conditions of peace between Turkey and Russia will have been settled at Adrianople, and the Turks will have begun to realize the fatal change which has taken place in their position as a European power. The rumor which comes from England that the Queen has addressed herself personally to the Czar, asking him "to spare Turkey," is probably untrue. Such an interference in an important diplomatic negotiation would be unconstitutional as well as indiscreet. In any case "sparing Turkey" would not properly mean sparing the Turks; on the contrary, sparing Turkey means imposing on the Turks as hard conditions as are consistent with their political existence. In doing so the Russians are not dealing mercilessly with a conquered country; they are binding a brigand over to keep the peace, and taking his weapons away from him. Turkey, as far as Europe is concerned, means and ought to mean the Christians; as regards law, industry, progress, and future international relations the Turks are a mere evil, which has to be carefully and cautiously and perhaps slowly removed, but the permanence of which is not to be provided for, and the legality of which is not to receive one whit more recognition than is absolutely necessary. All treaties or arrangements made with them ought to contain plain and standing notice that their departure from Europe is confidently looked for and is to be prepared for. Mr. Gladstone was much ridiculed last year for having said that the Turks must be turned out of Europe "bag and baggage," and he was sufficiently impressed with the clamor the remark raised to explain that he meant simply official Turks. But he need not have shrunk from the original statement, except in so far as it meant sudden or violent expulsion.

The withdrawal of the Turks from Europe has, in fact, been going on steadily under Christian pressure ever since their defeat at Vienna. There was once a considerable Turkish population in Hungary, Moldavia, Wallachia, and Bessarabia, from all of which it has totally disappeared. Servia contained a large body of Turkish landholders down to within sixty years; there is not one to be found in that country now. In Greece, at the outbreak of the Revolutionary War, there were plenty of Turks; a Turkish resident in the kingdom, at least outside the towns, is now a thing unknown. The Turkish movement from Bulgaria southward, and even into Asia, has been, if slow, very steady ever since 1829. The growth of the Christians in wealth, and population, and political weight, and the dread of Giaour invasion, makes the genuine Turk uncomfortable in the frontier provinces, and makes him long for Asia. Few travellers in Bulgaria and Rumelia within the last fifty years have failed to meet emigrant trains of Turks pushing slowly towards Constantinople with the intention of crossing into Anatolia, with their oxen, and rugs, and pots, and pans, weary of the growing sauciness of the infidels. In fact, the Turk is a true carpet-bagger: he will not stay in any country in which he cannot hold high office and bear sway. So that if Russia now uses the power which the fortune of war has given her she may cause a prodigious exodus of the true believers within the next twenty years, and a corresponding simplification of the problem of political reorganization in the European portion of the Empire.

Those who are fond of the Providential view of history may find in the struggle which is just now closing abundant materials for the illustration of their theory. It is more than fifty years since the official class in Turkey became aware that the continuance of their theocratic government in Europe was impossible; that the salvation of the empire depended on the concession of equality to the Christians and the adoption of European methods in the civil and military administration. Mahmoud began the change in true Turkish fashion by the wholesale massacre of the Janissaries. Each of his successors has in turn done his best to carry on the work of "reform within the party," and has enjoyed the extraordinary advantage of being protected, as it were, from disturbance while doing so by the jealousy of the European powers. No other worn-out state or waning caste has ever had such an opportunity of recovery accorded to it. The Crimean war cost Turkey very little, France and England having done most of the fighting, and it simply served as a friendly warning that the process of assimilation must be continued and hastened. It even procured Turkey what she had never had before, an opportunity of borrowing heavily in London and Paris. The money thus obtained ought to have been applied to the construction of roads and bridges, and the employment of skilled functionaries, and the organization of a proper police, and the establishment of schools. These things would have furnished the best defence against Russian aggression, and would have laid the foundations of the Empire anew, and brought Mohammedanism within the pale of civilization and secured the sympathy of Western nations.

In spending the money on iron-clads, breech-loaders, and huge government offices it seems as if the Turks were simply executing a decree which sentenced them to perish by their own customs and vices. They bought the finest iron-clads in the world, and they have been of little more service to them than so many despatch-boats. They armed their troops with the best rifles ever made, and it has hardly worked the slightest change in their relations to their enemy. In fact, there has been nothing more curious and instructive in this war than its resemblance, so far as the Turks were concerned, to all other wars since the destruction of the Janissaries. The point in which European armies gained most on Turkish armies during the eighteenth century was mobility. In this, the Turks, once pre-eminent, fell off steadily as their force of cavalry declined and the discipline of the Janissaries became relaxed, while the Christian troops progressed in it under the influence of the tactical improvements of the French and Prussians. They, however, lost none of their native valor, and accordingly they became between 1700 and 1853 nearly as famous for their desperate tenacity in defending fortresses as they had once been for the impetuosity and rapidity of their invasions. Belgrade, Ismail, Silistria, Varna, in fact all the great frontier fortresses, have within that period been held by them with indomitable courage, the shopkeeper from the bazaar manning the ramparts and barricading the streets with even more ferocious obstinacy than the regular soldier. The war now closing reveals the fact that the Turks have not made the slightest advance in the military art during the last forty years. The war of 1877 has been in all respects like the wars of 1828-29 and

1853–54, plus the breech-loader. It has shown the same lack of strategists, the same absence of brigade and divisional organization, the same absence of commissariat and transport and medical service, the same inability to move in the open field, and the same skill and determination in the defense of fortified places. Osman Pasha stopped at Plevna because he was too late in getting to Nicopoli, and then he did what his father would have done in 1853, or his grandfather in 1828—buried himself in the earth with rice and crackers and plenty of cartridges, and fought like a rat in a corner, butchering the wounded and refusing burial to the dead, but letting the proper time to retire slip by, and finally submitting to be "bagged."

The attempts to relieve him were marked by the same characteristics. Suleiman Pasha, after driving Gourko's small force back into the Balkans, squatted down in the Shipka Pass, and fought away there through a precious month, when he ought to have joined Mehemet Ali at Osman Bazar. Mehemet Ali made a forward movement in August, but was unable to maintain himself at even a day's march from his base, and when the Russian advance began it was met by no manœuvring on the part of the Turks, none of the obstinate fighting in retreat by which civilized armies have often won renown, and even cowed or foiled an invader. Wherever the Turk is struck in position he defends himself desperately; but if he is driven out and followed, that is the last of him. The inability of the force in the Shipka Pass to quit it in time was even a more striking illustration of barbarian sluggishness and *insouciance* than Osman Pasha's clinging to Plevna until the Russians had brought up their reserves and shut him in.

In nothing, however, has the Turk's ignorance of the essential conditions of his political existence, and, one may say, of his incapacity for civilization, been shown more clearly than his treatment of the Bulgarians since the outbreak of the war. The fierce excitement caused in England and Russia, and, indeed, throughout Europe, by the massacres at Batak and other places, followed as they were by the threat of coercion involved in the meeting of the Conference, was warning enough, if warning was needed, that his danger lay in his relation to the Christian population and their state of mind towards him, particularly in Bulgaria; that it was this which was depriving him of Western sympathy and help. One can understand why, when hostilities began, this should not have prevented the Pashas in command from laying a heavy hand on Bulgarian supplies and Bulgarian labor, for the necessities of war are inexorable. But it is a curious fact that nearly every one of them seemed to think that nothing was more important than hanging Bulgarians. Suleiman Pasha, after his arrival in the Balkans, is reported by friendly correspondents to have hanged fifty every morning before his breakfast. The others did the same. There was a gallows in constant use at every headquarters, on which wretched peasants were strung up by the dozen on mere suspicion or from mere caprice, under the eyes of the European correspondents and doctors. Even the gallows, however, was a concession to foreign opinion. In the beginning, in Adrianople, a large city, the prisoners were dragged along through the streets by the soldiers, who collected money from the shopkeepers for not hanging them to the awnings at their doors, until they found some one who would not or could not pay, and at his door the poor wretches met their fate, after all the torture of listening to the previous negotiations. At the period when this deviltry was at its height, it is true the Turks thought they were going to beat the Russians off, and might bid for the moment defiance to civilization, but it none the less showed a savage obtuseness of perception as to the permanent necessities of their position. It has helped, however, to dissipate any doubts that might have lingered in the Western mind as to the proper fate of such a race, and has made the roar of the pursuing Russian guns a joyful sound in the ears of all those who believe that no man can be so unfortunate or so degraded as to lose his right to justice, and that no length of prescription can give tyranny a good title. The Turk is finding out, too, now at Adrianople, as we predicted he would, that the defence of Plevna was the greatest misfortune of the war, and that the brutal valor of his only hero has probably doubled the Russian demands.

CLERK GALPIN'S CASE.

WASHINGTON, January 22, 1878.

THE manner in which the dismissal of Mr. S. A. Galpin from the position of Chief Clerk of the Indian Bureau has been made a national question, and the press of the country become enlisted on one side or the other of his case, is a curious illustration of the difficulties which surround the introduction of reform in the administration of public offices at Washington. The case may be looked at in two ways—one from the point of view taken by Mr. Seelye in his letter to the *Tribune*, the other from that taken by Mr. Schurz in his published interview last week. Which of these two views is right it is well worth while, in anticipation of the occurrence of other similar cases hereafter, to ascertain.

In Professor Seelye's eyes, as appears from his letter, the proceedings against Mr. Galpin are a sort of state trial, a procedure directed against a high officer of state, for the purpose of impeaching and removing him from office. He does not deny that such an officer may be removed, but insists that it must be for cause, and that in the present case no cause is shown. Further than this, the proceedings must be open and similar to those in a trial at law. The accused must be given an opportunity to cross-examine the witnesses, and must be subjected to no surprise nor forced into any admissions. He is to be presumed innocent until the Government proves him guilty. For instance, in his letter to the *Tribune* he complains that the Board of Enquiry on whose findings Mr. Galpin was dismissed was in "secret session for months, receiving during this time all the testimony that could be brought against the chief clerk, and carefully concealing it from him"; he quotes, with an air of triumph, the statement of the Secretary that Mr. Galpin was dismissed "because he admitted in his own sworn statement that he had for nearly two months kept important papers from the head of the Department," as if he had detected Mr. Schurz in the commission of a plain act of illegal oppression, and then, pointing out that the whole matter has now been reduced to "this single issue," proceeds to give what he thinks are the facts of the case, and to demand judgment. These facts, as Mr. Seelye "learned them at the time," were as follows:

"There came into the chief clerk's hands, at a time when the Commissioner was absent, two papers with charges against two Indian agents. One of these agents had been already dismissed, by the complaint of Mr. Galpin himself, on other charges, while Mr. Galpin's information *demonstrated to him that those now presented were untrue*. The charges against the other agent, Mr. Galpin, *whose province it was*, in the absence of the Commissioner, *to decide upon such a matter, deemed it* [*proper*] *should be investigated by one of the three Indian Inspectors who are appointed especially for such services*, but no one of whom was at liberty for this work at that time. The papers were therefore laid aside for the consideration of the Commissioner, on his return. Then came the chief clerk's suspension from his office, and it need hardly surprise one that in the trying position in which he was so suddenly placed he should for a time have forgotten these papers. It was, however, he himself, as I am informed, who, recollecting his omission, then promptly called the attention of the Commissioner to the matter, and what is now proclaimed as 'his admission under oath,' was first brought to the knowledge of the Secretary through his agency. Whether this, which is now on the highest authority declared to be 'the principal reason for his dismissal,' *is a sufficient reason for that dismissal*, and the way in which it was done, others can judge as well as I."

Unfortunately, to begin with, Mr. Seelye's facts are wrong; it was not Mr. Galpin's province in the absence of the Commissioner to decide whether the matter should be investigated or not by "one of the three Indian Inspectors"; it was his duty to report the facts to his superior officer, the Secretary of the Interior, and let him take such action as he saw fit. That Mr. Galpin should have done so is shown by the result, which has been the indictment, not of a single "Indian agent," but of five persons—four contractors and one agent—who had, down to the sudden discovery of the papers implicating them, escaped; and this was brought about without the use of any of the inspectors. Mr. Galpin was undoubtedly dismissed for not bringing these papers to the notice of the Government, the papers being—as appears from Mr. Schurz's published statement—"charges and specifications, supported by numerous affidavits, showing corrupt practices" on the part of Indian agents and contractors; the only defence that he put in himself being, 1st, forgetfulness, and 2d, the somewhat inconsistent plea that "secrecy was essential to any proper action in the matter," as if for the purpose of secrecy it was necessary to conceal the papers from the Secretary himself. It appears from the letter of Mr. Schurz dismissing him that he is not

accused of any dishonesty, but of neglect of his duties in not remembering the existence of important papers in which the Government's interests were at stake. It may be said without hesitation that this is the whole case.

But it will be seen that behind this defence lies the assumption that the whole proceeding has been irregular and arbitrary, and that the removal has been made in a tyrannical way. The explanation of this seems to be that Mr. Schurz has, out of perhaps an excessive desire to be just, assigned causes for Mr. Galpin's dismissal when he was in reality not bound to assign any. The notion that the Secretary of the Interior is bound to "show cause" whenever he removes a clerk—put forward in the interest, too, of "civil-service reform"—is a curious contribution to political science. The Secretary of the Interior, like all the other secretaries, has the right, and it is essential to the discharge of the duties of his office that he should have the right, to remove any of his clerks without assigning any cause, without any formal investigation, without any trial. He may remove him because his handwriting is not good; because his manners are not sufficiently respectful; or even because he is suspected of acts or omissions which cannot be proved, and for many other things which, in the nature of the case, cannot be set down in charges and specifications. Clerks are removed or suspended or reduced every day for just such causes, and it is obvious that if in such a case the clerk had the right to appeal to some tribunal outside, there would be a speedy end to all discipline, or even regular conduct of business, in the department in which such a right was introduced. Even with regard to what are called "Presidential" offices—*i. e.*, those which require the advice and consent of the Senate to confirm them—the Tenure-of-office Act, which compels the President to assign causes of removal to the Senate, has been felt to be a grave impediment to the proper conduct of business; but a tenure-of-office act for department-clerks has never been suggested even by the most zealous reformer. In fact, Mr. Galpin was not entitled to any assignment of cause for his removal, and if Mr. Schurz had taken the ground that he declined to give any reasons, it is difficult to see in what clause of the Constitution or section of the Revised Statutes or verse of Scripture Prof. Seelye would have found authority for a re-examination of the case in the light even of imaginary facts. There is no more resemblance between such a dismissal and a legal prosecution than there is between the process by which a bank gets rid of an unsatisfactory cashier or paying-teller and an impeachment trial—though, it may be added, if there was, Mr. Seelye might have been taken to be lawyer enough to know that the secret sessions of the board of enquiry for the investigation of charges might be very justly compared to the secret sessions of a grand jury, and that if suspected persons had the right of managing inquests of this sort in their own way, intelligent criminals would find even less difficulty than they do now in procuring the proper sort of evidence to meet charges against them. It is a noticeable fact, too, as pointed out by Mr. Schurz in the interview before referred to, that open investigations, which Mr. Seelye seems to think essential to fair play, have hitherto led to nothing, and this too for very obvious reasons. The practice during General Grant's second term was not only to have "open" investigations, but to have boards of investigation selected by the officials implicated; yet even this produced no very satisfactory results.

To sum up the whole matter, Mr. Galpin might have been removed without any cause being given; he was removed because he withheld, or forgot the existence of, papers containing evidence of frauds on the Government, an omission which showed his unfitness for the place, as his honesty in the matter could only be assumed at the expense of his capacity. But although Mr. Schurz has given him the benefit of every doubt, it will not do to assume too much in the past management of Indian affairs. Unfortunately Mr. Galpin has long been known to have intimate relations of a suspicious character with a set of attorneys here active in Indian matters, themselves ex-clerks and discharged from the Bureau for irregular practices.

An examination of the report of the Board of Enquiry shows that the Galpin case covered but a small part of the ground which it went over; the charges against the chief clerk were in reality but an incident in its investigation. The object of the enquiry was a general investigation "concerning irregularities"; and of the sixty-four pages of the report only three are devoted to Mr. Galpin's case. The remainder extended over nearly the whole range of the Indian service, and with the accompanying evidence affords a basis for the important work of reform which Mr. Schurz has undertaken. The state of affairs disclosed by the report shows why the Indian service has become a by-word for maladministration and corruption. It finds that in forty-six years there have been twenty successive Commissioners of Indian Affairs; and that, in accordance with a convenient custom of the Bureau, much of its official correspondence has been marked "personal," and consequently kept from the files of the office, so that frequently important official acts as well as accounts have been "based upon covert understandings reached through such writings"; that "correspondence of a character purely official . . . floated about in an indeterminate way"; that "important papers shown to have been received at the office were frequently reported missing"; that "if a paper in any instance was charged on the books to anybody to whom it was entrusted within the office it was an exception to the general custom, and if enclosures were anywhere accounted for that fact was a surprise"; that the principal clue to an important protest presented in 1876, on behalf of a band of Cherokee Indians, "in the name of the honor of this great nation," containing charges against the chief clerk, appeared to be the recollection of a stenographer who "remembered the paper because it spoke of a certain person in a 'funny way'"; that the late Commissioner swore that he did not see anything in the paper "requiring action"; that the late Commissioner was, according to the testimony of one clerk, in the habit of saying when irregularities were brought to his notice, "Don't tell anybody; don't tell the Secretary; don't say anything about it; and if it is anything before I came here I don't want to know anything about it"; that, according to the evidence of another, he was directed not to report "anything he saw going on in the Bureau outside of his official duties"; that the annuity clerk, who had been in the Bureau for twenty-one years, had received presents of all kinds as well as money from contractors, and that he did not deny the fact, but said that "all this was in the good old times when things were somewhat different from what they are now." The report sums up the whole matter by a declaration which few who read it will be inclined to dispute, that "no bureau or office of the Government has afforded more opportunity for downright irregularity and concealment of fraud than has the management of the Indian Bureau and service." During the recent administration of the office its affairs have been managed by the Commissioner, the chief clerk (who in the Commissioner's absence has acted generally, if not always, in his stead), the stenographer, the correspondence clerk, and the annuity clerk; and it is difficult to believe in the light of such facts as the foregoing that Mr. Galpin was not responsible in great measure for the shocking want of system discovered.

It may not be out of place to add that as a critic of Indian administration Mr. Seelye enjoys here a higher reputation with contractors (on account of an alleged simplicity of character, which exposes him to the wiles of the practised peculator) than with reformers. A curious fact is stated to illustrate this, which I may give you for what it is worth. During the last Administration there was a clerk in the Indian Board named Samuel Walker, who though, like many others, originally an honest man and active in ferreting out frauds, did not make that progress in bettering his fortunes which the just man naturally feels that he ought to make. Accordingly he determined to try other means, and was much more lucky than he had been. In no long time he earned the sum of $10,000, which was deposited to his credit with some Washington bankers, and about the same time he, for reasons best known to himself, determined to try a change of climate, and went to Ireland. Before he left this country, however, he had a correspondence with some Indian contractors, who urged him to use his influence with Speaker Randall and others to secure the appointment of Mr. Seelye on the Indian Committee of the House, on the ground that, in addition to his unquestioned honesty, the peculiarity of the professor's character alluded to above made him an eminently fit person for such service. The letters in question are stated to have been in the possession of the *Herald*, and would furnish, it is said by those who have seen them, interesting reading.

THE OPERA AT NAPLES.

NAPLES, December 20, 1877.

THE first visit to San Carlo is an event in the life of an opera-goer. The marvellous creation of M. Garnier at Paris is more gorgeous; the *mise-en-scène* at Vienna or Berlin or at London is nowadays perhaps finer, and the Music of the Future, and of the present too for that matter, is given to the world from Munich. Still, the great historic opera-house of Europe, the Mecca, the Westminster Abbey, the Plymouth Rock of the musical drama, is San Carlo, the shrine, the storehouse of memories, the centre from which the ruling influences have gone forth. Here—I do not wish to dazzle my readers by too long an array of shining names—Fodor, Catalani, Pasta, and Malibran won their real successes, as did also Tam-

burini, Rubini, and Lablache. All these Alexanders of music had their world to conquer, and the victories which set the seal of pre-eminence upon their brows were won at San Carlo. But for this final triumph in vain had all the rest of Europe acknowledged their supremacy; they must for ever have remained kings and queens of Yvetot, mere fragments and broken lights of royalty. London could never either make or mar a musical reputation; the utmost that her colossal wealth can do is to pay the biggest prices to artists whose fame has already been established by more critical publics. She has bought over many of the kings and queens of San Carlo, who live among the fogs like the Orléans family or the hopeful Lulu, in comfortable but inglorious exile. Their royalty rejoices in slippered ease, while here for one hundred and forty years has been one of the greatest battle-grounds of art, where crowns have always been at stake and he who would win must fight and fight well.

We Americans have been so long accustomed to look upon theatres as rather more combustible than match-factories, that one whose walls have stood for one hundred and forty years assumes the rank of a curiosity in our eyes. San Carlo is a proof of what care may accomplish in a country where furnaces and attendant defective flues are unknown. Not that the theatre has entirely escaped the usual lot of such buildings; it was partially burned in 1816; but in spite of chance and change it is substantially the original theatre which now graces the Largo San Ferdinando. Its history is in brief as follows: It was built in 1737, within two hundred and seventy days, under the third Charles of the Bourbon dynasty. In 1777 the interior was renewed by Ferdinand Fuga in the taste of the period. This interior was restored after the fire of 1816, and a new portico with some new ornaments was added. You see the history of a fortunate building, as of a happy people, is short; but then the meagreness of the chronicle in this respect is a condition of the richness of the romance witnessed by the boxes inside and the precincts of the stage.

Of course a theatre for which Donizetti and Bellini, Cimarosa, Mercadante, Rossini, and I know not how many others have written, may be expected to stand somewhat upon its dignity. It has long been a rule of San Carlo to permit no untried talents upon its boards. This was no arena for novices and tyros; a singer must have won laurels elsewhere in order to be allowed to tempt fortune upon the grander field. The judgment of San Carlo must be final. A success in a dozen cities, Rome even included, does not necessarily secure success here; and, on the other hand, a public which does not ratify the favorable verdict of San Carlo simply in so far proves its own crudeness and barbarity. These are high pretensions, but, high as they are, they have never been lowered. The audience remains as critical as ever, although the palmy days of the theatre are, for the moment at least, over. A despotism, even one so detestable as that which used to exist in Naples, is not an unmixed evil. A court more corrupt, a tyranny more cruel and despicable, has not, at least outside of Turkey, disgraced this century in Europe. The kings of the two Sicilies fairly exhausted the catalogue of political vices, besides often affording a very pretty show of private and personal failings; but they seem, like Nero, to have been fond of music. They improved, however, upon their Roman model: *he* made his courtiers admire his own performances, while *they* gave their capital an opera second to none in the world. The story is nearly as old as misrule, and is more or less bound up with that. The king allowed San Carlo from his own purse 350,000 francs a year—that is, when he had the money; and when he had none, why, he must at least have the opera, and he had it as kings in the good old days used to have things they could not pay for. Among the expedients of the early part of this century tables for faro and rouge-et-noir were set up in the great halls belonging to San Carlo. As usual, the chances were in favor of the bank, and the bank was generous to the theatre. So by hook or by crook the lyric drama flourished while the country was going to wrack and ruin. And such a country as it was for kings to exercise their divine rights upon! A land so endowed by nature that human lives expand in it like flowers under the sunlight, and where happiness and beauty would be universal were it not for that "screw loose somewhere" that everywhere deranges the action of things terrestrial. As for music, men sing here as the birds do, because they must; and their throats are so constituted that it is nearly as difficult for them to sing out of tune as it would be for a bobolink. Now, as these people are also gifted with a southern love for colors and pretty shows, the Ferdinands and Francises of evil memory had an easy task when they wanted to maintain the supremacy of their opera-house. It should be remembered, by the way, that Naples has been as rich in composers as in fine voices. We are occupied with other music nowadays, but Alessandro Stradella, Salvator Rosa (good composer as well as painter), Scarlatti, Porpora, Durante, Paisiello, Pergolesi, and Cimarosa are still splendid names, and they were all Neapolitan. According to the custom of Italian theatres, San Carlo has always had its composer, who is bound, as a rule, to furnish for it two operas a year. Most of these are soon forgotten; even in the case of Rossini, who, in his seven years at Naples, produced eighteen operas and two cantatas, only four still keep the stage: "Il Barbiere," "La Cenerentola," "La Gazza Ladra," and "Mosè in Egitto"; but such fruitfulness is possible only in a country where music is a living art and not a mere luxury of the rich.

I have intimated that the present days are not so happy for San Carlo as the past. A free and united Italy has had so much use for her money that she has not always been able to spare the sums required by so magnificent an amusement, and there are now no faro-tables kindly to take the burden off the hands of the state. San Carlo has on occasion even been closed for want of subvention—an event which must always be a real affliction in such a city as Naples. Moreover, though fine voices will never be wanting in this favored land, the best artists go where they can get the best prices—to London, to Paris, and St. Petersburg; and as for composers, we can only say that it is a bad season for the race in Italy.

Nevertheless, San Carlo has now its subvention—only 100,000 francs; better than none—I have been told, and the singing people sing such music as is written for them. In accordance with these conditions we determined a few days ago to hear "Il Guarany," a year-old opera of the "Maestro Gomez." It was an opportunity not only to see the theatre but to enlighten our utter ignorance as to the abilities of the Maestro Gomez. I won the right of saying that in this case ignorance was bliss, and that it is a mercy for the hearers of Italian opera in other countries that a sort of sifting process goes on in the land of their production, so that the choice of outsiders lies between a few of the better ones only. "Il Guarany" purports to be a romance of Brazilian life in the sixteenth century, and in its utter defiance of all trammels of reason and probability it might rank with the highest efforts of the Italian lyric drama. Unfortunately it can make no other pretensions to greatness, and demands attention only during two or three pretty airs and choruses. There was abundant leisure for studying the house and the audience.

It remains an open question whether San Carlo or La Scala at Milan be the greater theatre. Figures on each side stand in audacious contradiction to each other. In any case, the auditorium of either has but one rival in the world in point of size, and that is the other. Some captious critic had prepared me to expect little in the interior but dirt and shabbiness, and in the audience nothing but a lot of human magpies, who habitually drowned the music by their chattering, and reserved their attention exclusively for the ballet. Poor dyspeptic critic! The hall of San Carlo certainly does not afford a model of purity of decoration. It is easy in this year of grace to see that the taste of the eighteenth century was vicious, especially for such people as believe that the hats of the present season are intrinsically more elegant than those of the last. Whatever may be its defects, San Carlo has eminently the air of a meeting-place for good society; there is something stately, courtly, grandiose about it which makes it compare with a modern theatre as a gentleman of the old school with a smart young shopman. The light is not too glaring, and the six tiers of boxes, all lined with deep red, form an excellent setting to the toilettes and faces therein displayed.

As for the attention of the audience, the criticism referred to above was based, I fear, on a misunderstanding of the conditions of Italian theatre-going. People who hear an opera but seldom generally have eyes and ears only for the stage whenever they take the trouble to visit the theatre. In Italy, however, the theatre is the place where society habitually assembles. Everybody accordingly soon learns a given opera by heart from beginning to end. The young men in the pit hum an accompaniment to the favorite airs sung on the stage. Their voices are so sweet and true that the effect is not disturbing, excepting when they serve to set in relief the occasional lapses from purity of intonation of the prima donna or the tenor. But though they may have heard the same music fifty times they never fail to detect instantly when anything is done upon the stage either better or worse than usual, and they mete out rewards and punishments with swiftness, and generally with justice. The attention given to "Il Guarany" was much better than the work deserved, better than we are in the habit of according in our social gatherings to the persons who are obliging enough to furnish us with "a little music"; here, for instance, the conversation did not prevent the audience from knowing just how every note was given on the stage or in the orchestra.

For the rest, the boxes are so many reception rooms; in the first two tiers every one is in evening dress. The Englishmen and Americans who

think that a shooting-jacket is fine enough for a Continental theatre would find themselves unpleasantly conspicuous in a good part of San Carlo. Up above, in the fifth tier, next to a box where is a large family all in their Sunday best, are workmen in blouses and shirt-sleeves. In those dizzy regions, where the pleasures and the obligations of wealth are alike unknown, the music and the spectacle are all in all. Southern enthusiasm and southern demonstrativeness are here held in check by no conventions, and accordingly both delight and discontent here assume the proportions of a storm, which now and then breaks out and fills the house with its roar. In the lower tiers all is, of course, highly decorous. I searched here long in vain for one of those sweet and beautiful faces so common among the youth of Naples. The search was finally rewarded; but there were proportionally far too many faces jaded and faded before their time, marked with the peculiar melancholy that comes from satiety and wasted energies. We see enough of such faces in Paris or New York, but I never have remarked so many elsewhere as among the fashionable women of Naples. The expression of the men is more varying and intellectual; one feels that they, at least, would be easily roused to a show of interest.

In spite of the frost that numbs the faculties of a portion of the audience, its prevailing tone is sensitively, perhaps I should add sensuously, critical. A single false note was greeted with groans and hisses. On a later occasion I saw the opera of "Norma" come to an untimely end on account of the shortcomings of the tenor who sang the part of *Pollione*. The poor man was one who would have been endured, if not admired, in certain cities that I could name, but here the storm began soon after his first appearance and raged more and more furiously, until at the end of the first act the opera gave way to the ballet of "Rolla." I was in a box with some English people who felt cheated of their money's worth by this change; a Neapolitan would have felt insulted by any attempt to make him listen further to the false notes of the illustrious tenor.

This same sensitiveness may crop out in a whimsical injustice, as on the occasion of Rossini's bringing out his "Donna del Lago." The tenor who personated *Roderick Dhu* unfortunately pitched his first note, on entering the stage at a great distance from the orchestra, too low. The mistake was greeted by a general yell. As Stendhal says, who recounts the scene: "Nothing can convey an adequate idea of the fury of a Neapolitan public when offended by a false note." The tenor was followed by a chorus of bards accompanied by a splendid military march. It was a gala representation, and the court happened not to be present to impose decorum. There were a number of young officers, animated by military spirits, in the pit, and at the first sound of trumpets one of these began with his cane to imitate the gallop of a horse. Instantly the pit was filled with five hundred similarly improvised steeds, and the opera was brought to an end amidst a frightful clatter. It may be worth noting that Rossini, who the same night set off in mortification to keep an engagement in Milan, told everybody along the road that the "Donna del Lago" had been cheered to the skies, "*était allée aux nues.*" The fib was one only in intention. The next night the public, ashamed of its treatment of such a work, amply verified Rossini's account.

This was not the only time when Rossini extorted the applause of the same audience against expectation. "Moses in Egypt," as first written for San Carlo, was without the magnificent prayer. The present climax of the third act and the contrivance of the theatrical machinist to represent the passage of the Red Sea was such that it never failed to excite mirth. The opera reached its second season, a success on the whole, but still having to contend against ridicule in the one critical point. Rossini was one day lounging in bed with a dozen friends about him, when in rushed the poet of the libretto, who cried, without noticing the company: "Maestro! I have saved the third act!" In reply to Rossini's amused and sceptical question as to how he had accomplished the impossible, "I have made a prayer for the Hebrews before the passage of the Red Sea," said the poet, thrusting a mass of papers upon the bed. While Rossini was engaged in reading, the excited poet kept constantly whispering, "Maestro, I did it in an hour," until the composer finally cried, "Well, if you have done this in an hour, I must write the music in a quarter of the time," and jumping out of bed, sat down just as he was and actually wrote out this magnificent number in eight or ten minutes amidst the talk of his friends. The next evening when the usual fun was beginning it was at once repressed by the introduction of the new music. As the prayer went on the attention became breathless, until at the end, says Stendhal, "It would be difficult to give an idea of the thunders of applause which resounded from every part of the theatre. The spectators leaned over the boxes to applaud, exclaiming, '*Bello! bello! O che bello!*' Never did I behold such an excitement, rendered still more striking by its contrast with the previous merry mood of the audience."

Since writing the above I have been a third time at San Carlo, and by good fortune was with about a dozen Neapolitan officers, who did the honors of their box with the charming courtesy of their nation. Let it not, therefore, be set down to prejudice if I say that the result of this third experience has been to confirm in a most decided manner my previous conclusion, that there can be no public in the world more quick and more certain in musical judgment. It is as easy now to understand why South Italy should have been the home of Italian opera as to see why Greece was once great in sculpture, or Venice in painting, or why constitutional government has flourished in England.

Correspondence.

AMERICAN MEMBERS OF THE ROYAL SOCIETY.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: On page 42 of the *Nation* for January 17 I read: "Professor Simon Newcomb has been elected a foreign member of the Royal Society of London, an honor hitherto enjoyed by Dr. Asa Gray alone among living Americans." The latter half of this statement is totally untrue, as you can readily satisfy yourself by consulting the list of foreign members of the society, among whom Prof. Benj. F. Peirce, of Cambridge, Mass., has long held a place.

It would not have been worth while to notice this matter were it not that for years past the newspapers have contained numerous items respecting Prof. Newcomb, most of which were as erroneous as the one just quoted.

Very respectfully,

Wm. Harkness.

Washington, January 19, 1878.

[Our authority was *Nature*, in which we found the statement.—Ed. Nation.]

JUDGE DILLON AND THE DEFAULTING CITIES AND COUNTIES.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The following report of the remarks of Judge Dillon in a recent case is taken from a Kansas paper:

"Several suits against counties and cities in Kansas, loaded down with debts they cannot possibly pay, came before the United States Circuit Court, Judge Dillon presiding, at its late term. No defence was made. The defaulting municipalities, as a rule, do not deny the validity of their debt, but assert that they are unable to pay in full and ask a compromise. Judgment was rendered against them by default. The attorneys representing the bondholders then asked the judge to issue a mandamus compelling the municipalities to levy a tax to pay the interest. Judge Dillon, replying to this demand, made an earnest and logical address, in which he discussed the subject at some length. He said he would decline issuing a mandamus at this term of court, and he earnestly hoped that the bondholders would, before the next term, accept any reasonable compromise offered by the municipalities. Whenever, he said, a county or city has bonds outstanding to the amount of more than ten per cent. of its assessed property valuation and bearing a high rate of interest, it was impossible for that community to meet its obligations and survive. It was an unfortunate condition of affairs for both parties interested, and the difficulty ought to be adjusted by mutual concessions. He hoped the attorneys representing the bondholders would represent the truth concerning the condition of the defaulting municipalities to their clients, and urge them, whenever a reasonable compromise was offered, to accept it. He believed that the municipalities would pay if they could, but when a municipal debt was so large that to attempt to pay it would involve the community in financial ruin, it was manifestly in the interest of its creditors to accept a reasonable compromise. He had never known a municipal debt thus compromised to be dishonored, and he hoped that before the next term of court some fair understanding between the parties in interest would be arrived at."

It is barely possible that this report of the judge's remarks does him some injustice; but it is not likely. The principal points in the report—that the validity of the debt was not denied, that the judge refused to issue the mandamus, and declared that "he earnestly hoped the bondholders would, before the next term, accept any reasonable compromise offered by the municipalities"—stand out prominently, and would hardly have been misrepresented to his injury by a friendly and sympathetic journal.

Yet it is difficult to understand how a Federal judge could hold such language on the bench and retain his position. One of the objects the

framers of the Constitution had in establishing a Federal judiciary was that a tribunal might be secured which would be independent of and lifted above the local prejudices and passions which might exercise an undue influence on a county or State court and thereby defeat the ends of justice. In this case, at least, the worthy purpose they had has been disappointed, and we have a Federal judge who openly and officially panders to the worst local influence that can exist in any country.

It must have been known to Judge Dillon that the property in Western cities and counties is rarely ever assessed at an amount over one-third of its real value, and that few if any of the Kansas municipalities have contracted debts which they cannot pay in full if they will honestly try. The compromise which has been offered to the bondholders, in most if not in all the cases, has been fifty per cent. on the face value of the bonds. Nor do they propose to pay this amount in lawful currency, but it is to be represented by new bonds at a reduced rate of interest. In other words, they propose to pay in a currency which they have already repudiated, without giving one additional guarantee that the new contract will not share the same fate as the old.

The obligations were generally incurred for the construction of railroads or other highways, or to promote other local improvements. The expected consideration has been fully realized. The resources of the State have been developed ; access to market has been facilitated ; immigration has been attracted ; counties and cities have been improved and the lands of Kansas thereby greatly enhanced in value. Yet they refuse to return the money which investors loaned them to secure these advantages, and a Federal judge, whose sworn duty it is to enforce every lawful contract, encourages and confirms them in their disgraceful determination. They invite capital, yet they would annihilate credit, which constitutes a great part of the capital of all well-regulated communities. Bacon somewhere says that "a popular judge will be a deformed thing," and if this is true it seems that Judge Dillon is ambitious to become a monstrosity.

C. E. S.

Middlesex Co., Va., January 15, 1878.

WESTERN MORALS AND EASTERN VITUPERATION.

To the Editor of The Nation :

Sir : You will, perhaps, be willing to print, as an item of news undiscovered by your contemporaries, the fact that the West is not peopled entirely by thieves. It is time that a protest should be recorded against the indiscriminate abuse of every one who lives in the Mississippi Valley. As one of the great number of Western men who believe in the single gold standard, and who find their attempts to make converts seriously hindered by the daily volleys of vituperation from the press of New York City, I venture to ask you to record that protest. The number of thieves to the square mile in Illinois is not to be found by dividing the total population by the number of square miles in the State. The persons who are dishonestly urging the remonetization of the silver dollar form an insignificant fraction of the silver party. That party is made up of five classes. There are the enthusiastic speculators, led in this city by the "seven millionaires" who telegraphed Logan in 1874 that the West needed "more money," and immediately proved this to be true in their own cases by going into such depths of bankruptcy that their creditors would be glad to take a silver dime for each dollar they owe. There are the demagogues. There are the men who have given mortgages, most of them dated before demonetization ; whose rents do not now pay interest and taxes ; who think remonetization would double their income without diminishing that of anybody else. This third class is not consciously dishonest. The fourth and fifth form, I think, the great mass of the silver party : they are the men who believe silver was fraudulently demonetized, and wish to rebuke the "trick," and the men who have been maddened by the grossness of the abuse poured upon the West for its temporary insanity on this question. Western papers are not behindhand in this vulgarity of vituperation ; but if the gold cause is right, let us carry on the fight with reason, not abuse.

If my analysis of the silver party is approximately correct, it shows the folly of our fighting on the vituperative plan. Calling names, however advantageous in economizing editorial brains, is not argument ; and argument is what is wanted. The most telling thing on our side, so far, has been the *Nation's* editorial on the details of the passage of the act of 1873. That candid statement of fact was worth more in removing the belief that demonetization was fraudulent than a hundred issues of every newspaper in New York City, with each line devoted to the shibboleth of to-day : "The West is a den of thieves."

The danger of paying the bonds in silver is so extremely remote that discussion should be bent upon the dangerous effects of remonetization upon the trade and production of the country. And the argument of expediency will be more effective than that of morality. It is certainly strong enough.

A deeper danger lurks beneath this present one. Thoughtful men must see that the hold of the Union upon the West is weakening. There is no immediate danger of disruption, of course ; but there was no immediate danger of it in New England in 1800 or at the South in 1850. The same class of demagogues who have so skilfully utilized, for their own political benefit, the American hatred of England, are using to-day the Western dislike of the East. The wedge has been driven in a little way. New York is striking heavy blows upon it.

The people of the United States are sitting as a jury upon the silver question. The metropolitan newspapers appear before them as lawyers, not judges. And no lawyer ever won his case when he began by abusing the jury. Yours, etc.,

Alfred B. Mason.

Chicago, Ill., January 17, 1878.

[There is, of course, a great deal of force in what Mr. Mason says as to the uselessness of vituperation. It will probably do no good. But is it inexcusable on the part of the Eastern press? The question, Who began it? of course seems a little puerile ; but it is, in view of the importance Mr. Mason attaches to the mode of discussing the silver matter, worth asking and answering. There is, in so far as our knowledge goes, no feeling or thought of hostility at the East to a bimetallist or remonetizationist as such. With such men as Cernuschi or Dana Horton or Ernest Seyd every one is willing to listen respectfully and answer them calmly. But we must remind Mr. Mason that the advocacy of remonetization opened at the West with the charge that the demonetization of silver had been brought about by a conspiracy of bondholders and speculators, by which some Congressmen were corrupted and the remainder deceived into passing the measure, and that those of us who in the press and elsewhere denied this, and approved of the demonetization and of the single gold standard, were hired by them or in connivance with them in the perpetration of a "trick" or fraud. This story is to all men of intelligence at the East so ridiculous on its face that if it had simply obtained circulation among the farmers, who have little knowledge of the world and are very suspicious of money-changers and Congressmen, it would probably have passed without notice. But when it was taken up and spread as literally true by the best portion of the Western press—by such papers as the Chicago *Tribune* and Cincinnati *Commercial*—by men who know the world, who know that the leading commercial nations have, after mature consideration, adopted the gold standard or are going to do so, and that there is no necessary dishonesty in monometallism, is it surprising that people here got angry, and, knowing these men not to be fools, gave hot expression to the belief that they were something else? Mr. Mason is good enough to say that our article on the details of the passage of the Act of 1873 has been more useful than anything else in exploding the fraud theory ; but does he perceive clearly the force of this admission? The *Nation* went to no recondite sources for its information. It simply consulted the *Congressional Record*. Consider the position in which this fact places the Western editors and orators who have been preaching the fraud theory. What are we to say of the public teachers who kept back the facts produced by the *Nation*? What of the intelligent Westerners of all classes who went on degrading their country by this account of the credulity and corruption of Congress, and vilifying the public creditor or listening to vilification of him, without ever looking at the official report of what had taken place? Is it not a little difficult for the natural man to be polite to adversaries of this kind?

There is no denying that there is a widespread and growing feeling at the East that Western morals are in a bad way, and it is intensified by the fact that the West is a large borrower of Eastern money. Creditors, of course, are always very sensitive, perhaps unduly, about a debtor's character, and when alarmed are not apt to keep silent or find excuses for him. Nothing has done

more to increase and spread this alarm than the conduct of prominent Western men. Messrs. Medill and Halstead, for instance, are well known here. We all supposed them to be shrewd, able, honorable, familiar with affairs, and especially with the laws, conditions, and motives of trade and commerce. Many of us have acted with them in political matters, and supposed them to be rational, cool politicians of the Anglo-Saxon type. It is, therefore, impossible to overrate the surprise and anxiety caused by finding them spreading and pretending to believe the fraud story, and denouncing all bondholders and monometallists with the fiercest vituperation, and representing the commercial world of Europe and the East as a gang of sharpers who made fortunes by imposing on the simple-minded, and all this with extraordinary vehemence and with the gestures and epithets of a Parisian Red in full Commune. No prudent man likes to deal with a community which can be wrought on by influences of this kind, and but few men are calm enough to avoid expressing themselves strongly about open avowals of what they consider an attempt to cheat. Of course the West can punish its critics by not paying its debts, or by trying to dissolve the Union; but would it ever get a chance to treat any other creditors in the same way? Is there any other community on the globe as much in need of credit, and ought it not, therefore, to consider sobriety, fair dealing, and rigid fulfilment of contracts as part of its capital—to put the matter on the lowest ground? The West must make up its mind that it cannot set up a standard of morality of its own, and that there is no escape on this earth, whether by dissolution of the Union or otherwise, from the reprobation of the civilized world for men who seek, or seem to seek, the legalization of fraud.—Ed. Nation.]

THE WAY TO RESUME.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Is there not a sense in which it is true that "the way to resume is to resume"? It is alleged that we cannot resume without a *quantum sufficit* of gold, and that we have not that *quantum sufficit*. Granted. But if it be true that we cannot use gold until we have it, is it not equally true that we cannot have gold until we use it? Gold flows from countries where it is not used to countries where it is used. It goes where the demand is, and it goes in proportion to the demand.

Since the suspension of specie payments gold has continued to be used in the United States for certain purposes; it is this limited use of gold that has kept in the country the limited amount of gold we have. The legal-tender act is as much the law of the land in California as in New York; but by the force of public opinion in California gold was retained in use. People continued to reckon in gold, to bargain in gold, to pay in gold. They continued to *use* gold, and gold sufficient for their use remained with them.

It will not do to say that California is a gold-producing State, and therefore was able to retain gold. That gold was a native product might account for the state of public opinion, but did not further enter into the question. If California had abandoned the use of gold, every dollar of her product would have gone abroad; just as, if she abandoned the use of wheat, every bushel of her wheat would be exported. It is as easy to get gold by importation as by mining. In either case you must pay the price. Why cannot the State of New York do what the State of California has done?

There is, I think, a growing disposition to do business on a gold basis. Railways pay their bonds in gold; mortagees stipulate for gold; banks receive gold deposits, and pay them out on checks. The practice may extend to all branches of business. Insurance companies may issue gold policies for gold premiums. The State, paying its debt in gold, may levy its taxes in gold, on a gold valuation. The increased use of gold would, by increasing the demand, raise the price, as measured in greenbacks. But as the increased use would come about gradually, the rise of the premium would be gradual, and the resulting disturbance of values would be easily adjusted.

There is no commodity a demand for which can be more promptly supplied than gold. We are bartering our enormous exports in all the markets of the world for things we need. If we need gold we can buy it with our exports. We should obtain it, not by requiring the banks to hoard it, or the Government to buy it with bonds. We should buy it for ourselves, and as we buy sugar, and tea, and coffee, and silk. Thus the use of gold, and the gold to use, would come in *pari passu*. We should resume, not on a certain day of a certain year, but gradually; not by act of Congress, but by the common consent and action of the people.

Is it not true, then, that "the way to resume is to resume," in the sense indicated? Querist.

New York, January 15, 1878.

ANOTHER VICTIM OF RESUMPTION.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: My subscription expires with the issue just received. You will please discontinue. The financial policy which you have advocated has made me too poor to indulge in such expensive luxuries.

Very truly yours, J. E. Downey.

Indianapolis, January 16, 1878.

A FAIR QUESTION.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: It has occurred to me that the advocates of the ancestral dollar overlook this stumbling-block in the path of their argument. They assert that the 412½-grain silver coin should be a dollar now, because, being a dollar when the debt was contracted, it would have continued to be one down to these days had there been no suspension of specie payments. In 1853 (it was, I think?), gold having been cheapened by the California discoveries, it is conceded the silver dollar disappeared, and the subsidiary silver coin had to be debased in order to keep it in circulation. Supposing no suspension to have taken place in specie payments, can it be doubted that when the fall in silver occurred the silver dollar (supposed to be in circulation) would have been appreciated in fineness to fit the gold dollar, just as the silver coin in 1853 was debased to balance the gold coin? Or would the silver-men deem it wiser to debase the gold to fit the fallen silver unit? There could have been no alternative between this course and the melting-pot.

Respectfully, "A Western Shylock."

Cincinnati, January 19, 1878.

CALIFORNIA'S CURRENCY EXPERIENCE.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The plan proposed by a correspondent, Mr. Fred. P. Powers, in the *Nation* of Dec. 6, of recognizing gold as a standard and of receiving silver at its market value, is in practical operation in California, at least in a modified form; instead of receiving subsidiary silver at its bullion value its price is fixed by the local operation of the law of supply and demand. When the Government commenced redeeming fractional currency (then worth 90 to 91 cents on this coast), silver coin was current at about one per centum discount—*i.e.*, was worth 98¼ or 99 cents. Of course it flowed hither in large quantities, and, as a consequence, we have been annoyed with a redundancy of it ever since. Its current or local value, in quantities, has ranged, during the period mentioned, from 93 to 96½ cents, although its value as bullion has not varied greatly from 85 cents.

The same principle, of recognizing unity of standard based on a single metal, and of gauging the various other money measures (including tokens or counters, etc.) that may be current by that standard, has been observed in this State during the long paper-money era that has prevailed east of the Rocky Mountains since '61. Our refusal to adopt the illusory and ever-changing (because irredeemable) paper standard of value, elsewhere prevalent, during and since the war, has been frequently and sharply criticised as unpatriotic, illogical, etc. I deny the justice of the criticism. On the contrary, Californians, with a liberality and a regard for realities rather than semblances that they have hardly received sufficient credit for, have always been willing to receive without hesitation, *at their market value*, greenbacks, national-bank notes, subsidiary silver coin, "the dollar of the fathers" (whenever obtainable), trade-dollars, and even gold and silver bullion, etc.; believing meanwhile, by a sort of intuition that seemed to be fortified by the experience of mankind, that gold (which they had inherited as a standard) was, take it all in all, about as good a measure of general values as could be found, because it was a commodity of absolutely universal currency, and of nearly uniform value throughout the world; but anyhow that *unity and unchangeableness of standard* were as essentially bed-rock principles in dollar measures as in gallon measures or yard measures or pound measures.

Our experience in this matter of standards, on this coast, has probably

not been materially different from that of most other gold and silver countries; but there are one or two phases of it bearing on questions now mooted, in and out of Congress, that may possibly interest the readers of the *Nation*. And first, as to our experience with a better silver dollar than "the dollar of the fathers." Unless the silver-men are prepared to go over in a body to the silver standard, and to see gold disappear from circulation and flee the country, we can tell them just how unlimited legal tender (or even limited legal tender) with free coinage of the "silver dollar of the fathers" will operate. That dollar contains 412½ grains of silver. The trade-dollar contains just 7½ grains more, or 420 grains. Now, as the price of silver bullion since 1875 has depreciated throughout the world, and as bullion dealers, a year or so ago, were willing and anxious to sell from 450 to 460 grains, or nearly an ounce, of silver for a dollar, free coinage of trade-dollars afforded them fine opportunity, which they were not slow to seize, of having their merchandise converted into dollars of 420 grains, which, though only worth from 90 to 93 cents, they could pass on a confiding community, for awhile at least, for 100 cents, or at their face value. As silver was plenty in other countries as well as in California, and as the market for it was dull, this neat little game went on for some time in a lively manner; in fact, business was exceedingly brisk with the bullion dealers, till finally trade-dollars became so redundant in our currency that they were unanimously voted a nuisance. Being overvalued, the banks refused to take them except on special deposit; debts could not be paid with them at par without a hitch or a wrangle, and as our people did not propose to give up gold as money altogether, they finally, by general consent, agreed that they would only receive trade-dollars at 90 cents, and this understanding they proceeded to put in practice. That settled the question: 90 cents being a slight undervaluation, they soon disappeared—sought a more congenial clime (in China and India, and lately, I believe, in the Western States), and we have not been bothered with them since. Moreover, we have found in practice that two half-dollars are often more useful as change-money than a trade-dollar, notwithstanding the fact that they contain nearly 35 grains less silver than a trade-dollar.

Mr. Thurlow Weed and others suggest, on the other hand, that enough metal should be put into the silver dollar to make it equal in value to the gold dollar, or to its own former value before the general fall of silver throughout the world. But suppose, after the country's necessities had been supplied with coins adjusted on such a basis, that silver should appreciate again to something like its former price, so that the new dollar would be worth, say, $1 08 to $1 10; what would then happen? Why, such dollars, being only a legal tender for 100 cents, would be worth more as bullion than as coin, and straight into the melting-pot they would go—precisely as their predecessors (of lugubrious memory), the "dollars of the fathers," did, nearly as fast as they could be coined, so long as they were worth 102 to 103 cents. This accounts for the fact that those venerated coins never circulated to any great extent alongside of the gold dollar as a standard; and for change purposes, the smaller or fractional silver coins were more useful, because, though intrinsically less valuable, they better performed the function for which they were created.

Another point which the people of this State have learned from experience, and which has been a source of considerable irritation, is, that where several currencies of slightly dissimilar value circulate together, there will exist an irrepressible tendency among the people to insist that the par of one shall be the par of another. This was especially noticeable when greenbacks, soon after they were first issued, began to diverge or to depreciate from the gold standard; and also lately as they begin to approximate again to that standard. But when they were worth, say 50 cents (or, as you Eastern people put it, gold was at 200), or 37½ cents (gold 285), nobody thought of confounding the par of a specie or standard dollar with that of a greenback dollar. So that really there is less friction, paradox though it may seem, in doing business in any community when the difference (if any exists) between the several currencies is so great that all disposition to substitute the various false or delusive standards for the true one disappears, and all with one accord assent to the doctrine, that though there may be currencies many, there must be but *one standard*.

Again, instead of limiting the legal tender of silver arbitrarily to $5 on all payments, as required by the present law, the practice has been somewhat generally prevalent in California of receiving a small percentage of entire payments in silver under what seems a juster rule than the former one. This practice has suggested to the writer the feasibility of a plan of making silver coin and gold coin together a legal tender in the payment of all debts to an extent approximating to their *proportionate* value to each other—say 95 per cent. in gold coin and 5 per cent. in silver coin—thus evolving a *composite* single standard from a bi-metallic basis. At the ratio of 16 to 1, gold is 16 times as valuable as silver; or, silver, expressed in hundredths, is just 6¼ per cent. as valuable as gold. The ratio of 95 per cent. to 5 per cent—or, of 95 cents to 5 cents—is as 19 to 1, and 1 is about 5¼ per cent. of 19. If, as Mr. Murat Halstead insists and as many others believe, the presence of silver in the standard is a question of vast importance to the American people, I can conceive of no theory by which it can be realized, or that in practice would work more justly, than that of making it a legal tender with gold in proportion to its relative value to gold (say 5 per cent. and 95 per cent. equal 100 per cent.), the two intrinsic metals, thus together, in separate, full-weight coins, forming a composite single monetary standard. If by such a plan, or any plan, absolute unity of standard is attainable the feasibility of its adoption might be worthy of consideration. But the sooner the American people abandon all thoughts of trying to measure values by two full and independent standards in the same system, based on two divergent, perpetually oscillating commodities, whether they be gold and silver, or wheat and corn, or flour and bran, the sooner will they rescue their monetary system from the domain of chaos and confusion. An ounce and a pound avoirdupois, as dual units of weight, are always true to each other as 1 to 16. The ratio of value of an ounce of silver to an ounce of gold *may* be as 1 to 16; it has sometimes been as 1 to 14. It is now about as 1 to 17.7.

HENRY D. BARROWS.

LOS ANGELES, CALIFORNIA, January 8, 1878.

Notes.

A NEW New-England novel, by Mrs. Stowe, is announced by Fords, Howard & Hulbert, of this city. It will be entitled 'Poganuc People.'——The venerable Col. John H. Wheeler, author of 'Historical Sketches of North Carolina, 1584–1851,' first published in the latter year, is contemplating a new edition of this work, with revisions and additions to the present date.——The daughters of the late Richard Cobden are now collecting and arranging his correspondence, with a view to its early publication. They will feel obliged if any one possessing letters from him that ought to be included will send them to Mr. T. B. Potter, M.P., Reform Club Chambers, 105 Pall Mall, London, S.W.——The London *Athenæum* of Jan. 5 prints a gossipy letter from Dr. Doran in celebration of its fiftieth birthday (Jan. 2, 1828–78). In the same number Mr. Wm. Chappell asserts for Wheatstone the honor of first discovering the principle of the telephone.——J. B. Lippincott & Co. have published an English version of Letourneau's 'Biologie,' reviewed by us in No. 554.——D. Appleton & Co. have just issued a translation of Gobineau's 'Nouvelles Asiatiques' (see the *Nation*, No. 597), under the title of 'Romances of the East.' The same house have in press Lecky's 'History of England in the Eighteenth Century'; the third volume of Martin's 'Life of the Prince Consort'; Prof. Corfield's 'Hygiene and the Laws of Health'; Huxley's 'Anatomy of the Invertebrates,' and 'Physiography'; 'The Source of Muscular Power,' by Dr. Austin Flint, jr.; a 'Life of Gen. Albert Sidney Johnston,' by Wm. Preston Johnston; 'The Military Policy of the United States' and 'The Armies of Asia and Europe,' by Gen. Emory Upton; and a guide-book for the Pacific Railways and Colorado.——'The Life and Military Services of Gen. Wm. Selby Harney,' by L. U. Reavis, is announced by Bryan, Brand & Co., St. Louis.——The Eleventh Annual Exhibition of the American Water-Color Society will open in this city at the National Academy of Design on February 4 and close on March 4.——From Chicago there comes to us a German metrical translation of Longfellow's "Morituri Salutamus," by Dr. Ernst Schmidt.——The January number of the *Geographical Magazine* contains a new language-map of India and its border-lands, illustrating two papers on the subject, the second of which will appear next month.——We begin to share the impatience of Dr. Hugo Schramm-Macdonald, the unappreciated editor of *Die Urne*, who was annoyed by the uncertainty of the dates of death of distinguished men. We are informed that Mr. F. B. Meek died December 21, 1876, contrary to our necrological assumption that he died last year.——1876 was the year of the Papal jubilee, and it witnessed an extraordinary revival in miracles and pilgrimages, which called forth in that one year between two and three hundred special publications. A bibliography of these has been published at Turin in French, and it affords very curious reading. With an irony probably intentional the cataloguer has included in the same pamphlet a list of the publications during the same year on

prestidigitation and spiritualism. The lawsuit about "spirit photographs" during that year in Paris was the exciting cause of nearly as many pamphlets as the Papal jubilee.——We have received the first number (Jan. 6) of an Italian *Spectator* or *Saturday Review*, published at Florence, *La Rassegna Settimanale di Politica, Scienze, Lettere ed Arti*. It is a very handsome sheet of twenty pages, 4to, and is conducted by Leopoldo Franchetti and Sidney Sonnino, with a large corps of eminent contributors, who will all, we judge, be anonymous except the poets—Carducci leading off with two ballad versions from the Spanish and Danish. Other well-known names on the list of promisors are Bonghi, Cambray-Digny, De Amicis, Errera, Gallenga, Guerzoni, Hillebrand, Mme. White-Mario, Negri, Scila, Villari, etc., etc. The *Rassegna* announces that Bonghi's "Pio IX." has met with so much success that the publishers Treves have engaged him to write a life of the Pope. He will also make a volume of his already published contemporary portraits of Cavour, Bismarck, and Thiers.

—There is much good reading and some fine engraving in *Scribner's Monthly* for February, the greatest novelty being perhaps Mary Hallock Foote's "California Mining Camp"—a long article, for which the author herself furnished the numerous and attractive illustrations. There is a charming design for one of Mr. Boyesen's ballads, by Mr. John La Farge, admirably interpreted on wood by Mr. Henry Marsh. Striking, too, and apparently faithful, is the copy of what is supposed to have been the last photograph of Abraham Lincoln, with its genial rather than melancholy expression, and its homely humanity. Lincoln is the subject, further on, of personal reminiscences by an intimate acquaintance, Mr. Noah Brooks, who keeps some in reserve for a subsequent paper. New to us in them is the account of the composition of the Gettysburg speech, which, as it appears, had been already conceived before the President obtained Mr. Everett's oration as printed in advance in the Boston *Journal*. Lincoln took the *Journal* with him to the photographer's where he sat for the likeness above mentioned, and on being asked by Mr. Brooks if his discourse was written, replied, "Well, no. It is not exactly written. It is not finished, any way. I have written it over, two or three times, and I shall have to give it another lick before I am satisfied. But it is short, short, short." As characteristic is this other remark, on a different occasion: "With educated people, I suppose, punctuation is a matter of rule; with me it is a matter of feeling. But I must say that I have a great respect for the semi-colon: it's a very useful little chap." Mr. Brooks's reminiscences close with Lincoln telegraphing to recall the Californian Representatives who had left Washington "angry because the San Francisco mint and custom-house appointments were agreed on without their consent." Secretary Chase had, in fact, undertaken to fill these offices without consulting either them or the President. When the Representatives returned, "the Treasury Department 'slate' was broken." The world has moved a little since then. We can say no more of the present number of *Scribner's* except to mention Mr. Charles F. Thwing's paper on "The College Rank of Distinguished Men," a fair showing in favor of trying to stand near the head of one's class.

—One naturally opens the February *Lippincott's* at the first of Mr. Edward King's papers entitled "With the Russians in Bulgaria," and perhaps one turns back to it after all the rest of the number has been read or skimmed through. Mr. Bacon's concluding paper on Sicily will certainly repay perusal, but what, just now, is the picturesqueness of Syracuse to that of Tirnova, which Mr. King pronounces "positively the most picturesque town that I have ever seen"? It is not merely that Mr. King is a graphic writer, or that the interest of his story grows out of the common hardships of newspaper correspondents during the present campaign, but that we feel that an American spectator of the Russo-Turkish conflict is, or ought to be, of all others the freest from prejudice and bias. What Mr. King, therefore, has to say about the Russian commanders and their troops, and about the Bulgarians, carries with his own countrymen at least a degree of weight which no foreign reporter, even though a better observer or an abler writer or of wider experience in the field, could command. He tells us now of the incidents of the march from Simnitza to Tirnova: of the Cossacks, "our chief delight," whose melodious choruses by night and day neither dust nor fatigue could choke, who were brutal only when druuk, and who would "sit for hours idly singing or basking in the sunshine, and evidently anxious for no narcotic," in marked contrast with the inveterate smoking of the Prussian or French foot-soldier; of the "democratic freedom from affectation and perfect amiability" of the Russian officers, and their "almost excessive frankness, even in dealing with their own faults"; of the much more intimate relation between officers and men than in German or other (non-American) armies; of the Grand Duke Nicholas, equally unaffected, superintending his own dinner of liver and bacon; of General Skobeleff, the father, slaughtering and dressing a sheep with his own hands; of General Radetzky, "a tranquil, easy-going commander of the old school," in appearance "more like a good bourgeois shopkeeper than like a general"; of General Dragmiroff, "a handsome gentleman of elegant deportment," every inch a soldier; finally, of the Bulgarians, who win the writer's favor in proportion as he gets away from the Danube and approaches the Balkans—there showing all the vices engendered by a crushing despotism, here ashamed to admit that they had ever been slaves.

—Among the signs of the distress under which most newspapers have been laboring for more than a year past is the revival of "special inducements" to subscribe, and of extraordinary bargains in chromos, dictionaries, and cyclopædias. This is not confined to the religious press, but has been resorted to even by the daily newspapers, and has given occasion to some malicious pleasantry on the part of more fortunate journals. The *Christian Advocate*, of this city, however, the foremost Methodist organ in the country, has, in its efforts to keep up its circulation, reached a depth of abjectness which not even the bathos of its appeal can make a seemly topic for jesting. It devotes two and a half columns of the editorial page in its last issue to "a parting word" "To that Non-renewing Subscriber," and after telling him that "We have a sort of invested right in you: you have been in our prayers every day since we met," and that he will lose the difference between the subscription-price and the far greater cost of as much reading-matter in book form, and inviting him to look on a fancy picture of the family that takes the *Christian Advocate* compared with an equally fancy picture of the family that does not, it proceeds to address him a series of arguments that end by taunting him with the smallness of the sum for which he takes the risk of perdition here and hereafter. This is the style of them:

"Your mother read the *Christian Advocate* before you were born, and read it many a day as she rocked and hummed you to sleep. She has gone late home to heaven. This year's *Advocate* may guide your feet safely to that same heaven. Brother, can you afford to hush these memories and quench this light for $2 70?"

That for impudence, and the following for puerility:

"If you allow your *Christian Advocate* to be stopped, and all others should follow your example, of course you would *utterly stop* the publication of religious papers and literature, and abandon the field for the arch enemy. Brother, can you afford to strike civil society such a fatal blow for $2 70?"

And this for a genuine Papal indulgence:

"One little boy walks to school once a week, and saves his car-fare that his mother may have the *Christian Advocate*. God is certain to honor that lad in time, and almost certain to glorify him in eternity."

And this the reader may characterize for himself:

"P. S. Tell your pastor to send on your name immediately, or, if he is not accessible, address Nelson & Phillips, 805 Broadway, and may the blessing of God abide upon you!"

We would call the attention of the New York *Observer* (Religious Department) to this performance. It has lately been exercised about the secular press meddling with spiritual affairs; can it honestly say that if the *Advocate's* mode of meddling with secular affairs should be generally adopted, it would not be a public duty to "*utterly stop* the publication of religious papers"?

—The late Samuel Bowles, editor of the Springfield (Mass.) *Republican*, whose death occurred on Wednesday week, achieved a distinction as honorable as it was great and, on many accounts, surprising. In a word, his merit may be said to have lain in the fact that he elevated a small country newspaper to the front rank of metropolitan journalism. He began, however, by giving it a marked superiority over the Boston press, and a predominant influence in that section of Massachusetts to which he was a hundred miles nearer than Boston was. Later on he took advantage of being a hundred miles nearer New York also, both in securing the news of the day and in catching the editorial opinion for which provincial newspapers are accustomed to wait before committing themselves on public questions. Under his efficient direction the *Republican* became the most comprehensive newspaper—we believe it is no exaggeration to say, in the country. Its space forbade its competing with larger papers in fulness of details, but its system of condensing and digesting the news enabled it to cover all the important topics. Mr. Bowles, however, did not depend alone for his information on what the

mails brought him or his correspondents could ascertain: he journeyed often and far to the centres of news and politics, and through social intercourse obtained the private views of the leaders of thought and party, more especially, of course, in the Republican ranks. It must be called a defect in him that as a newsmonger he was apt to violate the confidence of those who forgot how entirely he was a journalist. "It was his favorite theory," says a critic who knew him intimately, "that the editor and the man, if they did not have separate identities, had different and distinct duties and privileges, and that an editor ought to do things for which as a man and a gentleman he was not responsible." This was illustrated in other ways than the one just mentioned. When we examine Mr. Bowles's rank as an editor on the higher scale of a thinker, we believe his chief title to remembrance was his independence not of thought but of utterance. He was not afraid to speak his mind; and his mind, however little original, was his own. In other words, he was unprovincial; and on this account as much as on any other he failed in his solitary attempt to conduct a daily newspaper in Boston. He was not only out of place in a small and homogeneous city, where the pressure of public opinion is too direct and strong for the journalist to withstand it, but his independent speech had the air of boastful superiority. He was free from party dictation long before he broke with the Republicans to support Mr. Greeley, and we cannot doubt that his example did much to bring about that emancipation of his brother editors which is one of the most cheering signs of the political progress of the past decade. People will naturally ask, as in the case of the *Times*, the *Herald*, and the *Tribune*, after the death of their founders, whether the *Republican* can maintain its eminence now that its informing spirit has left it. To our minds the problem is not the simple one of replacing Mr. Bowles's qualities. The highly perfect organization which he created will probably continue to run with efficiency and smoothness, in charge of those who have been trained in it; it is no secret that his principal assistants have had a better education than Mr. Bowles, taught mostly in the printing-office, ever had; doubtless, too, men of sounder judgment and less caprice—perhaps, in the largest sense, of more principle—than he, can be found to succeed him. What will be wanting? At first (it may not be so always) the guaranty which the public has in the known character and standing of the editor-proprietor. We are full believers in the value of anonymous journalism, and the point we insist upon is not a contradiction of it. We admit that the three New York papers alluded to have been improved since the death of their founders; but this has come about through the elimination of personalities, not by the removal of a responsible head whose name stood at the top of the editorial page, and to whom the public looked for good faith and consistency in the conduct of the paper, or at least for a clew to its course, as they have looked in vain since.

—The play of "Adrienne Lecouvreur" has not, we believe, been put on the boards in New York for a long time; and its resurrection for the purpose of enabling the Polish actress Modjeska (or, to give her her full title, the Countess Bozenta Modjeska) to appear in the principal part, may be called one of the dramatic events of the winter. We confess that we did not observe how the "emotional play" brought out at the Fifth Avenue Theatre differed from Scribe's drama, though it is called an "adaptation." Certainly the leading features of the original were preserved. The range of emotions depicted in it is very great; in fact, it would be hard to conceive a play better adapted to bring out the strong points of a great actress in a pleasing way. There is the opening love-affair with the unknown soldier; there is the jealousy to which his supposed interest in another gives rise; there is the well-founded hatred of a scheming rival; there is the confiding loyalty to her lover which leads her to save her rival from ignominious exposure; there is the whole range of feelings which arises from the discovery that the stranger who has made love to her is no other than the greatest soldier of his age, and a "claimant" to a throne; there is the black despair and wretchedness which arises from a conviction of his faithlessness; and, finally, there is the supreme moment when his unchanged fidelity is made clear, and she dies in his arms. Beneath all the tragic events of the drama there is a very pure, simple character which they bring out in strong relief, but never alter, and which triumphs in its own martyrdom. The acting of the Countess Modjeska is very good and interesting. She is certainly not a Rachel, but she is a good actress; she has a thorough conception of her part, a considerable *vis tragica*, and a pleasing manner. Although she is essentially feminine, it is curious to notice that she is equally strong in those denunciatory parts of her dialogue which are almost masculine, and in the softer passages in which an almost infantine playfulness is required, as, for instance, in her balcony scene from "Romeo and Juliet," in which her *Juliet* was a real child just becoming a woman, and not, as we have so frequently seen her, a middle-aged matron. Her delivery and enunciation are wonderfully good considering that she plays in a foreign language; much better, for instance, than Fechter, who has been deservedly commended for the success of his struggle with the difficulties of English—though, of course, the pronunciation of a foreign woman, and especially a pretty foreign woman, never offends the ear as does that of a man. There is something in the gentle efforts of the weaker sex to subdue the rugged ferocity of English pronunciation that appeals to our more generous emotions, and elicits a sympathy which it is difficult to see any reason for in the case of a man, who, one cannot forget, has no excuse for doing anything unless he can do it better than, or at least as well as, somebody else.

—The play was well put on the stage at the Fifth Avenue, but there is something clearly hopeless in the attempt to get any New York stock company to take the parts of ladies and gentlemen in a French comedy of intrigue such as Scribe's. The characters—the duped husband; the wicked but refined and well-bred wife; the gay Lothario, the admiration of the women and the envy of the men; the devoted, assiduous, and immoral *abbé*—are all types that are foreign to modern American experience, and the lack of experience nothing can supply but such a liberal education as actors and actresses with us do not get. The material for such acting undoubtedly exists with us, as in other countries, though we should never expect foreign comic types and particularly types of a past age to be much more than imitations. But with us they are not even this. The actors at the Fifth Avenue do not understand the elements of French pronunciation, and we have no hesitation in saying that, taken altogether, Modjeska's whole English part had fewer glaring faults than the rest of the company managed to crowd into the dozen French words they had to say. It is really unpardonable that actors on any civilized stage should be permitted to pronounce *Adrienne* as if it rhymed with Mary Anne, or Lecouvreur, *La-cover-aire*. In fact, the "speculator" at the door, of whom we bought our ticket, and who informed us that the play going on inside was "Addereeny," seemed only a shade less educated than several of the leading *dramatis personæ*. And yet the company is a very good one, too, as companies go; Mr. Le Moyne, for instance, is inimitable in farce-acting, and performs his part very creditably in English comedies; why he should be cast for the *Prince de Bouillon*, it is difficult to conceive.

—A very remarkable anticipation by Leibnitz is brought to light by Professor Bowen in his 'Modern Philosophy' (recently published by Scribner, Armstrong & Co., and reviewed in these columns). In tracing the consequences of the "Law of Continuity," Leibnitz, as quoted by Professor Bowen, remarks that "not only I should not be astonished to learn of the discovery of animated beings which, in many of their properties—for example, those of nutrition and propagation—might pass for vegetables just as well as for animals, but I am even convinced that there must be such, and that natural history will, at some future day, point them out to us." "A bolder prophecy," adds Professor Bowen, "or one more exactly verified, after the lapse of more than a century, it would be difficult to find in all the annals of science."

—The derangement of industrial and social relations in South Carolina caused by secession and emancipation was considerably mitigated by the development of the great phosphate interest; and now, as if to mark the return to a healthier political condition, the planting and manufacture of jute begin to assume importance. It has been found that the home of the Sea-Island cotton is also fitted for the profitable culture of jute, and the Charleston Bagging Manufacturing Company has begun to open subscriptions with a view to starting a mill that will employ sixty hands, of whom only eight will be men. The experiments made with the plant in the neighboring States of Georgia and Florida, as well as in Louisiana and Texas, all point to the ultimate success of this new industry, already more extended than those who have given no attention to the subject might suppose. The report of the Commissioner of Agriculture for 1876 contains an elaborate paper on jute, by Prof. S. Waterhouse, of Washington (St. Louis) University, who has studied its cultivation in India; and as the earliest plantings in the United States take place in April, there is time for all who wish to inform themselves to do so. Some of the stalks grown in the States named reached the height of fifteen feet; the yield was in several cases at the rate of 3,500 pounds to the acre; and the fibre in some instances was judged superior to the Indian. The seed, too, has been improved, and is one-sixth heavier than

that of India. Many branches of manufacture which now use jute either sparingly or not at all would be stimulated to use it freely, not only for bagging and baling, but for paper and all sorts of textile fabrics from carpets down, as the example of Dundee has so well taught us. A product which has become the fourth staple in the exports of India, yielding precedence only to cotton, opium, and rice, may easily take a commensurate rank with us. We appear to have in abundance the hot and moist climate and good soil which it affects, and we certainly have the ingenuity to compete by machinery with the crude and cheap labor of India or the skilled labor of Scotland. We wish success to the Charleston enterprise.

RUMFORD.*

NO more worthy tribute can be paid to an intellectually great man, and no more appropriate memorial of his life can be preserved, than a complete and elegant edition of his works. Such a recognition the French Government bestowed both on La Place and on Lavoisier, and in publishing the five large octavo volumes before us the American Academy of Arts and Sciences were actuated by a similar motive towards Benjamin Thompson, Count of Rumford, one of the greatest of the scientific contemporaries of those eminent French philosophers. They felt, moreover, that they had a duty to discharge in this respect as almoners of a considerable fund which they owed to Count Rumford's bounty and love for physical science. Memorial volumes like these preserve more effectively than any other monument could the record of devoted labor and noble achievement, but their great value lies in the circumstance that they add finish to the completed work of a great man's life, and exhibit both its unity and its relations to the intellectual progress of the age; for the work of no great thinker can be duly appreciated until it is seen in the perspective which time alone gives. This was peculiarly true of the chief contribution which Count Rumford made to the knowledge of the world. We now know not only that his experiments were the first of that memorable series of investigations which have resulted in the modern mechanical theory of heat, but also that he distinctly stated this theory and proved that it was legitimate. In his memorable paper entitled "An Enquiry concerning the Source of the Heat which is Excited by Friction," read before the Royal Society of London, January 25, 1798, and printed at the close of vol. i. of the Academy's edition of Rumford's works, after a perspicuous description of his crucial experiments in connection with the boring of cannon, he adds these pregnant sentences:

"And in reasoning on this subject we must not forget to consider that most remarkable circumstance, that the source of the heat generated by friction in these experiments appeared evidently to be inexhaustible.

"It is hardly necessary to add that anything which any *insulated* body, or system of bodies, can continue to furnish *without limitation*, cannot possibly be *a material substance*, and it appears to me to be extremely difficult, if not quite impossible, to form any distinct idea of anything capable of being excited and communicated in the manner the heat was excited and communicated in these experiments, except it be MOTION."

In a subsequent paper, entitled "An Enquiry concerning the Nature of Heat and the Mode of its Communication," read before the Royal Society February 2, 1804, and printed at the beginning of vol. ii. of the Academy's edition of 'Rumford's Works,' this theory is still further developed, and on pages 104 and 105 of this volume the reader will find almost as clear an exposition, and as brilliant an illustration, of the nature of that molecular motion which, as we now believe, constitutes heat, as that which a few years since so delighted the public in Professor Tyndall's admirable lectures on "Heat as a Mode of Motion." But although the theory was not only clearly stated and brilliantly illustrated by Count Rumford, but also substantiated by numerous careful and conclusive experiments, yet the importance of the facts thus elicited was not appreciated by Count Rumford's contemporaries; and his theory remained unfruitful for half a century, and did not meet with popular recognition, or even receive much scientific support, until the publication of Professor Tyndall's book above referred to. It is true that as a "mere speculation the hypothesis, that heat is a mode of motion," was, as Rumford himself says, "of ancient date" (loc. cit. ii. 105); but no one who carefully reads the papers on heat in these volumes can question that it was the experiments of Count Rumford which first elevated this before barren speculation to the position of a well-grounded and, therefore, fruitful scientific theory.

Although the mechanical theory of heat is undoubtedly Count Rumford's greatest contribution to physical science, yet it is only one of a long series of discoveries and observations in optics as well as thermotics, many of which alone might have made the reputation of a modern scientific investigator. With our recent methods and appliances we have, of course, been able very greatly to extend his observations, and obtain far more precise experimental data; but these later investigations have only served to confirm the general accuracy of Count Rumford's work, while they have made evident the sagacity of his theoretical conclusions. Most, however, of Rumford's important results have been so long a part of the popular knowledge, and pass so current in the elementary text-books, that the original benefactor has been forgotten, and it is probable that but few of the present generation of physicists, whose attention has not been directly called to the subject, appreciate how much their science owes to the investigations of this remarkable man. If these volumes of the American Academy serve to render more conspicuous the broad foundations which he laid, the chief purpose of their publication will have been fully served.

But Count Rumford was more than a man of science. He was a great philanthropist, but a philanthropist whose zeal was tempered with the wisest discretion. His management of the poor in Munich during his first residence there between 1784 and 1795, when he nearly freed the city from the extreme pauperism with which it had been previously cursed, is certainly one of the most successful philanthropic efforts that the world has known. His interest in the poor led him to investigate with his usual ingenuity questions bearing on the economy of fuel, food, and clothing, and to bestow a wealth of invention on "Fire-places and Kitchen Utensils," which at the present time seems scarcely worthy of his genius. A considerable portion of his published works relate to these subjects, and the modern scientific reader will sometimes smile at the minute details with which he describes his grates, boilers, stewpans, and roasters, or at his recipes for making soups, puddings, and coffee. But all this becomes dignified by his philanthropic motive, and will appear to have been necessary to the accomplishment of his beneficent purposes, when we consider how much ignorance he had to instruct and how much routine to oppose. Moreover, throughout all this portion of his writings there glows a human sympathy which honors Rumford as a man more than the greatest of his scientific achievements. In the Academy's edition of Rumford's works, the philanthropic essays—many of which were obviously designed to serve a temporary purpose of instruction and conviction—stand side by side with the records of absolute additions to the knowledge of the world, and some persons may think that it would have been more conducive to Count Rumford's scientific reputation had the Academy limited their publication to papers of the last class. But such a publication would not have been a truthful memorial of the great man whom the Academy aimed to honor, and we believe that they adopted the only proper course in making their edition of his works *complete*. The Rumford Committee of the Academy, with whom the first suggestion of the publication originated, and who were entrusted with the undertaking, spared no pains to make the edition complete in every detail, hoping that it would be accepted by scholars as a worthy memorial of the great services which Count Rumford rendered to mankind in philanthropy as well as in science.

The incidents of Count Rumford's life, from its early beginnings, when, at the age of thirteen, he was apprenticed as Benjamin Thompson in a retail "variety store" at Salem, through its culmination, when, as a count of the Holy Roman Empire, he was at the head of the electoral army of Bavaria, and until its melancholy end at Paris, are so varied, so wonderful, and so wholly different from the usual tenor of the life of a man of science, that, as graphically presented by the Rev. Geo. E. Ellis, they have all the interest of a romance. Dr. Ellis does not attempt, however, to give the full details of the count's scientific labors, nor does he discuss their bearing on the contemporary and subsequent history of physical science. This was indeed not his object, nor could it have been the distinct object of the Academy in selecting a distinguished literary man rather than a scientific scholar to prepare the biography. The great local interest in Count Rumford's public career, and the desire to show its connection with his early New England home, were undoubtedly the motives which led Dr. Ellis to prepare and the Academy to publish this highly interesting account of Count Rumford's political, social, and family life. From what has been said it is quite evident, however, that this plan of a biography could not be wholly in harmony with the first design of the

* 'The Complete Works of Count Rumford.' Published by the American Academy of Arts and Sciences in four vols. 8vo. Boston: Estes & Lauriat.
'Memoir of Sir Benjamin Thompson, Count Rumford By George E. Ellis.' Boston: Estes & Lauriat.

Rumford Committee, and we should greatly regret if Dr. Ellis's book, excellent as it is within its sphere, should prevent the Rumford Committee from carrying out their original purpose of preparing a full history of Rumford's scientific investigations. Since the publication of the Academy's edition of Rumford's works the deficiency we have noticed has been in part supplied by the valuable and learned pamphlet of Dr. Gerhard Berthold, entitled, "Rumford und die mechanische Wärmetheorie." But Dr. Berthold's monograph is not accessible to many American or English readers. Moreover it has a partial object, leaving much to be done, and we cannot consider the Academy's work completed, nor its purpose adequately fulfilled, until the contemplated memoir of Rumford's purely scientific career has been added to these elegant volumes.

M. DOUDAN'S NEW VOLUMES.*

THE second instalment of M. Doudan's letters proves as substantial as the first. M. Doudan was a copious as well as excellent letter-writer, and the success of the enterprise undertaken by M. d'Haussonville has been such as to make his correspondents yield up the remainder of their treasures. The letters here offered us do not belong to a new period of the author's life: they coincide in date with those already published (the first are of the year 1832); they are the result, in part, it may be supposed, of a second sifting, a second picking over of the basket, as we may say, and in part of the accession of fresh material. The first volumes contained perhaps the best things; but the difference is not very great, and people who, like ourselves, took a fancy to M. Doudan, will find these very well worth reading. The effect of them is not to present us with a new or in any degree modified portrait of the author, but to pass the pencil over the old outline and make it a trifle more definite. Here, as in the former publication, his delicacy, discrimination, discretion are the striking and charming features. A quiet scholar who was at the same time in a very sufficient degree a man of the world, and whose life was passed in the best society, who preferred observation to action, and with whom observation always implied conversation—conversation of the most expansive and reciprocal kind—such is the figure that detaches itself from these pages. His letters are simply his conversation, pen in hand, and they have all the alertness and lightness of his talk, as we may be sure that his talk had much of the neatness and natural smoothness of his letters. These, we must add, are not only the portrait of a single mind; they are also, in a sense, the portrait of a society. In this respect the picture, just as it stands, is certainly a very pleasing one. We may say that it is not complete, but what there is of it is extremely flattering. It represents a group of people whose life appears to be primarily the liberal play of their intelligence or their curiosity and interest in regard to all the events and productions of their time and of other times, and their desire to arrive at just and comprehensive opinions about them. These people, it will be remembered, were, more immediately, the family of the Duc de Broglie, the father of the recent highly conservative adviser of the President of the French Republic. The present Duc de Broglie was an intimate friend of M. Doudan, though it is to be observed that very few of the letters in the volumes before us are addressed to him; M. Doudan had been, in a measure, his preceptor, his guide, and philosopher.

It is impossible for the reader of these pages not to reflect that the blindly repressive policy which lately characterized the Ministry of which the Duc de Broglie was the most eminent member is not a very satisfactory offshoot of the teachings of M. Doudan. People who think M. Doudan has been somewhat overrated—and there are of course such people—have only to point to the exploits of his "favorite pupil." We ourselves, however, should not accept this as a refutation of our claims; for we should hesitate to assert that, if he had lived to the present hour, M. Doudan would not have sided with the policy of the recent Government. We are, on the contrary, very glad to mark in this manner our sense of his limitations. He was an intense conservative; the reader feels that on every page. Temperance and moderation were indeed his divinities, and he would certainly not have found them in the camp of MM. Fourtou and De Broglie. But it is plain that, as time went on, he became more and more an alarmist; he had a certain fund of liberalism, but he had emptied the cup. One of the few places in these letters in which he speaks with anger and acrimony is that in which he resents the right of the English newspapers to suggest that the justice of the Versailles Government towards the persons accused of complicity with the Commune be tempered with mercy. (It is very true that in another place he expressly advocates moderation.) His intelligence, his taste and wisdom, his lightness and alertness of imagination, are all most beautiful; but we confess that with much that is constantly first-rate, and worthy of all admiration, in his judgments and perceptions, he is always liable to give us a glimpse of the chain—a golden chain, if you will—that binds him to the old classical, conventional, and partial standpoint. He remains, in politics and morals as well as in literature, the man who can see no merit whatever in the poetry of Victor Hugo, but who is charmed with the lucubrations (he always kept an eye on the new English books) of the 'Country Parson.'

But we feel like apologizing for dealing with M. Doudan otherwise than by simply quoting him. His letters are a running commentary upon all the important things that happen around him—of the small things he speaks little—and we have only to choose the subject that we may desire his opinion of. What he says is always suggestive, especially because he has found the point he starts from itself suggestive. He always enlarges the topic, always passes toward some general reflection, some higher point of view. We only regret our want of space. M. Doudan's great passion—his only passion—was for literature; he was a *reader*, to his finger-tips. Perhaps the best things he says are the things suggested by books, which are his usual topic. "There are people who in their whole life," he says, "have never read four pages in a year, and who tell you with assurance that reviews are a very superficial sort of reading." M. Doudan read a great many reviews, as well as other things, and he was not superficial. Apropos of Mrs. Gaskell's novel of 'Cranford' (he was very fond of English novels) he launches into a dissertation upon the drawbacks of the theological habit of mind—upon its making us lose sight of the *vrai fond* of human nature. His remarks are excellent, but he ends with apologizing for them, and wonders what they have to do with 'Cranford.' But "j'ai la fureur," he says, "des idées générales." He says elsewhere that he had known an English military surgeon who had been surgeon of the Duke of Wellington, and who had carried about with him in all his campaigns a library of two hundred volumes. "There is a man by whom one would like to be looked after in an illness, and by whom one would gladly have a leg amputated." Some of his best literary judgments are in the later letters. "As for M. Victor Cousin, they say that in all this he admires the genius of our Emperor. . . . He bows down before the greatest politician of our time; so he expressed himself the other day. . . . At the end of his life his mind will be very weary of all these gambols through the finite and the infinite. Socrates will have something to say to him in the other world upon the duties of the profession of a philosopher." Here is something very good apropos of Madame Sand:

"Her misfortune at present is to pursue ideas. This rage for having ideas has been the ruin of many writers who had talent and a happy imagination. She deforms her people in order to squeeze them into the lines of her systems. There would not be so many living beings in Shakspere if he had done this way. Nature, having larger views than the mind of man, makes people who are not simply a republican, a royalist, an officer, and a priest. Man has, in all senses, a something superfluous which corresponds probably to plans wider than our conceptions. It is for that reason, indeed, that people who have too much the stamp of their profession seem rather like fools."

In the former volumes there were two or three allusions to M. Renan of a rather irreverent sort, and here the tone of reference to the author of the 'Life of Jesus' is always ironical. "I have never seen in a theologian so great an acquaintance with the Oriental flora. He is a very much better landscapist than St. Augustine and Bossuet. He sows geraniums, anemones, and buttercups to reap incredulity." There is an excellent and very appreciative judgment upon Sainte-Beuve, which is too long to quote, in which M. Doudan speaks of his combining "the industry of a Benedictine with the penetrating imagination of a nervous woman." Here are two lines which are a very good example of the quiet penetration of the author's literary instinct. The allusion is again to Madame Sand: "Read the 'Comtesse de Rudolstadt,' in order to see how it does not resemble Bohemia. But, to say so in passing, I hold that if, in portrayal, exactness is a great virtue, we must yet not be too severe upon writers whose reveries produce fine pictures of distant countries of which they only know the general features." This remark, which is deeper than it appears, would seem to have come from a man who had himself tried imaginative writing. But M. Doudan had a great deal of imagination. Here, too, is a declaration which comes apparently from a man who has the "inside view": "I believe that the men who write are the men who profit by odd moments. One has never one's time before one as a housewife has a long piece of

* 'Mélanges et Lettres de X. Doudan. Avec une Introduction par M. le Comte d'Haussonville, etc.' Tomes iii. and iv. Paris: Calmann Lévy; New York: F. W. Christern. 1877.

cloth. Life only gives us little squares of stuff; but of these little squares industrious people make great counterpanes which hold very well together."

There is almost always with M. Doudan a strain of melancholy and latent depression, and in the later letters this is especially noticeable. He is at times irritable and invidious; he takes a dark view of the future of France. It must be remembered that he was always an invalid, a valetudinarian. "If you believe I have no more fears," he writes in 1843, "you are in a very great error. I should like very much to see those people who tell me in a great, strong voice that I am perfectly well—I should like to see them obliged to handle this little network of spider-webs that is my own person." Like M. de Broglie to-day, M. Doudan was (already in 1850) haunted by the prospective "demagogy:" "Since it has been discovered that Trouville is a solitary place, the whole nation has thrown itself upon this unhappy spot. Excursion trains vomit forth the scum of the capital and its suburbs. . . . They represent pretty well what France will be when the demagogic level shall have radically flattened it down." We are sorry to say that, in 1866, M. Doudan sympathized so far with what he himself admits to be the national "Chauvinism" as to think that the French were very great fools for allowing Germany to resolve herself into a nation. He was not for war, he says, at that moment, but for war eventually, as an anticipatory and preventive measure. M. Doudan, dying in 1872, lived through the siege of Paris and the Commune, and the letters of this period are of course full of sadness. He had always, apparently, had a friendly and familiar feeling toward England; he was versed in English literature. (His great sympathy, it must be said, however, was for Italy; his pages are full of charming passages about Italy.) But at the last he rarely alludes to England without bitterness. We have mentioned his indignation at the plea for moderation after the suppression of the Commune, dictated by her "pedantry of apparent liberalism." "What life are you leading in London?" he asks of a friend. "Do you go much into the *beau monde*? A poor Frenchman must have a first moment of embarrassment when he goes into a drawing-room full of people to whom no such things as these have happened since the invasion of the Danes. And even then!"

The last of these volumes terminates with the promised essay on the 'Revolutions of Taste,' the little dissertation which was circulated among M. Doudan's friends, but which he never consented to publish. It will, perhaps, now be found a little disappointing. It contains much ingenuity and many happy judgments; but in form, at least, it illustrates rather the rigid and conventional side of the author's own taste, and in felicity of expression it is very inferior to the letters.

RECENT NOVELS.*

IT would be hard to find a writer who covers more paper than Mrs. Oliphant does. We have now before us two novels of hers which have appeared within a few weeks of one another, and there is yet a third, 'Young Musgrave,' which is completed in *Macmillan's Magazine* and will very soon be published. Meanwhile she is busy with other literary work, editing the series of 'Foreign Classics for English Readers,' and preparing two of the volumes herself. Her stories bear here and there marks of haste in the occasional repetition of a sentence that has already done duty a few chapters back, but, in general, one sees only the ease which comes from the long practice of authorship. There is a family likeness between all her novels, but it is of the most agreeable sort; such are the constant kindliness, humor, and sympathetic observation with which they are all written. Then, too, there is a gentle, unobtrusive poetical vein, not merely that which is revealed by her charming drawing of young girls, for instance, but one that is more charily displayed in the romantic scenes and in little incidental touches which those who read her stories cannot fail to recall.

The first of the two novels just mentioned, in the order of publication, is 'Mrs. Arthur,' which tells of a young Englishman of good family, the only son of a baronet, who falls in love with the handsome, but vulgar and ignorant, daughter of a tax-collector in one of the suburbs of London. His family oppose the match as best they can; his most intimate friend remonstrates with him with the usual success, and the bad-tempered Nancy very soon attains the position she had so longed for. The husband, Arthur Curtis, finds the awakening from his dreams anything but pleasant. His wife shocks him by her taste in dress; he takes her to Paris, but the pictures, the theatres have no charm for her, and she sighs for her congenial home. They return to England and hire a villa near the paternal tax-collector, and lead an utterly miserable life together, until, in an access of unusually violent rage, she runs away from her husband and returns to her family. Arthur leaves the country to take a diplomatic position at Vienna, but in time Nancy sees her follies and devotes her energies to self-improvement. Gradually, by some unexplained process, she becomes like other people; she manages to charm Arthur's father and mother before they know who she is, and the book finally ends well. Nothing could be better than the description of the poor young fellow's infatuation and his impatience of opposition. But nothing could be saintlier than his behavior after his marriage, when his wife gave frequent exhibition of her ungovernable temper. Mrs. Oliphant draws the unhappiness of the poor hero with a clever pen, and too much cannot be said in praise of her description of Nancy's family. Alongside of the main love-story runs an account of the love the remonstrating friend bears for Arthur's sister, which is a very different piece of business from the romance of Arthur's life. It is in just such subjects of social complications in English life that Mrs. Oliphant is at her best. The mantle that Miss Austen first wore and Mrs. Gaskell inherited now covers her shoulders; but it is made over anew to suit the present fashion, and it is a most useful as well as becoming garment.

'Carità' is another excellent story, so simple and in good measure uneventful that the plot of it hardly needs to be mentioned. To be sure, at the beginning of the book there is brought in a woman who, to avoid the slow torture of inevitably painful death, takes poison—an episode which stands in the slightest relation to the rest of the story, and is needlessly painful at the best. But apart from this everything moves as smoothly as only Mrs. Oliphant's skill can direct the course of novels. The episode of the young girl who is impatient with the sordidness of her home and goes to the house of the sisterhood to teach, is very well narrated, though, to be sure, with plenty of satire that must seem frivolous to those who belong to the highest section of the High Church of England.

It is a violent change from Mrs. Oliphant's refinement and delicacy to the cheap wit and coarse vulgarity of one of the last of those productions which aim at ridiculing the different members of the family. 'My Mother-in-Law' is, on the whole, the poorest of the lot. The only amusing thing about it is the fact that it has had a large sale, for which it must be indebted solely to the title. Even 'That Husband of Mine' shines like a classic in comparison with this dull description of the conflict between the somewhat unpleasant mother-in-law and the ill-bred young man who was the object of her special dislike. The emptiness of the book is its most prominent trait, and its success is a melancholy commentary on the public taste.

'The New Schoolma'am' may be called less poor; indeed, there is some real humor in it. It is the slightest of sketches, describing the adventures of a rich young girl who becomes tired of fashionable life in the city and takes the place of schoolmistress in a village among the mountains. She meets the gifted and penniless artist and they marry. The author's little hits at the country people and at the city people who spend the summer in the country are amusing.

Mrs. Annie Edwards's 'A Blue Stocking' will not add much to her fame. The scene is laid in the Island of Jersey, and there are pretty descriptions of the place, but the people who do and act and suffer in these pages have little life in comparison with the characters who figure in some of her best-known novels. The tale, too, is so short that it seems as if pressed into service from a magazine. The Blue Stocking who is described is an over-educated girl who had engaged herself, some years before the opening of the story, to a man who falls in love with one of Mrs. Edwards's fascinating heroines. The Blue Stocking, also, has a weakness for a cousin of hers, so that, after a few pages of double-barrelled love-making, affairs right themselves, and the story ends.

'Phyllis' bears more resemblance to the conventional novel, and especially to that form of it with which Miss Rhoda Broughton has enlivened the world. The heroine gives us her autobiography, and certainly the whole account of her rowdyish girlhood is amusing enough. There is a similar hoydenish good-nature in Phyllis's account of her married life (she marries a rich neighbor, who was supposed to have been trying to win the older sister), but while the husband is a capital fellow, Phyllis

* 'Mrs. Arthur: A Novel. By Mrs. Oliphant, author of 'Chronicles of Carlingford,' 'Squire Arden,' etc.' New York: Harper & Brothers. 1877.

'Carità: A Novel. By Mrs. Oliphant. With Illustrations.' New York: Harper & Brothers. 1877.

'My Mother-in-Law.' Boston: Lockwood, Brooks & Co. 1877.

'The New Schoolma'am; or, A Summer in North Sparta.' Boston: Loring. 1877.

'A Blue Stocking. By Mrs. Annie Edwards, author of 'Ought We to Visit Her?' 'Archie Lovell,' etc., etc.' New York: Sheldon & Co. 1877.

'Phyllis: A Novel. By the Duchess.' Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott & Co. 1877.

herself leads him a hard life. There is a tolerably disagreeable account of the sayings and doings of a rather fast set of people, and an attempt, which falls through, to give an account of a desperate flirtation. A melodramatic first wife is introduced, who puts a stop to a good deal of foolishness, and finally, by her timely death, gives the husband and wife an opportunity to meet once more, much improved by their enforced separation.

Readers of 'Mr. Smith,' which appeared a few years ago, will have their pleasant impression of its author only strengthened by another novel, 'Pauline,' from the same pen. With the exception of the heroine, who is so charming that the reader feels sure she is predestined to misery, the characters are, to speak plainly, commonplace, but not so the mode in which they are delineated. The construction of the story, again, is not remarkable. The incidents do not move out of the familiar track. The mysterious young man helps the charming heroine, who has lost her way; a fortune is also lost, and the heroine has to live with her relations; but although such things have been heard of before, it is not often that the reader comes across such intelligent satire of vulgar people, and such sympathetic drawing of a fine character, as can be found in this book.

Another good novel is Madame Linda Villari's 'In Change Unchanged.' It certainly lacks the touch of superiority that distinguishes 'Pauline,' yet it shows considerable knowledge of the world, and plenty of clear-sighted study of human beings as they appear in their social relations. The scene of the story is laid in England, India, Italy, and Tyrol, while Italy, and especially Florence, supply the greatest amount of local color. That the art of it rises anywhere much above the careful rendering of local color can hardly be affirmed. The love-stories, it is true, have a certain newness, yet their beginning and end can be sniffed afar off by even an unpractised reader; the characters bear a close resemblance to the stock company of the modern novel; and the Florentine painter, Porta, is as artificial a creature as one of his own dummies. While the men are all rather poor, the women bear testimony to the author's cleverness, especially Mrs. Trevelyan, who is the evil spirit of the plot.

No one can deny that Mrs. Burnett's 'Surly Tim, and Other Stories' is impressive and calculated to move even the most indifferent reader's feelings, although one may not approve all the means by which the author's success has been accomplished. The stories are eight in number, and we are racked by the account of no less than six deaths and one attempted suicide; and it may perhaps be said that if this cold enumeration seems to ignore the excellent skill of the writer, it is yet justified by the conventionality of some of the touching incidents. The author has aimed at being pathetic, and she has almost invariably hit the bull's-eye. Gradually the reader acquires a ghoul-like instinct that makes him expectant of tragedy, so that by the time he comes to the last story he is sure that "Seth" is more than usually mortal, and might possibly escape being killed in the mine, but only to die of some painful disease upon the surface of the earth. This effect, however, is cumulative in the collection, and could not have been so marked when the tales first appeared in a magazine, sandwiched between directions about house-furnishing and poems on Spring, and they should be judged separately, so far as possible, although thus put together they throw more light, even if it be lurid, upon Mrs. Burnett's method of writing. Taking 'Surly Tim' apart from the other stories, the invention is of a very moderate kind, and the end of the hero, whose apparent surliness was in reality justifiable grief, is almost the usual anti-climax of the touching sketch. The pathos would have been simpler and truer if the poor man had been left to die in peace; but no, another turn is given to the thumb-screws, and we hear him whisper: "Th' eend! ay, this is th' eend, dear lass, an' the path's aw shinin' or summat and— Why, lass, I can see thee plain, an' th' little chap too!" There are other sketches in this little volume that show Dickens's influence.

This volume, by the way, Mrs. Burnett tells us in the preface, is the only one of the many published since the success of 'That Lass o' Lowrie's' that appears with her approval. One of them, however, 'Dolly,' will not injure her reputation, if the reader will only remember that the author had no opportunity to make the few excisions that good taste would require, and that hence there are more allusions to "Vagabondia" than are commendable. The story is not exceptionally good, but it has what Doudan calls "the lowest of literary pleasures, interest," and this to a very considerable degree. The heroine is an attractive young girl who is a capital combination of coquetry and kindness; the troubles which beset her and her brothers and sisters are calculated to wring the heart, not excessively, but in discreet moderation, while a good ending closes the book. It is easy to see that, apart from her regret at the few superfluous passages mentioned above, the author may feel as if this story were more trivial work than the discussion of a "problem" like 'That Lass o' Lowrie's.' But many readers will feel that the greater naturalness of 'Dolly' fairly outweighs the excellent aim but somewhat stilted execution of the more renowned novel. That Mrs. Burnett should not be contented with writing merely to be entertaining, as in 'Dolly,' is much to her credit, but it is to be hoped she will not throw overboard life and good spirits from a desire to do serious work. Already 'Dolly' shows considerable originality, in the fact that the heroine, who is a coquette, is also warm-hearted and faithful to her lover; this is much more interesting than the ordinary superficial statement of the case, which makes such heroines throw over a poor young man to take up with a richer one, and there can be but little doubt that Mrs. Burnett is here on surer ground than when she is writing about impossible girls who are mysteriously turned into paragons.

'Lil' is the conventional society novel which may be read once, but has nothing more than moderate liveliness to commend it. The plot is a familiar one, and the people every one has met with frequently—in novels, that is. There is, however, a certain gracefulness in it.

'Tangled' is an American production, of so light a build that it seems like a somewhat unduly enlarged magazine-story. It is agreeably amusing, not by means of the noisy horse-play which has made the fame of some national humorists, but from the very absence of it. The sketch, too, has been carefully written, and well deserves the half-hour's attention that would suffice for reading it through.

Mrs. Prentiss has written such charming books for children and young girls that there is no unkindness in wishing that she would confine herself to these, instead of attempting what is really a novel, and further undertaking to place its characters and scenes in a remote period of time. The slight coloring of antiquity fades away early in the story, and the personages might be said to act and talk in modern fashion if people ever did talk and write as these persons are supposed to do. What mortal child of thirteen ever wrote: "I used often to wish that I had a little sister. That was very wrong I had no business to want things God did not think it best for me to have!" And what indispensable villain ever kept such a journal as that in which Mrs. Woodford writes herself down as much fool as knave!

The story is told in a very irritating way by the journals of three persons, interspersed with bits of light comedy by Keziah, a Yankee servant (who if less overdrawn would be very amusing), and consists of the doings of two or three families in a New-England village. A fascinating adventuress, with a small daughter, succeeds in marrying "the Squire," Mr. Woodford, who is the best and devoutest of men. She quarrels with his old servant, drives his son out of the house, hoards money secretly, and looks on complacently while her daughter feloniously appropriates the lover of the Squire's daughter. The performances of this lover, Frank Weston, remind one of the old doggerel, with a change of pronouns—

> "At first, he thought he'd have her;
> Then, he didn't think he could;
> And then he changed his mind again,
> And, on the whole, he would."

He, however, winds up his career as an admirable clergyman; and the fact that first one baby and then another is left to the care of the heroine brings about the usual happy conclusion. Babies are favorite and very influential characters with Mrs. Prentiss. It is hard to say such things of the author of the delightful 'Susy' books, but we must earnestly invite Mrs. Prentiss to do what she does so well, and refrain from books like 'Pemaquid.'

If one were obliged to characterize 'Rebecca'; or, A Woman's Secret' in a word it would be—*unwholesome*. It is full of a windy rhetoric which flaps round the heights of debatable questions, but clears up nothing. The writer is not so much without ability as without that degree of mental training which is a prerequisite to saying any worthy word on such mat-

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'Pauline. By L. B. Walford, author of 'Mr. Smith.' Leisure Hour Series.' New York: Henry Holt & Co. 1877.

'In Change Unchanged. By Linda Villari. Leisure Hour Series.' New York: Henry Holt & Co. 1877.

'Surly Tim, and Other Stories. By Frances Hodgson Burnett.' New York: Scribner, Armstrong & Co. 1877.

'Dolly: A Love Story. By Frances Hodgson Burnett. International Series.' Philadelphia: Porter & Coates. 1877.

'Lil, "Fair, Fair, with Golden Hair"; or, Kilcorran. By the Hon. Mrs. Fetherstonehaugh. The Star Series' Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott & Co. 1877.

'Tangled: A Novel. By Rachel Carew.' Chicago: S. C. Griggs & Co. 1877.

'Pemaquid: A Story of Old Times in New England. By Mrs. E. Prentiss.' New York: A. D. F. Randolph & Co. 1877.

'Rebecca; or, A Woman's Secret. By Mrs. C. F. Corbin.' Chicago: Jansen, McClurg & Co. 1877.

ters as she deals with. She has rivalled the Pre-raphaelite painter who created "an improbable woman in an impossible landscape." The book is unfit for the young and unattractive for the old, and leaves the reader desiring more than the traditional ounce of civet.

The characters in 'Lapsed but not Lost' are a family of Christians living in the immediate neighborhood of Carthage, in the reign of the Emperor Decius. They suffer from his persecution with varying constancy: they tell each other stories of former persecutions and martyrdoms; the young ladies have remarkable beauty and the young men remarkable talents, and their conversations deal only with the loftiest topics. No doubt such books are helpful to some people: to hear Tertullian and Cyprian spoken of familiarly gives a fillip to their imagination; they do not require definite outline or accurate coloring to give them a pleasing sense of having made distinguished acquaintances; and perhaps, later in life, the shining haze which fills the mind of young readers drapes and humanizes the figures verified by careful work. But certainly of making books like these there is no end.

'Lapsed but not Lost. By the author of 'The Schönberg Cotta Family.'' New York: Dodd, Mead & Co. 1877.

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Authors.—Titles.	Publishers.—Prices.
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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, JANUARY 31, 1878.

The Week.

THE end of another week finds Congress still absorbed by the "silver question," to the exclusion of almost all other interests and considerations. On Wednesday week Mr. Blaine appeared in the Senate with a compromise bill which deservedly finds favor with neither party. It permits the unlimited coinage of silver dollars of a certain value (undefined in the bill) in exchange for bullion at its current market value, as from time to time determined, plus the cost of coinage; these dollars to be legal tender, by themselves, only to the extent of five dollars, but in conjunction with gold to the extent of one-half of any debt. In contrast with this weak-kneed performance, Mr. Lamar, the next day, honored himself and the South by boldly taking his stand in favor of a gold standard and national honesty. The vote on the Matthews resolution at length took place on Friday. Mr. Conkling's motion to make it a joint (and therefore vetoable) resolution was defeated by 39 to 23; Mr. Edmunds's contradictory amendment, declaring the bonds payable in gold coin and characterizing their payment in depreciated silver as a breach of the public faith, was defeated by 44 to 18, Mr. Blaine declining to vote on account of some historic doubts on these points; Mr. Morrill's amendment, denouncing payment in silver as false economy, was defeated by 41 to 14; Mr. Edmunds's motion for indefinite postponement was defeated by 43 to 22; and finally, by 43 to 22 again (Mr. Blaine this time voting with the minority), the Senate affirmed, in the language of the original resolution, that all the bonds issued for the purpose of funding the national debt are payable, legally and equitably, at the option of the Government, in the dollar of the fathers, both principal and interest. On Monday the House, without debate, and by more than a two-thirds vote, 189 to 79, adopted the same resolution. More unexpected was the action of the House, also on Monday, when called upon by Mr. Baker, of Indiana, to suspend the rules and resolve that subsidies of whatsoever kind, to associations engaged in public or private enterprises, ought not to be granted or renewed by Congress. This resolution was carried by a vote of 175 to 82. On Friday the Judiciary Committee reported that there had been no breach of the privileges of the House in the case of Robert Smalls. On Tuesday, the House passed, not without opposition (167 to 100), the bill permitting the Woodruff expedition to register a foreign-built ship. As we lately pointed out, there is not a shadow of excuse for this special legislation, the real design of which is not to get a cheaper ship but to invest a private speculation with a national sanction. We hope the Senate will ask for light as to Mr. Woodruff and his intentions, and will also notice the warning of a correspondent on another page.

The Matthews resolution, which in terms only attacks the new bonds issued for refunding purposes under the Acts of 1870 and 1875, but of course casts discredit on all Government obligations, is already making itself felt in foreign markets. It was supported by 116 Democrats and 73 Republicans, and opposed by 56 Republicans and 23 Democrats. In other words, neither party could have carried it through as a party question; it has needed a combination, and these combinations are now so readily made that it is increasingly difficult to say what the existing party organizations are kept up for or what they mean. But the great fact remains that the majority of both parties voted for the resolution. It got but little support from the New England or the Middle States, and a great deal from the South and West. On the whole, if the vote be taken as an indication of the fate of the Bland Bill the prospect is rather gloomy; but we still adhere to the belief that if the bill be vetoed, there will be enough desertions to prevent its second passage. If the veto were accompanied by a masterly message, making a clear stand for the national credit, the chance of its defeat would be still greater. To override the veto 195 votes will be necessary, or six more than the Matthews resolution received.

It is noteworthy that during the debate in the Senate the burden of the opposition to the Matthews resolution and the silver movement generally has been borne by Senators Edmunds and Morrill, both from a small agricultural State. Mr. Conkling, representing a great commercial constituency, said nothing or next to nothing. We observe, however, that, as usual, his admirers are again beginning to stir him up and urge him to speak and bring his "great powers to bear," etc. It is probable, however, that he is keeping his great powers for things that interest him more. Mr. Blaine's attempts at legislation, and, indeed, at political suggestion generally, bear a strong resemblance to Mr. Burnand's "Happy Thoughts"—that is, they have a haphazard, jerky, and slightly droll air. "Happy thought—Constitutional amendment to protect schools from the Pope; happy thought—stir up Ben Hill; happy thought—make Evarts go to war with Mexico; happy thought—compromise with silver-men; make half-and-half legal tender for all amounts; trouble over, business revived, country grateful."

That the cry for "salvation by silver" was started by politicians for their own ends, that the movement was fanned by false statements as to the manner in which the silver dollar was dropped from the coinage, and that it is now a delusion which has temporarily deprived of reason a large number of the people of this country, are facts which few, even of the "silver-men" in Congress, will deny. The Bland bill cannot give to any section of the country, or to any class of persons, the relief which is expected from it, and it must bring with it disaster and irreparable injury to the whole country. The time is now too short for us to hope to control votes on the Bland bill by arguments addressed to the people of the West and South. But one course is left to those who would save the country from lasting disgrace and injury, and that is to demand of the men of ability and courage who represent in Congress the people of the South and West that they shall speak and vote boldly against any silver bill that would permit the United States to pay any portion of its debt in debased dollars. There are many men in the Senate of the United States who know that the Bland bill means the demonetization of gold by debasing the coinage. This week they will try honestly to amend the bill. If they fail to amend it, they will be face to face with the question "Shall I vote for it or against it?" The courage of a few men will determine the answer of many. Who will follow Mr. Lamar in boldly telling his constituents that they are mistaken as to the effect of the silver movement upon their interests?

The Silver League, or Greenback and Silver Association, as it is called, held another meeting on Monday, at which it was proposed that money should be raised to pay for documents to be distributed in those parts of the country in which there appeared to be most darkness as to the beneficent powers of silver; but nobody was prompt to offer anything except General Butler, and he only $5C. The discussion, too, was mainly conducted by him, and ran mostly on the best means of keeping the Secretary of the Treasury up to his work and making him carry out the Bland Bill, so "that silver may be a living power in the land." For this purpose Butler hinted that it might be necessary for the House to use its power of making him report to it in person. In fact, the Secretary was evidently an object of suspicion to the meeting, and they mean in case the bill is passed to keep a close eye on him. The one way in which he could work mischief under the bill would be to call in a batch of United States bonds and pay them off in silver. A blow would be thus given to the national credit from which it would probably not recover in a century, if ever.

Several leading citizens of New Haven, including Dr. Woolsey, Mr. English, Dr. Bacon, and others, have petitioned Congress for what may be called the only rational and honest mode of making silver a legal tender, and that is for the appointment of an international commission, having power to determine and promulgate authoritatively, from time to time, the relative value of silver and gold, so that in the payment of debts, at home and abroad, the quantity of coined silver which shall be the equivalent of any given quantity of gold coin may be everywhere definitely acknowledged; and until such a commission shall be appointed, the creation of machinery by Congress for ascertaining and promulgating, at intervals of three months, the value of silver in gold, as determined by the average sales of silver at the principal centres of commerce east and west of the Rocky Mountains. In other words, they ask for one standard and two legal tenders. We know of no objection to this plan on its merits; and we can anticipate no answer to it from the silver-men except "goldites," "gold-bugs," "gold sharps," "Shylocks," "Mississippi Valley," and so on.

The Louisiana Returning Board has again come before the public in a way that reminds one of the good old Grant days. The members were all four indicted for forging and altering returns at the late Presidential election, and recently applied to have their case transferred to the United States Court. This motion the State Court denied, and ordered the case to trial, and at the appointed hour they failed to put in an appearance, and it was found they had taken refuge from arrest in the Custom-house. This was sufficiently amusing, but what followed was more amusing still, for the acting collector and the United States marshal resisted the sheriff when he came to arrest the fugitives, and brought up a party of marines to protect them, and, indeed, the marshal arrested the sheriff. The State was for so many years governed from the Custom-house without any reference to the law of the land that both collector and marshal had evidently come to look on it as a privileged spot on which the writs of the courts did not run. It was not for some little time that they thought of telegraphing to Washington for instructions, and of course the Attorney-General promptly rebuked the Federal officials for their interference. Anderson, Kenner, and Casanave were therefore taken into custody; but Wells managed to make his escape, and is said to be on his way to Washington to claim protection, in default of which he threatens to make "developments." He is the greatest rascal of the four, and it is therefore a pity that he should have got off, but it would be a not inappropriate incident in his career that he should now "develop" in Washington. The whole party are very blue about their prospects, being afraid of a prejudiced jury. There are, however, two colored men on it. It will be a pity if they have any reasonable ground for disputing the justice of the verdict, if they are found guilty; but every lover of good government will be sorry if they get off without punishment. That Anderson should have an office in New Orleans under this Administration is one of the scandals of the day. The trial is now proceeding, and there is talk of summoning W. E. Chandler to prove the story produced in his late letter.

The Richmond Chamber of Commerce, in full accord with its sister bodies at Charleston and New Orleans as to the sacredness of public obligations, whether State or national, has just issued an address upon the public debt of Virginia. They say that the aggressive activity of those who demand its repudiation, and the apathy of the rest of the community, "have impaired private credit to such a degree that the merchants and manufacturers of Richmond, in justice to themselves, are compelled to express their views upon this vital question, and to take such action as in their opinion will tend to check the current of popular sentiment which seems to be hurrying Virginia to moral and material bankruptcy." They show that the debt proper is less than $34,000,000; that it has always been recognized by the Legislature as legitimate, and justly, since the "bonds were sold to *bona-fide* purchasers, many of them at prices above their par value, and the money paid for them was invested in building railroads, canals, turnpikes, colleges, schools, asylums, prisons, and other valuable works of internal improvement" (including the monument to Washington in the Capitol grounds), "from which the State is now deriving incalculable advantage"; that the whole debt is not due nor required to be paid at once; that the interest alone need be provided for, and can be met by an additional tax of about $700,000 annually, or three-fourths of one per cent.; that supporting the public credit now at this small sacrifice will enable the State in 1881 to pay its debt in bonds bearing four per cent. interest at par. They attribute the present demoralization on the subject of the debt to the bad legislation after the war, designed to impair the sanctity of contracts and impede creditors in the courts, and they find in it the cause of dishonest returns to assessors and dishonest assessments, of courts and grand juries winking at notorious evasions, of honest men forced to continue paying the taxes of the dishonest, "of communism, strikes, and the crimes incident thereto." In short, the address is in a high degree sound, earnest, and forcible. It is refreshing, too, to meet with an unblushing appeal to "debt-paying people," that respectable body of citizens throughout the country who have come to be regarded with distrust, while the merits of the "debtor class" have been asserted with so much vigor and persistency that a man who insists upon returning 100 cents for a borrowed dollar, instead of 90, is looked upon less as a fool than as a pernicious knave.

The adoption by the United States Senate of the Matthews resolution had no perceptible effect on the financial markets. Apparently it was reasoned that the vote showed that there was not strength enough to pass the Bland Bill. The vote of the House, however, on Monday, with its more than two-thirds majority, aided by plausible rumors that the President's opposition to the silver scheme was growing weaker, had the effect of shaking confidence in the defeat of remonetization, which had hitherto existed both here and in London. United States bonds in London fell on Tuesday 1 to 1¾ per cent., and the price of gold here advanced from 101¼ to 102¼. That the Bland Bill, if it becomes a law, will defeat the resumption of gold payments by the Treasury is beyond question, since the Resumption Act provides for gold payments only, in the absence of any authorized silver dollar at the time the Act was passed. That it will also make it impossible to maintain resumption in gold and silver should an attempt be made to carry out the Act is equally clear, unless by the first of January, 1879, the price of silver so advances as to make a 412½-grain dollar equivalent in value, or nearly so, to the gold dollar. Silver during the week has been steady in London at 53⅜ to 53⅛*d.* per oz. At the close of the week the gold value of a 412½ grain-silver dollar would have been $0.8933. The Secretary of the Treasury on Monday opened for popular subscriptions the United States 4 per cent. loan. The price at which the bonds are offered is 99¾ gold, the banks and agents which sell them to the public getting them from the Treasury at 99½ gold—the same as did the Syndicate. The day after the bonds were brought out they could be bought at the Stock Exchange at 98¼ gold, taking the accrued interest into account.

The British Ministry is apparently plunged in the greatest embarrassment by the Russian terms of peace, the principal points of which, so far as known, we have discussed in an article elsewhere. They appear, when communicated in substance by Count Shuvaloff, to have taken the Cabinet by surprise, and to have found them in a very nervous condition, as the despatch of the fleet to the Dardanelles on hearing one story, and its sudden recall on hearing another, showed. Accordingly, it has been determined to ask for the supplemental vote for the army and navy, and Sir Stafford Northcote having announced that the Ministry will treat it as a vote of confidence, the Liberals are prepared with an amendment, and the

debate, which is expected to last to the end of the week, is now going on. There is little doubt, however, that the Government will secure a majority—estimated at fifty—and just as little that if defeated and forced to dissolve Parliament, their foreign policy would be condemned by the constituencies. The class of men of whom the Conservative majority in the House is mainly composed are, through social influences and prejudices, mostly Turcophiles, and it is safe to say, if one can judge by the ordinary manifestations of popular feeling, do not on this question represent the country. Mr. Trevelyan, the biographer of Macaulay, in a recent speech described the Turkish sympathizers happily :

"Our army is all for the Turks. Our navy is all for the Turks. Our country-houses are all for the Turks. All loafers of every degree and rank, all that class of men who go about in clubs, or drawing-rooms, or taverns, intent on forming what they are pleased to call public opinion, are one and all for the Turks. The London newspapers are, for the most part, writing on the same side with an alacrity which I have never seen applied to any previous controversy. Epithets of extraordinary bitterness, wholesale accusations of cant, hypocrisy, absence of patriotism, want of common manliness are applied to men whose only crime is that they wish their countrymen to wash their hands of all responsibility for Turkish misrule and Christian misery."

Mr. Foster is to move the Liberal amendment in the House of Commons, and the Marquis of Hartington to close the debate. The amendment simply declares that as it is acknowledged that the conditions of British neutrality have not been infringed by either belligerent, "the House sees no reason for adding to the people's burdens by voting additional supplies." On this motion, pure and simple, the Ministry would probably receive the votes of a good many Liberals who would like to see England prepared for all eventualities; but the vote having been made a question of confidence, the probabilities are that the whole Liberal strength will be thrown solidly against the Ministry, and great exertions are making on both sides to secure a full house for the division. Lord Derby has withdrawn his resignation, on the countermanding of the order to the fleet to enter the Dardanelles, but it is still feared that if the Ministry get a good majority Beaconsfield will take the bit in his teeth and make some hostile demonstration against Russia. Whether the Liberals will be helped or hindered by the deplorable condition of trade it would be hard to say. The ultimate effects of the war would, of course, be bad, but many will like the prospects of the immediate fillip it would give to certain branches. The debate promises to be the most exciting since the Crimean war.

There is undoubtedly still a considerable degree of vagueness about the Russian demands, and they are capable of great expansion in execution, as Sir Stafford Northcote has pointed out. This is doubtless partly due to the fact that the negotiations being carried on in the Russian headquarters are shaped by what is called "the military party," between whom and the civilian diplomatists, headed by Gortchakoff, there is a constant struggle for ascendency. Now, the military party naturally does not want peace just yet, or not before they get to Constantinople. Having got into the way of thrashing the Turks, they like it, and wish to keep at it as long as there are any Turks to thrash. Moreover, as it is quite certain that the conditions of peace will have to be settled or passed upon by a European conference, Russia naturally makes her terms on every point as high as possible, and perhaps as vague as possible, partly to frighten the Turks and partly to allow plenty of room for reduction. The weight of England's remonstrances will doubtless, now that the Turks are out of the way, depend on the probability of her receiving support from Austria. Russia does not care for the fleet, and no army she could send to Turkey would make much impression, especially against the general rising of the Christians, which is impending and might be easily provoked.

If Mr. Sumner's doctrine of neutral hostility were applied to England in the present case the results would be very comic. In the first place, she is liable to the Russians for the prolongation of the war by sympathizing with and encouraging the Turks. Sir William Harcourt says that this prolongation has amounted to the six weeks since the fall of Plevna. The Russians would probably put it down at half the period since the Danube was crossed, that is, about three months, which, supposing the total Russian outlay to be $500,000,000, would make her debt to Russia $250,000,000. After the late civil war here, however, the total destruction of one of the belligerents left her only the other to settle with; but in this case Turkey has survived, and may fairly claim compensation also for the disappointment of reasonable expectations. It is true that she was officially warned at the outset that England would remain neutral; but the language of the Prime Minister and of an important portion of the press since then has fairly warranted her in believing that, if hard pressed, England would come to her aid. So that half the cost of the war, as well as compensation for the loss of provinces with which she is threatened, would seem not more than she has a right to ask, which would bring the expense of the war to England up to about $700,000,000 at a moderate computation, which, added to the Sumner liability in our war, would make a grand total of about $3,000,000,000, incurred without ever firing a shot, by simply looking on and shouting and calling names.

The most one can gather with any approach to certainty from the telegraphic news as to the situation in Turkey is that the Russians are slowly moving down on Adrianople, carrying with them, doubtless, the Turkish plenipotentiaries; but they have apparently no disposition to conclude a formal armistice or to suspend operations while treating. In this, humanly speaking, they are right, for the Turks, who are now so frightened as to be willing to sign anything to save Constantinople, would probably pick up a little courage and perhaps some shreds of military organization if the Russians halted to negotiate. The panic among the Mussulman population of Rumelia continues, and they are flying *en masse* to Constantinople, many of them frantically eager to get over into Asia. The Circassians are adding to the horrors of the scene by plundering all impartially, without regard to race or creed, and bringing their booty into Constantinople, where the Government would like to disarm them, but has not force enough for the purpose. Austria has apparently been a little alarmed by the expansiveness of the reported terms of peace, but Russia is apparently determined to leave nothing undone to satisfy her, and Count Shuvaloff has given the most positive assurances in London that the opening of the Dardanelles is to be treated as a European question, and is to be settled by the Powers. The only point, indeed, on which the victor is reported to be obstinate is the cession of the Rumanian piece of Bessarabia.

In France the broken spirit of the Right has been illustrated in the election of the Duc d'Audriffet-Pasquier as President of the Senate by 172 to 64 votes cast, and there were 61 blank ballots, put in by irreconcilable Legitimists and Bonapartists who hated the duke too much to vote for him, but, having no candidate of their own, had not the courage to vote against him. A decree has been issued stopping all press prosecutions for offences committed between the 16th of May and the 14th of December, and, to crown all, General Ducrot has been removed from his command, as he was suspected of counselling or being ready to participate in a *coup d'état*, and relegated to engineering work—all proofs of the completeness of the Liberal triumph. The latest piece of French news is, however, the most important for us, and that is that the Senate has unanimously passed a bill still further suspending the obligation of the Mint to coin silver—action taken in view of what is impending in this country, and of the well-known readiness of the German Government to pour a quantity of silver, variously estimated from $100,000,000 to $200,000,000, into the market whenever there is any new opening. M. de Parieu, perhaps the highest authority in France on coinage questions, seized the opportunity of urging the adoption of a gold standard.

THE TERMS OF PEACE.

THE terms of peace between Russia and Turkey, though not as yet officially announced, are doubtless known with all but certainty, and they are about what it was generally expected they would be, and what the conclusions of the Conference at Constantinople satisfied most people that they ought to be. Rumania and Servia are to become independent states; and Servia is, if Austria will consent to it, to get a little more territory. Rumania is to give up to Russia the piece of Bessarabia taken from the latter by the Treaty of Paris, and is to get in return probably a piece of the Dobrudja, which would shut Turkey out completely from the mouths of the Danube. Bulgaria is to have, as the Conference proposed, "local autonomy" under a Christian governor, holding his place for a long term of years and approved by the Powers, and a similar régime will be applied to Bosnia and Herzegovina. This is called the Syrian plan, being the plan applied to Syria in 1860 on the demand of the Powers, after the massacres and brutalities of that year and the despatch of a French force to restore order, though later advices make it a much nearer approach to virtual independence. To work successfully in Bulgaria it ought to be accompanied by the evacuation of the strong places of the Quadrilateral, and, in fact, the razing of their fortifications, which can hereafter be of no use to a state in the position which Turkey will occupy, while the garrisons would be a constant menace to the peace and good order of the province. Allowing the Turks to maintain garrisons in provinces over which the Sultan had lost his complete sovereignty has been tried already, and has been found to be a source of irritation to the people, and of expense to the Ottoman Government, without in any degree disguising its real weakness. Moreover, the experience both of the Franco-German war and of this one proves that great fortresses are of no use to a power which is forced to rely on them for salvation, or, in other words, which cannot put in the field an army which can hold its own independently of the fortresses, or which needs to use them for anything but delay. In the absence of such an army they are really a help rather than a hindrance to an invader, by furnishing him with the means of capturing large bodies of his enemy without the trouble and losses of hard marching and frequent fighting. If the Russians at Plevna had been as knowing as the Germans at Metz, the occupation of the place by Gazi Osman would have made him as ridiculous as the defence of Metz made Bazaine. In other words, had they let him alone until their reserves came up and then cut the Sophia road, the world would never have heard of him except as one of the common herd of pashas; while had the Prussians battered and assaulted Metz, Bazaine would have risen rapidly into a hero of the first order. There will, therefore, be nothing unreasonable or immoderate in the Russian demand, should it be made, that the Turkish troops shall evacuate Rustchuk, Silistria, Shumla, Varna, and Widdin. Montenegro will probably get all the territory she has won from the enemy, thus relieving her of the intolerable presence of the Ottomans in the very heart of her little territory at Spitza and Niksitch, and giving her a port on the sea and access to Lake Scutari—things which her people have for many generations sighed for, and often fought for, and have by their exploits in this war alone richly earned. The Greeks at this writing appear likely to get nothing, inasmuch as they have taken no part in the fray, and there is consequently great excitement at Athens at the prospect of peace. There is something at first sight a little ridiculous in their outburst of martial ardor just when the fighting is over, but it is not so much to their discredit as it seems that they should not have taken the field before now. Their situation differs materially from that of Montenegro, Servia, and Rumania, in that their territory is very accessible to the Turkish fleet, which could ravage the islands and bombard Syra and other ports without difficulty. To be sure, a judicious application of torpedoes might have warded off this danger to a considerable degree, as the Turkish fleet is not very enterprising; but still the danger was a formidable one for so small a community, and especially one which has such a frightful remembrance of Turkish atrocities and has lived so much of late years in politics on newspaper rhetoric.

There is not one of these changes to the approval of which the Powers are not in a great measure committed. The protocol of the Conference may fairly be said to cover them all, even if it were not supported by the Russian victories. It is only with regard to the demands of Russia on her own account that any difficulty is likely to arise, and even to these it is hard to see what objection even England can make. Indemnity for the expenses of the war is what every victor has a right to demand, and to get if she can, and there is nothing in the case of Turkey to exempt her from the operation of the general rule. There is one good reason for Russia taking territory in lieu of money, and that is that Turkey has no money, and if forced to raise it by loan or taxation it would aggravate the sufferings of the unfortunate people, Mussulman as well as Christian, who live under her rule. A slice of Armenia would, therefore, probably be considered by the civilized world as the best thing she can pay in, if she should not see fit to part with her ships, which, like the Danubian fortresses, are no longer of any use to her.

Russia has judiciously proposed to refer the question of the opening of the Dardanelles to the Powers, as it is a question which has really been under their jurisdiction ever since 1840, when the Treaty of London, of which England, Austria, Prussia, Russia, and Turkey were signataries, made the closing of the Straits to all vessels of war in time of peace a rule of public law. It had not before this been formally taken out of the Sultan's discretion except by a secret article in the treaty of alliance, offensive and defensive, concluded at Unkiar-Skelessi in 1833, between Turkey and Russia, and which caused so much indignation in France and England, by which the Czar designated the closing of the Dardanelles to all ships of war as the naval contribution which Turkey was to make to the common cause in case of hostilities with any other Power. As a matter of fact, previous to the completion of Sebastopol and the creation of the Black Sea fleet, it was Russia's aim to keep the Dardanelles closed. With the growth of her commerce and her territory on the Black Sea, her views have naturally changed; and it must be admitted that there is something wholly indefensible in the position that the war-vessels of a Power like her shall not be permitted to follow her trading vessels along an arm of the sea provided by nature for all comers, down into the Mediterranean, with the ports of which her commerce, already large, must every day be growing larger. Nothing can be said against it, or is said anywhere but in England, and the only argument used against it in England is that it would endanger the communication with India through the Suez Canal. But sensible Englishmen are beginning to see that if English supremacy in India can be put in peril by any naval force Russia can bring down through the Bosphorus, it is too precarious to last long under any circumstances, and—what is still more to the point—that there is no argument which will close the Bosphorus to Russia which might not be used to close the Canal to England. The complacent assertion of Sir Henry Elliot, the British ambassador at Constantinople at the time of the Bulgarian massacres, that "the necessity which existed for England to prevent changes most detrimental to themselves [ourselves] was not affected by the question whether it was 10,000 or 20,000 persons who perished in suppression" (of the Bulgarian insurrection), is one which probably no English diplomatist will ever again venture to make, and which would now be received with a smile, if not with horror, at the conference of the Powers to which Russia has herself referred the opening of the Straits. In fact, there has been nothing more absurd in modern politics than the policy of upholding a brutal despotism like Turkey in order to secure British supremacy in India, while at the same time justifying British supremacy in India on the ground that it gave the people justice and security. It bears an unpleasant resemblance to keeping a gambling-house in order to make money for a missionary society.

As a whole, the terms Russia offers may be said to be in entire accord with her promises before beginning the war, and moderate

considering the completeness of her victory. Taking everything into account, too, we think it may be fairly said that no war within the present century has rendered equal service to humanity and civilization. The others have relieved people of political oppression or gratified political aspirations; this one is likely to bring security for person and property to many millions of men who have never known it as it is known in the civilized world, and to open some of the finest regions on earth for the first time to the possibilities of modern progress. It is true that the best part of European Turkey —Rumelia—is still left in the hands of the pashas; but then its nearness to the capital and to the eye of the foreign ambassadors has long protected it against the worst abuses of Turkish rule, and will protect it now more than ever, as the pashas well know that the next time Russia takes them in hand, to Asia they will surely go. Moreover, it must be admitted that Europe is not yet ready for the Turk's total disappearance, and nobody is as yet prepared to say who should have Constantinople, or what should become of it. In twenty years more, events will probably have clearly indicated its proper destination. Either the Greeks or Slavs, or both, will by that time have made great progress, and probably have shown themselves equal to responsibilities which no one now would think of putting upon them. In other words, a successor to the Turk will probably have appeared, and when he does, the removal of the latter to Brusa will doubtless take place. Whether in Asia he will learn to live in the modern world, to accept its science and its morality, to separate in his thoughts the Koran from the sword, it is hard to say. If not, he will be gradually overwhelmed by the rise of the Christian races around him, and sink into the gloomy social decay of the Indian Mussulmans, or the harmless and innocent barbarism of the Tartars of the Crimea and Kazan.

CAN STATES BE MADE TO PAY THEIR DEBTS?

HALF the mischief to which organized communities are exposed comes from legal fictions. "The king can do no wrong" is one, "the State cannot be sued" is another and its next of kin. If any one is curious to know the exact working of the latter under our own superior system he has but to apply to the holders of bonds representing nearly three hundred millions of money that have been issued by more than half a dozen States of this Union. He will be told that the most of the securities, so-called, were put on the market by the States themselves and sold by their own agents at prices fixed by the venders, and that the money paid for them found its way into their treasuries and was disbursed according to their exclusive will and pleasure. He will be further told that none of the paper is honored by payment, some of it being openly repudiated and its redemption legally forbidden, and the rest treated with cool indifference. If he asks whether this condition of things is owing to the inability of the makers to pay their debts, he will be informed that all of them prospectively, and nearly all immediately, could, if they would, meet every dollar of their obligations. Why, then, he will naturally ask, are they not brought into court like other dishonest or delinquent debtors, and made to respond by application of the processes in such cases made and provided? The answer would be, Because the makers, negotiators, and beneficiaries of the bonds in question are "sovereign States," and as such cannot be sued.

The answer is, doubtless, quite sufficient, so far as the law of the case is concerned; but, for all that, it involves a stupendous and most unreasonable fiction. Not one of the States, except in the matter of its non-suability, is in any sense sovereign, or possessed of the attributes of an imperial power. Not one of them can declare or make war on its own responsibility, enter into a treaty or alliance offensive or defensive, send or receive an accredited ambassador, levy an impost duty, coin money, grant letters of marque or reprisal, emit bills of credit, pass a bill of attainder, or create a title of nobility—all indispensable prerogatives of a sovereign. The only truly royal privilege of which it is possessed is to run head over ears in debt, and then snap its fingers in the faces of its innocent and confiding creditors when pay-day comes.

Nowhere in the Federal Constitution are the States recognized as sovereign. Indeed, the word "sovereign" does not occur in that instrument—an omission the more noteworthy in view of the fact that the Articles of Confederation, to which it succeeded, in speaking of the States, positively stipulated that each "retained its *sovereignty*, freedom, and independence, and every power, jurisdiction, and right which was not by this Confederation expressly delegated to the United States in Congress assembled." That the word "sovereignty" was purposely dropped is logically apparent. The framers of the Constitution knew perfectly well that while there could be a confederation made up of sovereign States, there could be no nation thus compounded, and it was a nation they were constructing—a nation that was to have one head and many members.

The States, it is true, have certain powers which sovereigns exercise—legislative, judicial, and executive; but so have corporations like the city of New York, which no one pretends to be sovereign. The word "corporation," beyond all question, most fitly and clearly defines their functions. A corporation is a body legally created and deriving its authority from a superior power; and how else have the majority of the States of this Union come into existence? They have been created by law, and brought into the family of States by the pleasure of the paternal Government, instead of coming into it by treaty or mutual agreement. And those States which were originally independent, by consenting to stand on an equality with those afterward to be organized in the manner stated, consented to occupy a like subordinate station. That a corporation cannot be sued will not be contended for on any principle.

And even the one sovereign attribute of non-suability was not intended by the authors of the Constitution to be enjoyed by the States. They expressly provided in Section 2, Article III., of that instrument that the jurisdiction of the Federal courts should extend to "controversies between two or more States, between a State and citizens of another State, between citizens of the same State claiming lands under grants of different States, and between a State, or the citizens thereof, and foreign states, citizens, or subjects." That language the Supreme Court of the United States, in 1792, in the case of Chisholm *v.* Georgia, reported in 2 Dallas, held to include a State not only as a party plaintiff in a civil action but, in a proper case, as a defendant in a suit brought by a private individual for the enforcement of a moneyed demand, thus utterly rejecting the old doctrine that a State could not be sued. This conclusion was deduced both from the wording of the Constitution and the requirements of common sense and natural justice. Said Chief-Justice Jay, in delivering the opinion of the court, after referring to the fact that one of the declared purposes of the Constitution was to "establish justice," the construction that would enable a State to sue, but exempt it from being sued, "would contradict and do violence to the great and leading principles of a free and equal national Government, one of the great objects of which is to insure justice to all—to the few against the many, as well as to the many against the few. It would be strange, indeed, that the joint and equal sovereigns of this country should, in the very Constitution by which they professed to 'establish justice,' so far deviate from the plain path of equality and impartiality as to give to the collective citizens of one State a right of suing individual citizens of another State, and yet deny to those citizens a right of suing them." It is a bad rule, naïvely remarks the Chief-Justice, that does not work both ways; and what is a bad rule of morals cannot be good law.

In the same case Associate Justice Wilson, in a corroborative opinion, gives utterance to the following sentiment:

"A State, like a merchant, makes a contract; a dishonest State, like a dishonest merchant, wilfully refuses to discharge it. The latter is amenable to a court of justice; upon what principle of right shall the former, when summoned to answer the fair demands of its creditor, be permitted, Proteus-like, to assume a new appearance, and to insult him and justice by declaring, 'I am a sovereign State'? Assuredly it should not."

It will thus be seen that, whatever may have been considered by the framers of the Constitution as the reserved rights of the States, the privilege of turning their backs upon their honest creditors, and refusing them fair redress, was not among them. The authors of that document intended to give no countenance to repudiation. Had the Constitution been permitted to stand as it was originally adopted, the non-resident holders of the dishonored paper of Minnesota, Georgia, Tennessee, etc., could now go into the Federal Courts and prosecute their claims to judgment and collection in the same way that any other delinquent debtor can be proceeded against. In that case it would not be unreasonable to assume that the credit of some of our States would to-day rate considerably higher in the market.

But among the first Amendments to the Constitution, adopted in 1794, was the following, known as the Eleventh in order:

"The judicial power of the United States shall not be construed to extend to any suit in law or equity, commenced or prosecuted against one of the United States by citizens of another State, or by citizens or subjects of any foreign state."

A State can now go into a Federal court and sue a citizen of another State or country, but the same citizen cannot enter the same court and sue the State, no matter how large his demand or how equitable his case. The rule now works but one way. Justice, as between individuals and States, is entirely a jug-handled affair. A more unfair discrimination was never created by law. The reason for engrafting such an inconsistency upon a code that professed to "establish justice" among men and communities was the embarrassed condition of the States at the time the Federal Union was formed. Every one of them was threatened by suits for large demands of shadowy merit, prosecuted for damages to person, or for the value of property appropriated by the State's representatives during the war of the Revolution. It was the apprehension of these war-claims that carried the amendment making the States unsuable by individual claimants. It was not the first instance in which, to escape a present and temporary evil, a lasting injury was done, and in which the remedy was infinitely worse than the disease. The possibility of the States abusing the immunity extended to them was, of course, suggested while the amendment was under discussion, but so exalted was the idea then entertained of State honor that the contingency of a State deliberately refusing to pay its just debts was hardly thought worth considering. Since that date public opinion has undergone a great change on that point.

The remedy for the evil pointed out is so obvious that it hardly needs to be mentioned. It is to repeal the Eleventh Amendment, by the same process that brought about its enactment, and thus restore the Constitution to its original integrity. The reason for the Amendment long ago ceased to exist, and the provision remains a blot upon an otherwise beneficent code, an instrument of far-reaching fraud. There is no principle upon which it can longer be defended. Think of the great city of New York being suable by the citizen to whom it may owe ten dollars, while commonwealths like Delaware and Nevada, with less than one-tenth the population or wealth, may owe the same person millions of dollars, and if not honest enough to pay voluntarily, the courts of the country can afford him no relief. It is difficult to see how such incongruity could be seriously maintained by even the most ardent stickler for State rights. The Eleventh Amendment out of the way, most of the bondholders of repudiating or delinquent States could go into the Federal courts and have their demands fairly considered. If a valid defence existed it could be set up. No wrong would be done to the States. If the demands were found to be just and legal, judgment would be rendered accordingly, and the creditor would be entitled to a *mandamus* to compel the State authorities to levy and collect the tax necessary to satisfy the debt.

What valid objection could be urged? Surely the States that have not had their names entered upon the rôle of repudiators, but which share in the common disgrace and loss of credit occasioned by the dishonest courses of their fellows—and which, fortunately, yet number more than the three-fourths necessary to ratify a change in the Constitution—would be only too glad of the opportunity to do an act of justice and vindicate the nation's honor. Good citizens of all the States would favor the movement on general principles. And few, we take it, could be found at this day so wedded to the idea of State sovereignty as to oppose a measure conceded to be honorable and just, out of deference to a fiction that has done so much to cover the land with blood and is now doing so much to cover it with disgrace.

VICTOR EMMANUEL.

ROME, January 10, 1878.

KING VICTOR EMMANUEL is no more, and with him a momentous piece of history and of legend is gone. The Italy we saw come into being and grow remains, but it is no longer the same Italy which, through good and bad fortune, was wedded to the sturdy soldier who has so unexpectedly left his kingdom.

Victor Emmanuel had gone towards the close of the year to Turin, where his wife, Countess Mirafiori, lay dangerously ill. He stayed there longer than he originally intended, owing to the exceptional gravity of the case. His royal duties, however, called him here for the receptions of New Year's day, and the state dinners which usually accompany and follow them. He intended, however, to leave again for Turin on Monday the 7th, after having presided on the previous day at the so-called diplomatic dinner, when the violent outburst of his illness prevented him from both—his son, Crown-Prince (now King) Humbert, being obliged to take the head of the table. Already on Saturday evening the King did not feel quite well, and in the night the heat and the want of breath had become so intolerable that he committed the imprudence of opening the window towards the gardens of the Quirinal and walking on the balcony in the damp night air, in order to get some relief; for which he paid dearly. The next morning he lay in violent fever; an inflammation of the right lung declared itself, and it was unfortunately complicated with a so-called *perniciosa*—*i.e.*, the fever resulting from the Roman malaria. The evil increased steadily during Sunday and Monday; and the doctor who nine years ago cured his Majesty of the same illness, which had befallen him then at his shooting-place of San Rossore, near Pisa, was summoned, together with the two first medical authorities of Italy, Prof. Cipriani, of Florence, and Prof. Bruno, of Turin. For nearly two days the King was scarcely conscious, in consequence of which the bystanders were prevented from calling in the Crown-Prince and Crown-Princess, the extremely rigid Savoyard court-etiquette not permitting the son to appear before his father without his express summons. The day before yesterday, however, the King recovered his senses, and the first wish he expressed was for his children. Prince Humbert and Princess Margherita scarcely left his room afterwards until his death, which took place yesterday, Wednesday, at half-past three. His other children, Queen Pia of Portugal; Princess Clotilde Bonaparte, Prince Jerome Napoleon's wife; and the Duke of Aosta, once King Amadeo of Spain, were called by telegraph; but only the latter and his uncle, Prince Carignan, arrived last night—even they too late. During the thirty-six hours preceding his end the King was fully conscious, and saw clearly his fate. He encouraged his son and daughter-in-law, conversed at some length with two of the ministers—the President of the Council, Sig. Depretis, being himself detained by illness—and especially with General Medici, his aide-de-camp. Repeatedly he recommended to his son and successor "Italy and Liberty" as the two immutable stars which ought to guide him in his political conduct. He asked, himself, for the consolations of religion. Already on Tuesday evening Mgr. Marinelli had been sent by the Pope, who received throughout the illness hourly bulletins of the King's state, to take off the interdiction from the Quirinal, an interdiction which, as everybody remembers, the Holy Father had pronounced when in 1870 his palace had been broken open and prepared for the King's residence. Yesterday, Wednesday, at twelve, Victor Emmanuel confessed himself and received the sacrament from the hands of his confessor, Padre Anzino; and two hours later the chief chaplain of the court gave him the extreme unction, after which the King felt better, it appeared. A newly-invented apparatus to bring oxygen to the lungs relieved him in part, but only for a few moments. Once more he asked after his absent children, pressed Prince Humbert's hand, and with the cry, "The children, the children" (*i figli, i figli*), he expired at half-past two. Almost at the same moment, too late, however, arrived a high prelate from the Vatican, bringing the special blessing of the Holy Father.

The news spread instantaneously among the thronged multitude which

covered the square before the Quirinal and the Consulta round Phidias's horses, and like an electric stroke went through the Eternal City. The grief is general and intense. Even the Republicans, who lately have so audaciously lifted their heads; even the clericals, who for some time past have been meditating a reappearance on the political battle-field, show consternation. It is as if the youth and the poetry of the national life were finished; and as every Italian, to whatever party he may belong, is always Italian before he is a Catholic or a Republican, all feel deeply the loss of the man who embodied Italy; who, by his daring as well as by his prudence, by his moderation and his statesman's eye, had succeeded in making out of a "geographical term" a great and living national organism. Everybody feels what the nation owes him, and that but for him Italy would never have existed, however great Cavour's genius, Garibaldi's heroism, the people's patriotism. He was at once the bold and the cold-blooded player, who staked his all on the card of Italian unity and who won the prize, not for himself alone but for the whole country. Like every true monarch whose family has been for hundreds, nay, for a thousand years identified with the weal and woe of an important commonwealth, he had the rare instinct of what his country's honor and interest demanded, because it was his own individual honor and interest. People must not believe that King Victor Emmanuel, because he was a constitutional monarch, had little or no influence upon the politics of his country. True, he was never mixed up in the party squables, nor even in the small questions of daily policy; but it was he who chose Cavour and maintained him against court influences and unpopularity; he who gave La Marmora *carte blanche* to reform the old, glorious, and well-tried Sardinian army; he who gave his consent that Garibaldi should enter Naples; he who decided the taking of Rome in 1870, in spite of his strong religious feelings and his personal attachment to Pius IX.; he who in March, 1876, declared the time come to try a ministry of the Left, instead of changing once more the beaten Cabinet for another shade of the same color, as had been done for seventeen years.

Prince Humbert was immediately proclaimed King, and has declared, as early as last evening, that he maintains the present Cabinet, which, whilst I am writing, is assembled at the Consulta in order to prepare the manifesto to the nation. Everybody knows how popular the graceful and intelligent Princess, now Queen, Margherita is with all classes and all parties. The new King is generally less known, and a somewhat stormy youth has created many prejudices against him, which are hardly justified. I have had the honor of talking at length with him several times, without witnesses, and I found in him a man of very sound judgment, fully informed of the state of Europe and of that of his own country, perfectly versed in contemporary as well as former history. Already for the last four or five years he has taken a serious interest in politics, and he seems to have the hereditary quickness of his family in judging men and in finding out what he has to say to each and every one. It stands to reason that King Humbert cannot enjoy the prestige of his father, who took up his crown on the battlefield of Novara, defended the constitution against his evil councillors from within and without; who cast his lot with his Sardinian people in 1855, with entire Italy in 1859 and 1860; who fought for Venice in 1866, and entered Rome in 1870. But the tie which unites Italy to King Humbert is none the weaker because it is one of interest and calculation more than of sympathy and love; and there is good ground to hope that many years will not have elapsed before the *mariage de raison* between Italy and her new King will become a marriage of sincere affection. King Humbert has a difficult task before him, no doubt. It is probable that he will find himself soon before one of the most momentous questions of our time. Pius IX. cannot long survive his royal rival; with his end the religious question will awake more dangerous than ever. The very advances made by the Vatican towards the Quirinal, on occasion of Victor Emmanuel's illness and death, are full of ominous significance for one who knows how things lie. Father Curci, *l'enfant terrible* of the Curia, has prematurely betrayed the word of the Catholic conspiracy; let us hope that King Humbert will beware and remain as watchful as his father, who always knew how to separate his personal feelings from his duties toward the state. As for the emergencies of the Eastern Question, we can say that the cape is doubled, and King Humbert, who has never concealed his sympathies for Germany, will not choose this moment to part from the Three Emperors' league, to which his father himself, in spite of his western tendencies, acceded a few months before his death. As for the inner affairs of Italy, the King can do little for good or for evil to change them; it is the nation's own business to disentangle itself. One thing is certain, that as long as there is a tolerably energetic and watchful Government nothing is to be dreaded from Republicanism, however audacious and fanatical its partisans may be; nay, they are so few in number that I do not even think the present Cabinet, in spite of its intellectual mediocrity, its moral weakness, its scanty authority, too feeble to resist their eventual enterprises, which, I firmly believe, they are themselves far too prudent to risk for some time to come.

THE OLD MASTERS AT BURLINGTON HOUSE.

[FROM AN OCCASIONAL CORRESPONDENT.]

LONDON, January 12, 1878.

IN speaking, a year ago, of the loan exhibition which now regularly takes place in the rooms of the Royal Academy during the months preceding the great show of the pictures of the year, I had occasion to say that the very rich stock of art-treasures from which these assemblages are drawn shows as yet no sign of being exhausted. In the light of the exhibition of the present year this remark needs, perhaps, to be slightly modified. The stock is doubtless not nearly exhausted, but the milk-pan, if I may be allowed in such a connection so vulgar an expression, has been pretty well skimmed. The first-rate things scattered among private collections over the length and breadth of this most richly-furnished country have, for the most part, taken their glorious turn upon the winter-lighted walls of Burlington House. There are, doubtless, some great prizes remaining, but they are not very numerous. The Titians, Rubenses, Rembrandts, Vandykes, the precious specimens of the Dutch painters, the flower of the Reynoldses and Gainsboroughs, have already obeyed the invitation. This year there are two or three superb Rembrandts; but it is apparent that for the future (unless they begin at the top of the list again) the exhibitions must be pitched in a minor key. To-day, in the absence of great Italians, we have a room devoted to the "Norwich School." I do not mention this fact invidiously, for the Norwich room is very interesting. I allude to it simply to indicate that London picture-lovers must begin and clip a little the wings of expectation. It has been the custom with these exhibitions to have, on each successive year, a specialty—the ear-mark of the particular exhibition. At first this distinguishing stamp was given by the greater masters; there was the Titian year, the Rubens year, the year when the early Tuscan painters came out with peculiar force. Then there was the Reynolds year, and the Gainsborough year; and there was even, a twelvemonth since, what it would be tolerably correct to call the Raeburn year. At the present moment, I suppose, one may talk of the Norwich year. The works of the painters who achieved the unique distinction of reflecting their eminence upon an English provincial town three-quarters of a century ago are ranged together in the first room; and although there are names in the exhibition much more familiarly known to fame than those of John Crome, Cotman, Stannard, Vincent, Stark, there is no part of it more interesting than that occupied by this modest but exquisite group. The founder of the so-called Norwich School was John Crome—"Old Crome"—a man of genius who, among manifold difficulties, spent the greater part of his life cultivating landscape art in the neighborhood of a little English episcopal city, at what would be termed to-day—at least from the artistic and even the landscape point of view—a very Philistine period of its history. He gathered about him a number of not unworthy pupils, appreciative observers of humble scenery, who, under his wholesome influence and with the minimum of patronage, succeeded in founding the sole local subdivision in the history of English painting. John Crome is a very charming painter, and each of his companions has an interest of his own; but to a stranger, I think, almost the chief merit of the group will be historic or social—found in the simple fact that it held its own and flourished in a situation in which there can have been the least possible human inspiration towards taking the pictorial view of things. It is hard to imagine an assemblage of painters, united by a common ideal, holding well together in an English cathedral town even at this emancipated and Ruskinized day; but to reflect that something of that kind happened during those dusky years of the Napoleonic wars, when England was shut up to her purely British and unæsthetic self, is to find one's self confronted with a genuine marvel. There are no less than twenty-seven of Old Crome's landscapes in the exhibition (I do not know how he came to gain his sobriquet; he lived but to the moderate age of fifty-two), and most of them are extremely delightful. With two exceptions (rather infelicitous memorials of a journey to Paris), they are illustrations of the homely Norfolk scenery—the moist meadows and brown-coated moors, the canal-like rivers, the thatched and gabled cottages, the shallow harbors of the region in which he was born. He

had evidently had some observation of the Dutch masters of landscape, and he had zealously appropriated their teachings. There is a certain "View on the Wensum," a small expanse of stagnant-looking river, shut in by brick-walled houses with pointed roofs, which would require very little more perfection of detail to make it pass for a Van der Heyden. Crome is seen at his best, however, in the rendering of open spaces—of heath and furze and scrubby trees, and morning and evening skies. Near the picture just named hangs an admirable "Distant View of Norwich," taken in the late afternoon, with the mass of the city lying large and vague in the early dusk, and the spire of the cathedral—a loved landmark—rising far into a sky of remarkable mellowness and airiness. There are also two other little pictures—a certain view of "St. Martin's Gate" and another on "The Back River"—of old steep-roofed, ruddy-walled houses, reflected in thick, quiet water that are full of a Dutch minuteness and reality. The perfect Dutch skill and taste are wanting; but there is a great charm of coloring, and most of the pictures, like those of the Dutch masters, have suffered very gratefully the action of time. They have a sort of rich brown bloom—a sober glow. I have not space to speak in detail of Crome's followers; but I must spare an allusion to James Stark, who in a small way, with his thin woods, his crooked roads, his timbered cottages, his grey skies, and his unambitious love of foliage, reminds one even vividly of Hobbema. Stark is very charming, though doubtless a little finical and common. Cotman is also charming, with the advantage of being stronger and more breezy; a fine Cotman, indeed—for instance, a certain "Windmill," in this same room, with a great watery, wind-stirred sky—is a very noble piece of work.

In the way of landscape the exhibition contains three or four other excellent things. One of the two Turners—a "Trout Stream," lent by Lord Essex—may be so spoken of, in virtue of its superb rendering of a gigantic grey cloud lifted up into the air and returning upon itself, like a waterspout. Of the unequalled art with which, in a subject like this, Turner contrasted with his pregnant vapor-masses the lighted spaces of the sky, this picture is a sufficient illustration. In connection with Cotman's "Windmill," I should mention a picture by Rembrandt bearing the same title; or rather, I may say, it will be more considerate of the English painter to mention it apart. The Rembrandt, which is one of the artist's strongest landscapes and is the property of the fortunate Lord Lansdowne, represents a mill standing almost in profile upon a low cliff that overlooks a river. The picture is very dark, and in the way in which the stunted tower of the mill stands up against the sky, and its clumsy arms spread themselves in the faded, ruddy evening light, while the lower part of the subject is bathed in the usual brown Rembrandtesque mystery, there is an ample suggestion of the painter's characteristic magic. A picture that need not fear juxtaposition even with Rembrandt is an admirable specimen of a Dutch painter who is rarely encountered—John de Capella: a grey, moist harbor-scene; the edge of a pier near which a boat is unloading, and an expanse of quiet water, with other boats vaguely seen beyond it. This small picture is a masterpiece; the look of the monotonous sky, stuffed, as it were, with small rain-clouds; of the warm, damp air, with softened, muffled sounds passing through it, is a marvel of quiet skill. There are two or three good specimens of the better-known Dutch landscape painters—a couple of interesting Jacob Ruysdaels and of desirable Hobbemas. In relation to Rembrandt, I must speak of certain portraits from his great hand, which are presumably to be accounted the gems of the exhibition. One is a superb portrait of himself as a young man—painted in 1635; the other a head of a Jewish rabbi, which is present at Burlington House in two editions. One of these latter works has been contributed by the Duke of Devonshire, the other by Lord Powerscourt, and the second being an inferior replica—or a picture, at the best, much injured by time, or possibly by cleaning—the presence of its competitor may, in vulgar parlance, be pronounced "rough on" the Duke of Devonshire's fellow-peer. The portrait is in Rembrandt's greatest manner, and represents an old man with a much-twisted turban, an upper lip shaven like that of an American legislator, a large, ugly face, magnificently wrinkled and withered, and a big jewelled clasp glowing upon the bosom of his furred and dusky robe. The picture is full of that profundity of life which we find in Rembrandt's greatest works. There are naturally many other portraits; but with the exception of a beautiful head of a gentleman, auburn-haired and refined, by Rubens, there is nothing of absolutely the first importance. The Titians are, I should say, apocryphal, and the Vandykes, though decidedly striking, not of supreme excellence. The same may be said of the Gainsboroughs and Sir Joshuas, which are, as usual, abundant. The exhibition, with regard to Gainsborough, is chiefly but a reminder of the difference existing between good and indifferent specimens of this too prolific painter. Still, one takes a pleasure even in a collection of fairish Gainsboroughs, by reason of the large proportion of charming faces among his models. He painted some very weak pictures, but he never fairly sacrificed a face. There are two interesting Romneys—portraits of his perpetual model, Lady Hamilton, which, though the painting is of an almost primitive baldness, are highly suggestive of the lady's extraordinary, innocent-looking loveliness. She had evidently a genius for "sitting." There are many more interesting things which I have no space to commemorate, and I must content myself with a mere allusion to the brilliant winter-exhibition of the Grosvenor Gallery. This is composed of drawings and water-colors by masters not living, and in the department of drawings is especially strong. The Queen has lent a great many from the treasures of Windsor, most of which are of high value. But supreme among them and easily surpassing everything else—even two or three noble designs of Michael Angelo and several beautiful sketches of Raphael—are a series of deeply-interesting heads by Leonardo da Vinci. These things, as drawings, strike me, in their union of the grand and the exquisite, of intellectual intention with brilliant handiwork, as beyond price.

Correspondence.

THE WOODRUFF EXPEDITION.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The severe criticism on the Woodruff scientific expedition in your No. 654 (Jan. 10) leaves untouched one point which it is an act of simple benevolence to bring to the attention of every parent who may contemplate patronizing it. Knowing, as I do, a little of the demoralizing influences to which the young are subject on such a voyage, I have no hesitation in saying that no considerate parent would allow a son to enter upon it except from a profound ignorance of the danger to character and morals thus incurred. If further light is wanted, I would refer all enquirers to the nearest naval officer of age and experience, preference being given to one who has visited foreign ports on a school or training-ship.

Navy.

Washington, January 26, 1878.

COLLEGE INSTRUCTION IN ORATORY.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In an article entitled "Collegiate Oratory," which appeared in the *Nation* for Jan. 17, 1878, you say: "Far from cultivating this [the art of debate], however, one of the noblest and manliest of arts, our colleges, in so far as they have given any attention to the matter at all, have devoted themselves to encouraging the 'demonstrative oratory' of the Greeks. . . . It was a curious and significant circumstance that not one of the subjects chosen by the young men who declaimed the other night at the Academy of Music, except one, had the smallest connection with the topics now agitating the world—the problems of trade, finance, religion, and war"; and the article implied that the tendency of college instruction is to produce a set of "hazy" thinkers.

At Harvard, where "demonstrative oratory" is unknown, the subjects given out for themes, forensics, and theses have a direct bearing on the questions of the day. In themes the subjects are taken mainly from a college life; and because such subjects may be treated exhaustively in a limited space, the student is, in this way, restrained from "hazy" thinking. Moreover, since subjects of the class referred to bear the same relation to college life that the editorials of a "daily" bear to the life of the world at large, the student, on graduating, finds himself confronted with questions differing from those he has been accustomed to not in kind but in degree. In addition to the required work, there is this year a new elective, in which the end of the instruction is, to use your own words, "to train the student carefully in the mastery of subjects and the arrangement of arguments."

In forensics, where the only thing considered is the merit of the composition in respect to its logical arrangement, the subjects have embraced such practical questions as the benefit of foreign commerce, the repeal of usury laws, and the transmission of property.

In many of the courses theses on special subjects are given out; especially is this the case in the advanced course in political economy, in which the subjects for the year include "Reciprocity with Canada,"

"The True Ground of Taxation," and "Whether Should the Government or the Banks Issue the Currency?" In the first course in political economy much time is devoted to the study of the financial history of the United States, and the English money market as explained in the pages of 'Lombard Street'—both practical subjects certainly.

Elocution plays a minor part. Those students who wish instruction meet the professor once a week for a private lesson of twenty minutes' duration. The training of the voice and the elements of gesticulation are all that is taught. Certainly Harvard can get along with no less elocutionary training and at the same time have any regard for the Commencement audiences. SENIOR.

HARVARD COLLEGE, Jan. 22, 1878.

THE DECORATION OF TRINITY CHURCH, BOSTON.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: I notice in Mr. Clarence Cook's article on "Recent Church Decoration," in the current number of *Scribner's*, some statements in regard to the painting of the Boston Trinity Church which seem to need explanation, if not correction.

He says that one is "disappointed to find how small a part Mr. La Farge's individual work plays in the interior of the church," probably meaning that the pictures form a rather small proportion of the surface, but giving the impression that only a portion of the whole system of decoration is due to Mr. La Farge, and the rest to some one else; and it so happens that immediately afterwards come some remarks about the kindness of Fortune in sending to him, "all unpractised in the technics of wall-painting, such a right-hand helper as Mr. Daniel Cottier." The hasty reader might be excused for putting the two things together, and inferring from them and some sentences which follow that Mr. Cottier was in some way the author of at least a part of the decoration of the building, the credit of which has hitherto gone to Mr. La Farge.

As Mr. Cottier would no more wish to share other people's honors through a mistake than Mr. La Farge would like to be described as one who appropriated a brother-artist's labors without acknowledgment, it should be known that Mr. Cottier's actual connection with the work did not extend much beyond the supplying of workmen, who may have been, as Mr. Cook says, more skilful than others in mixing and applying colors. Instead of his having anything to do with the planning of the scheme of decoration, the coloring and design of the tower and the design of the roof and nave walls were all on paper long before Mr. Cottier was consulted, and, if I am not mistaken, while he was in Europe, and those drawings were carried out as nearly as a sketch at a small scale could be applied to the actual wall.

It was not till after a contract had been made with other parties, and the painting of some of the walls finished, that Mr. La Farge decided to terminate the first contract and make arrangements with Mr. Cottier to supply workmen. They had several consultations, and, no doubt, Mr. Cottier's advice was very useful; but as Mr. La Farge's plans were already fixed, and were not afterwards changed, it must have been, as Mr. Cook suggests, for the most part general advice about processes and mediums, which would apply to any building. Of course, he would have been very kind in helping in the design and coloring, if that had not been already fixed; and in decorating the ceiling of the tower, which had not been shown on the drawings, a proposition of his was once partly carried into effect, but it was afterwards painted over quite differently. Except this and another suggestion of his about the color of the woodwork, which was adopted, I cannot think of any point in which he influenced the design.

Mr. Cook seems himself to be a little astray as to the nature of Mr. Cottier's services, useful as they may have been to Mr. La Farge, when he says: "When all the panels, spandrels, etc., shall have been filled with pictures the obligation to Mr. Cottier will be more evident than it is now." This is rather a mysterious assertion at the best, and is still more difficult to understand when we consider that there is not a square inch of wall in the church which has on it anything that Mr. Cottier designed or any color which he selected.

To Mr. Lathrop is certainly due, as Mr. Cook says, the design for the roof, besides the band around the apse, and many other portions of the work, and various other gentlemen took part in designing the innumerable details; but every design was made and every color placed subject to Mr. La Farge's direction and approval, if not by his own hands, and the decoration as much belongs to him as "Hamlet" does to Shakspere, in spite of the assignment of the parts to different actors to interpret.

Mr. La Farge must be flattered at the number of persons whose friends would like to have them share his laurels. It seemed as if he was pretty liberal of them in writing eight other names beside his own in the modest inscription by which he signed his work. But that does not seem to have satisfied all the aspirants. I remember a party coming into the church one day, while the decoration was in progress, and enquiring for "the artist." "Was it Mr. La Farge they wished to see?" "No." "Mr. Lathrop?" "No." Mr. Millet and Mr. Maynard did not seem to meet the case, and it turned out that the one they wanted was the Scotch foreman who mixed the paint and applied the stencils. It seemed that he passed in some outside circles for the real artist, and very possibly he was capable of great things if he had been called upon for them; but, in point of fact, his canny device for handing his name down to posterity by painting it in large letters among the stencillings of the roof was the only original thought that the church owes to him.

Some answer might be given to portions of the criticism made without knowing all the circumstances; but Mr. La Farge can afford to bear a little unjust blame if he is sure of all the credit which belongs to him, and Mr. Cook's candid opinions are so valuable that it would be a pity to annoy him by unnecessary captiousness.

T. M. CLARK.

60 DEVONSHIRE ST., BOSTON.

THE FREEDMAN'S HOSPITAL.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Having been for years a subscriber to your paper, and disposed to accord with its general views in political matters, I have been accustomed to give it credit for meaning well, and for taking pains to gain correct information before making positive affirmations. But your paragraph in this week's issue, relative to the Freedman's Hospital in this city, is so wide of the facts that it shakes my faith in the last respect named. The trustees of Howard University are interested in the matter of the removal of Dr. Palmer (which, contrary to your statement, has not occurred) because he has been for several years the Dean of their Medical Faculty, rendering gratuitous services and giving the students under him access to the hospital.

They have represented to the President and to Secretary Schurz that they had no opposition to make to his removal for sufficient cause, but wished that no mistake should be made on the merits of the case, lest their interests should incidentally suffer, as well as injustice be done to Dr. Palmer. They therefore drew the attention of the Secretary to the fact that his own commission had fully exonerated Dr. Palmer, after spending a month in a careful examination of the case; that the reading of the condensed written testimony by himself and his solicitor, without having seen or heard the witnesses at the time, only half qualified him to judge of the case; that the unreported evidence (on which in part the commission had relied) consisted of their personal examination of the hospital and conversation with patients, and of their judgment of the manner, spirit, and character of the unfavorable witnesses, which, as is alleged, proved to be of the worst description, as was admitted by the Secretary; that Dr. Palmer would willingly submit to a new and most searching investigation by a committee of Congress, or of army surgeons named by the President; and that, as great interests were at stake and Dr. Palmer's reputation was unspotted, care should be had to be sure of all the facts before final action was taken.

Secretary Schurz, in the presence of the trustees, declared to the President that he charged nothing against Dr. Palmer's moral integrity, but that it was simply a question of efficient management, and that the case was not yet closed, but Dr. Palmer was to be allowed to put in further written evidence. The President, at the end of the interview, said that he was very friendly to Howard University, and would do all that he could to promote its interests; that he would see that Dr. Palmer was retained, if that were wise; and that, in case of his removal, he would see that his successor should be a man who would co-operate with the university.

No decision has yet been reached.

Dr. Palmer has since submitted to the Secretary over sixty new depositions contradicting the charges made, and it is hoped that the mind of the Secretary will be relieved. Meanwhile the Senate has ordered its Committee on Appropriations to investigate the subject, which is precisely what the friends of Dr. Palmer desire, and they calmly await the revelation of the truth.

As you seem to have been misled by insufficient information, I trust that you will insert this statement in your next issue.

Yours truly, WM. W. PATTON,
President of Howard University.

HOWARD UNIVERSITY, WASHINGTON, D. C., Jan 25, 1878.

[We are sorry if we have done injustice either to Dr. Palmer or Dr. Patton. Our paragraph was based on the report of the New York *Times*, which was very circumstantial and which we had every reason to believe to be correct. Meanwhile, we are able to say positively that the new depositions do not mend the matter; that the oral testimony of the witnesses, as since taken by Mr. Schurz himself, differs materially from the affidavits; and that all examined before him, except one, have disclaimed the affidavits.—ED. NATION.]

Notes.

THE unusual proceeding of giving the purchasers of the first edition of a book the benefit of the revisions and additions in the second edition has been resorted to by Mr. Henry Sidgwick, in his 'Supplement to the First Edition of the "Methods of Ethics"' (New York: Macmillan & Co.) This is a pamphlet of 123 pages, uniform with the original work. ——We are not among those who would recommend Trench's 'Study of Words' as a text-book; but for such as think it ought to be so employed an edition has been specially prepared by Thomas D. Supplée, of St. Augustine's College, Cal., and published in this city by W. J. Widdleton.——We are glad to see that the *Tribune Index* is to appear as regularly as the *Tribune Almanac*, and that its usefulness in the office of that paper ensures its continuance apart from any general demand for it. The *Index* for 1877 fills 116 pages, and should be indispensable to every well-regulated newspaper office. Of the *Almanac* for 1878 we need not speak. Some typographical errors that we have happened upon in using it are not surprising among so many dates and figures.——Estes & Lauriat have just issued Daudet's 'Nabab' in an English dress. Our Paris correspondent has already, in No. 653 of the *Nation*, done justice to this latest product of contemporary historical fiction.——A. S. Barnes & Co. will publish immediately 'The Commonwealth Reconstructed,' by C. C. P. Clark, a writer of no little force and originality.—— The *Radical Review* enters upon its second volume as a bi-monthly.—— The first number of the *American Journal of Mathematics*, to be published early next month, will contain articles by Profs. Sylvester and Newcomb, Mr. Charles S. Peirce, and others, including two writers from abroad.——According to Mr. Spofford's last report, the Library of Congress numbers upwards of 330,000 volumes, of which more than one-fifth are piled upon the floor. The neglect of this magnificent collection by Congress is as surprising as it is discreditable. The general catalogue is being printed; work has been resumed on the index to Congressional documents, debates, etc.; the third volume of original historical documents relating to French discoveries in the Northwest is nearly completed; and instead of reprinting the imperfect printed journals of the Continental Congress and the Congress of the Confederation, Mr. Spofford proposes to reproduce the MS. journals in the custody of the State Department.——Among recent German publications we find noteworthy R. Lepsius's 'Babylonian-Assyrian Measures of Length according to the Table of Senkereh'; volume one of H. Merguet's 'Lexicon to Cicero's Orations,' citing all passages; volume three of F. Ritschl's 'Opuscula Philologica,' "ad literas Latinas spectantia"; volume two of A. Vanicek's 'Græco-Latin Etymological Dictionary'; and H. Welzhofer's 'Thucydides and his History,' a contribution to the history of historiography. The third part of Von Holtzendorff's 'Handbuch des deutschen Strafprocessrechts' relates to the Penal Procedure regulation of Feb. 1, 1877.

—The vexed question as to whether Columbia College is to remain a city college or remove to the suburbs is in fair course of solution, and an early decision on the part of the trustees is expected. They have for several years been accumulating their surplus revenue as a building-fund for the erection of the new buildings as soon as a site should be definitely chosen. Unfortunately, the necessities of this fund have compelled the trustees to decline purchasing the library of the late George T. Strong in spite of the very favorable terms on which it was offered. A movement was at once started among the alumni to buy it and give it to the college. Mr. Evert A. Duyckinck, one of the library committee of the trustees, has carefully examined the Strong collection and strenuously advises its purchase. It would combine with the present college library to great advantage, as only 304 duplicates would result from the fusion. Its specialties are books on the fine arts and early American history, German literature and MSS., forty-eight in number, which Mr. Duyckinck reports "consist of Bibles, missals, books of hours, and Greek and Latin authors, representing every century from the twelfth to the seventeenth, and are richly decorated by the art of the illuminator." The library also includes books formerly belonging to Charles Lamb and containing MS. notes by Coleridge. It is offered to the alumni for $15,000, or less than half its estimated value if dispersed, and a fifth of the amount has already been subscribed, in part by individual trustees. The secretary of the special committee appointed by the Alumni Association is Mr. Henry R. Beekman, 55 Pine Street.

—The State Geological Survey of Wisconsin, begun under the late Dr. J. A. Lapham in 1873, has recently issued the first volume (vol. ii.) of its final report, 768 pp. royal octavo, illustrated by wood-cuts, several full-page lithographs, and maps in the text, and accompanied by an atlas of sixteen very large colored maps. The volume contains: 1. The Annual Reports of Dr. Lapham for 1873 and 1874 to the Legislature, and that of Dr. O. W. Wight for 1875. 2. The Report of Prof. T. C. Chamberlin, the present director, on the Geology of Eastern Wisconsin. 3. The Report of Prof. R. D. Irving on the Geology of Central Wisconsin. 4. The Report of Moses Strong on the Geology and Topography of the Lead Region. The work of these several gentlemen has evidently been done with skill and care, and the results are more concisely and systematically arranged than is usual in such reports. Among the new and interesting facts brought out are those with regard to the glacial drift, which reaches a remarkable development in northern and eastern Wisconsin, and is rendered the more striking by the entire absence of drift, and of all signs of glaciation over 12,000 square miles of the southwestern part of the State. The evidence presented by Prof. Chamberlin appears to show conclusively the former existence of a great glacier in the valley now occupied by Green Bay and Lake Winnebago, and another larger one in the Lake Michigan depression. The origin of the driftless region is for the first time successfully discussed by Prof. Irving, who shows that it owes its existence not to superior altitudes, as has heretofore been supposed—the truth being that the region is for the most part *lower* than the surrounding drift-covered country—but to the fact that the glaciers have been deflected from it by the Lake Michigan and Green Bay depressions upon one side, and by the greater trough of Lake Superior and its transverse branches, Keweenaw and Chagwamagon Bays, on the other. Mr. Strong's report on the Lead Region is given for the most part in the shape of atlas-maps, showing both its geology and topography in the greatest detail. Plate xvi. of the atlas by Mr. Strong covers a region of about 3,000 square miles, and exceeds in accuracy and closeness of detail, we believe, any similar map ever published in this country. The maps are all very fine, the chromo-lithographic work being unusually well done. The volume is throughout a Wisconsin publication, and indicates the excellent facilities now obtainable in the West for such work. The remaining volumes of the series (vols. i. and iii.) are to be issued, we believe, the present year. We would suggest to those whose duty it may be to attend to such matters the incompleteness of the table of contents and index of this volume.

—An anonymous writer in the February *Atlantic* argues, in the opening article, "The Cradle of the Human Race," in favor of the autochthonous origin of the various peoples of Europe. Mr. W. H. Babcock asks how the loss of models by the fire in the Patent Office last year is to be repaired, and proposes that they be reproduced as far as possible from the drawings not destroyed, and that additions be allowed on satisfactory evidence before a special tribunal that they formed part of the original models. It appears to us a fatal objection to this plan that no tribunal could be devised which could be trusted to decide such momentous questions on purely ex-parte testimony. Not only could inventors not afford to be present to contest claims on which their fortunes depend, and perhaps remotely and obscurely depend, but the public would be entirely excluded, to its certain detriment. The ordinary courts are, in fact, the only places in which to prove the construction of destroyed models, since only there exist the necessary conditions for ascertaining the truth—viz., a real issue of fact and conflict of interest, and an opportunity for both sides to be heard and examined. The most substantial article in this number, and the best one, too, in a literary point of view, is Prof. Norton's "Venice and St. Mark's." The double title indicates the writer's

purpose to connect the history of the city with that of the church, to show how this wonderful building reflected the independence, enterprise, and originality of the Venetians, and their peculiar gift of color in architecture as in painting, and to reproduce from the old chroniclers some of the historic scenes associated with St. Mark's. The treatment of this interesting subject is kept free from technicalities.

—The even tenor of *Harper's Magazine*, which neither midsummer nor midwinter nor holidays nor the occasion of a new volume disturbs, is well exemplified in the February number. It differs in physiognomy from a great many numbers that we can remember, and yet it is fairly typical of the magazine. The opening paper, "Along our Jersey Shore," so far as it relates to the Life-saving Service, has a somewhat threadbare theme, but the story is agreeably retold and not uselessly—that would be impossible while the service is still so grudgingly supported by Congress. For the rest, Mr. Rideing describes a cruise along shore and in Barnegat Bay as far as Atlantic City, and makes his readers disposed to wish they too might spend a vacation in the same way. In "The Dunmow Flitch" Mr. M. D. Conway amusingly tells how the flitch in question was by an old institution annually awarded in Dunmow, Essex, England, to any couple who could take oath that a year after their marriage they could look back on no disagreement, and still desired each other above all possible spouses in the universe. This truly English custom, albeit, as Mr. Conway shows, not without its roots in a pagan and superstitious antiquity, was dropped in 1772, and revived by the novelist Ainsworth in 1855, and has been fitfully maintained ever since. Mr. Conway witnessed the serio-comic festival last year, and thinks there will never be another. The flitch, whatever its mythologic origin, "is now a side of bacon which would bring ninepence a pound, and all the enthusiasm of Dunmow, as it was seen borne aloft, was superficial compared with the sensation which would be produced could it some day see such bacon marked sixpence in a shop-window." The sketch of J. M. W. Turner's life recites the principal facts in his career, and mentions almost all the defects of his character as a man. The woodcuts after his pictures seem to us noticeably successful, including "The Old Téméraire" and "The Slave-ship," now for the first time popularized in print. Mr. Ruskin's well-known description of this canvas is of course cited, and the editor of *Harper's* is fair enough to allow our artist countryman, Mr. George Inness, in the course of some sensible remarks about painting, on a subsequent page, to record his opinion that Turner's "Slave-ship" is "the most infernal piece of clap-trap ever painted. There is nothing in it. It has as much to do with human affections and thought as a ghost. It is not even a fine bouquet of color. The color is harsh, disagreeable, and discordant." Mr. Inness's "interviewer" evidently took his notes in short-hand.

—We have rarely seen a more notable disregard of the economy of force, or a greater disproportion of means to ends, than in certain bills for "the classification of mail matter" drawn by the Post-office Department and introdceud in the House by Mr. Money and in the Senate by Mr. Ferry. The object is to get rid of the annoyance of restraining certain advertising periodicals which endeavor to distribute themselves to non-subscribers at "privileged" rates of postage, and to silence the publishers of magazines who are annoyed at a recent rule restricting them from stitching or pasting in "inserts" or slips. To accomplish this it is actually proposed to create the office of "Superintendent of Mail Classification," who is to examine all printed matter claiming transmission at "privileged" rates, and who, if satisfied as to its character, is to issue "certificates of registration," under which it will oe entitled to be sent to *bona fide* subscribers at the lowest rate of postage. The opportunities which such an official would have of levying blackmail or of persecuting political opponents are enlarged by a provision, very proper in itself, prohibiting the mailing of any "obscene matter or matter relating to lotteries, gift concerts, or fraudulent schemes and devices." A careful scrutiny of the advertising columns of any of the "great dailies" would doubtless reveal much which a censor of strict virtue could classify under one or more of the above heads, and he would have power at once to deprive the offender of mail privileges. The department, of course, has no intention of setting up an indirect censorship of the press, but if this machinery is created it will not be long before some of the "war-horses" will discover how advantageously it could be worked. At present the only motive lurking under the surface would seem to be the desire of some one to occupy an office created by Act of Congress, to which is attached a salary of $2,250 per annum, to be paid out of the fees of registration.

—With the number for December 20, 1877, the French folk-lore periodical *Mélusine* terminated the first year of its existence. Among its most noteworthy contents we may mention the popular tales from various provinces of France. While all the other countries of Europe have displayed great activity in collecting their nursery tales, France has until recently almost entirely neglected them. The *Mélusine* has contained stories from Brittany, Picardy, Amiens, Metz, etc., some of them rendered doubly valuable by the annotations of R. Köhler. Brueyre has contributed Creole tales, one of which, from the parish of St. John the Baptist, La., is the same as the story of the Wolf and the Rabbit in *Lippincott's Magazine*, Dec., 1877 ("Folk-Lore of the Southern Negroes"). A large number of *chansons* has been published with music, many being interesting variants of well-known songs—*e. g.*, the 'Chanson de Renaud,' which is found from Brittany to Catalonia and Italy—while others are published for the first time. Next in value is the department of *Formulettes*, or nursery rhymes of all kinds, affording a rich material for comparison with German and English collections. Riddles are given from various localities, and superstitions have not been neglected. M. Bonnet contributes "Medical Superstitions of Franche-Comté," running through four numbers, and containing much that is common to all Europe. M. Thiriat furnishes "Beliefs, Superstitions, Prejudices, Uses, and Customs in the Department of Vosges," occupying three numbers. Several articles have been devoted to the traditional costumes of France, with illustrations, among them the curious dress worn at Bourg de Batz (Loire-Inférieure) by women at the ceremony of "churching," the head-dresses used in the Department of the Eure, etc. Of considerable value is the dictionary of names given to the inhabitants of the different localities of France prepared by M. Malet and running through the whole year. In addition to the above articles there has been an immense number of shorter articles and notes on local superstitions and customs, including an interesting note by M. Renan on the legend of the Seven Sleepers in Brittany. We must not omit mention of the department of reviews, with its notices of books of various countries relating to folk-lore. The *Mélusine* is successfully established, and will prove indispensable to all students of folk-lore, and we shall probably see this year a kindred publication in England as the organ of the new English Folk-Lore Society.

STEPHEN'S FREETHINKING AND PLAINSPEAKING.*

THESE essays are thoroughly English; full of sturdy Saxon vigor, and yet not unaffected in some ways by the conservatism which so especially hedges in the topics treated of. In style they are near of kin to Gregg's first essays, and to Fitz James Stephen's. They have not the passion or the imagination that one would find in the work of an American radical reformer; but then the American would hardly have thought it necessary to write a book in favor of free thought. It is so much less of an effort in this country to think freely, even if the thought is as radical as Mr. Stephen's, and mere plainspeaking is so quietly received, that our radicals have often to excite themselves to extravagance in order to reach a really comfortable martyrdom. But on the other side of the water damnation is still so freely accorded that a moderately-framed opposition has an effect denied it here. Then, too, the radical writings of the two countries show something of the same contrast that affects their other writings—there a solid, steady movement, striving to settle once for all the points touched with exhaustive scientific completeness, here a brilliant imaginative appeal, addressed as much to the æsthetic taste as to the reason, and strongly colored by our national desire to get thought without the trouble of thinking.

These essays (with an exception or two) first appeared in *Fraser's Magazine* and the *Fortnightly Review*, and in the interval between the first and the last there seems to be a change from a rather cautious to a very outspoken position, though the latter is plainly enough foreshadowed in the earlier writings. The first four and the concluding essay especially form a series which either attempts, with extraordinary care, to lead the reader quietly on to a positivism more and more pronounced at each step, or else, as seems much more probable from Mr. Stephen's temperament, shows a development of his own convictions. The deliberate moderation with which he questions the fairness of the position of the Broad Church in retaining the old forms while rejecting the old substance, ripens into harsher criticism upon those who would cultivate religion as a fine art when they can no longer yield it their faith; the relation of modern science to the older faiths emphasizes more distinctly his radicalism, and at last he ends by stoutly refusing the name of Christian, and vigorously

* 'Essays on Freethinking and Plainspeaking. By Leslie Stephen.' New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons. 1877. (v+, pp. 262.

asserting the duty of avowing his radicalism. His position is so extreme that he is no doubt right in expecting the approval of few Englishmeu but those who already agree with him ; but they will appreciate the vigor of his thoughts and the straightforwardness of their utterance, while those who take the other side will find little that is absolutely new to trouble them. The allusion on page 87 to "some contemptible French author," who explains the origin of modesty by referring it to a savage instinct, is an unnecessary bit of sentimentality from any point of view. M. Littré, who is the author of the suggestion, is well known as the greatest of Comte's followers ; and his theory, or something closely akin to it, is essential to every natural theory of man's intellectual rise from savagery. But sentimentalism is not at all one of Mr. Stephen's faults. He is indeed very English, and the atmosphere in which he writes is always to be borne in mind. The social influence of the Church, and the partial ostracism which radicalism has to meet there, make concealment much commoner than here ; and render it less extraordinary that a man of Mr. Stephen's ability should think that he must discard the name of Christian in order to preserve his honesty.

In this country the position of the English Church has always been different from its native one. From the first it has been essentially a missionary church among the heathen, and it is to-day more marked for the extraordinary intensity with which it preserves its faith in beliefs that are quietly fading from the creeds of its competitors, and the warm zeal with which it seeks to draw the unbeliever into its fold, than for its liberalism or progress. Of course there are broad thinkers within its borders, as every great city can show, but they do not form as prominent and influential a party here as in England. The rejection of the political compromise from which the Church sprang seems to have given it a fresher life here ; and in religion new life generally means firmer hold of doctrine, and stronger conviction that only faith can save. There have been comparatively few representatives of that section of the Broad party which, when the old methods seemed to be failing, boldly ventured to essay the new, and professed to bring the best light of historical criticism and of scientific investigation to bear upon the old dogmas only the better to exhibit their strength. As a movement it was scarcely in accord with the Church here, or indeed with our national instincts, from which the taste for the intellectual discussion of dogmas that our fathers felt so strongly has nearly departed. But even in England it did not succeed. The new wine was too effervescent. It was not, as Mr. Stephen says, because the English creed was, like the English constitution, "the product of a series of compromises, accidents, and bit-by-bit reforms, carried out by no definite principle, but by a sort of indefinite rule of thumb." However true it may be of the constitution, this does not at all represent the growth of the Church. When the Protestant creeds first took shape, the profoundest and subtlest thought of the time still found its best field in such topics. If we consider them unassisted by inspiration, we must still the more acknowledge the transcendent genius of the creation, for each of the great creeds is a perfect logical whole. Starting with its primal assumption that the collective voice of the Church was the voice of God, there was no assailable point in the Catholic creed. And when the stern facts compelled our fathers to doubt the purity of the Church's conscience and reject its authority, they still felt the need of an unquestionable source, and naturally sought and found it in the written Word. They did not go to history or science for evidences of Christianity. The "thus God spake" was final, and the Protestant creed which they built up on it (which, despite a few anomalies, is the creed of the English Church) is harmonious and complete. There would have been an impossible anachronism in supposing that the certainty of these *à priori* foundations could be replaced by any abstruse metaphysical probabilities or vague analogies from natural science. And to-day, much as philosophy and science may do, the certainty of the old faith they cannot give. Modern science has sadly shaken the belief in this infallibility of the holy text, both as to facts and laws. Modern thought has moved away from the creeds, but, however we may regret it, we cannot bring it back by scientific formulas with which they had nothing in common. The Broad Church has not been able to restrain the power it invoked, and again, as in the old legend, the dwarfs cry out that the Siegfried hammer has struck with such crushing energy that metal and anvil are driven into the earth.

The other liberal movement, which asserted that the creed was full of insoluble mysteries, was more successful here. This position had great advantages. It easily disposed of any troublesome points by calling them inscrutable. Of course antiquarians knew well enough that the great thinkers who worked out the creed would have stared in holy horror at the idea that they had left anything spiritually unintelligible or obscure, but modern thought has swept away from them so far that many thinkers, some even of the leading philosophers of the time, have easily followed the suggestion of the Church, and indolently asserted the impossibility of understanding them ; and naturally the method has found great favor in this country, especially in the more liberal sects. In the end, however, this movement, too, must fail, for the great creeds are great wholes from which no part can be severed without perilling the whole. The old legend comes back of the vigil in the valley of St. John, where the knight waits long before the enchanted castle, and at last in impotent, desperate uncertainty dashes his axe against the charmed rock, and finds that with the fall of a single turret the charm has broken and the whole castle lies open. The great creeds were the life of the Christian Church, and it is vain to hope that the Church can retain its influence when it does not insist upon the exclusive power of its creed to save. If the dogmas are acknowledged to be unimportant, men will give but a lax and indolent support to the church which so acknowledges its impotence. Belief must be in something definite and something certain, and it must be all-important. This is what has made Episcopacy and its offspring, Methodism, so successful of late years in this country. It has been perfectly sure. With all our loose breadth we crave sometimes something firmer, right or wrong, or rather something about which there can be no question of right or wrong. Keen as our artistic perceptions are, we are not always satisfied with "that beautiful but shadowy region where romance takes the place of history and poetry of reasoning."

For those who are unable to retain the old faith, but afraid to relinquish it, there is little satisfaction in books like Mr. Stephen's, which only try to show the untenableness of a foothold that they fear to change. The half conviction of insecurity they do not wish to recognize. They dislike to be told that "the division between faith and reason is a half measure till it is frankly admitted that faith has to do with fiction and reason with fact." Yet it is exactly against these half-way believers that Mr. Stephen's book is aimed. He has nothing to say against those who can still adhere fully to the old faith. He is too far away from them to meet them. He half unwillingly recognizes for a moment or two the other extreme of philosophical theism, the doctrine that the God-intoxicated Spinoza gave the clearest form to, but which is as old as the oldest thought—that philosophy which retains the direct personal knowledge of the divine essence, the all-informing eternal substance, "path, motive, guide, original, and end," while it drops all other dogmas. But he touches it only for an instant, for he himself goes further and keeps nothing. But still the old beliefs cover the whole ground, and one watches with interest the close approach of the modern positivist to the ancient stoic ; a likeness of thought rather than feeling it is true, but still a striking one. Both worship the Universal Nature, refusing any further step in Divine definition. Both seek the true life in harmony with universal order. Both make their aim the universal good. "Never repent," says Mr. Stephen, "unless by repentance you mean drawing lessons from past experience. Beating against the bars of fate you will only wound yourself and mar what yet remains to you." The love of those we have lost "is at best an enervating enjoyment, and a needless pain. The figments of theology are a consecration of our delusive dreams ; the teaching of the new faith should be the utilization of every emotion to the bettering of the world of the future." Instead of the utter self-surrender of Christianity Mr. Stephen puts the dignity of self-culture ; instead of asceticism, the training one's instincts "into harmony with the interests of the whole social organism." Resignation where there is a choice is but an "ignoble yielding to evils which might be extirpated." Suffering is an evil to be conquered, or at least stoically withstood, not a punishment to be submitted to ; and our reward lies not in any immortality of personal bliss but in the good we have done, "spreading in widening circles to all eternity." We have but to clothe these thoughts in Latin to transport ourselves to that early time when Christianity was still struggling for existence, and stoicism seemed the only resource.

POOR'S 'MONEY AND ITS LAWS.'*

WE have hesitated a good deal about reviewing Mr. Poor's book—first, because to review it adequately would require a volume of at least half its size ; and secondly, because it is quite plain that in Mr. Poor's opinion no man who has yet written on economical questions is competent to review it. Of its 623 capacious pages only 61 are devoted to what is undoubtedly the most important part of it—in fact, the reason for its

* 'Money and its Laws. Embracing a History of Monetary Theories and a History of the Currencies of the United States. By Henry V. Poor.' New York : H. V. & H. W. Poor. 1877.

existence—the author's account of his "Laws of Money." Of the remainder, 366 are given up to what it is no exaggeration to call scurrilous abuse of some of the most noted writers on economical questions, beginning with Aristotle and ending with David A. Wells. Aristotle he considers the father of modern political economy, and abuses roundly, though for reasons which we have no space to give here. We think his acquaintance with him, except in Bohn's translation of the 'Politics,' is very slight. "The premises from which he reasoned," Mr. Poor says, "were the untrained observations of phenomena or the extravagant pictures of an ardent and fanciful mind." "The conclusions were as grotesque and fanciful" as the premises, and he finally declares with much solemnity that when Plato and Aristotle "came to be authorities in the Church as well as in the Schools a night of intense darkness settled over Europe," a circumstance which he considers by no means "strange." Of Aristotle the Schoolmen were "the legitimate descendants," and all modern economists, except Mr. Poor, are the legitimate descendants of the Schoolmen. It ought to be put down to the credit of Aristotle, however, that in spite of the great increase of light in the world within the last two thousand years, the leading modern economists are just as great fools as their master, except John Locke, who appears to have written soundly on the currency, though even his distinction is not very great, because "he is the only writer on the subject of the currency, except Law, who has not assumed, much less attempted to prove, that two and two make five." Even he, however, "did commit an unpardonable offence, with the Schoolmen," of course. What it was it is hardly necessary to state, in view of the gross and asinine stupidity of those who came after him. John Law gets some faint praise and had some glimmerings of reason, so that Adam Smith and others were able "to construct from the ruins he left behind their grotesque and absurd edifices." Hume comes next, and, like Aristotle, "assumes all his premises without consideration or reflection," and "always follows Law where he is wrong and rejects him wherever he is right." "With Hume," too, "from the perversity or credulity of human nature, a falsehood plausibly told and well stuck to would have all the potency of truth," which is a sorry showing for the great experiential philosopher. Moreover, "as far as any knowledge of monetary science is concerned, a Kaffir might be quoted" (as well as he) "for an authoritative opinion upon the Code of Menu." Poor Hume! Such is fame.

Hume, however, was not, according to our author, half as great a blockhead as Adam Smith, who even outdid in folly and stupidity his master Aristotle. His economical teachings are nothing but "errors and absurdities." He even went so far as in his illustrations "to invert the whole order of nature"—a dastardly and mischievous trick. He hardly wrote a line without making a blunder, because "he was by nature wholly unfitted to conduct a scientific discussion of any kind"; and, "considering his ignorance upon the subject on which he wrote, the groundlessness of his assumptions and conclusions, especially in reference to money, the influence he has exerted is well fitted to excite astonishment"—in Mr. Poor, of course. Next comes the unfortunate Dugald Stewart, whose absurdity is only to be matched by Aristotle, by the Schoolmen, and by modern economists, and three-fourths of whose writings his literary executor ought to have burnt as "a vast mass of rubbish." Huskisson too, acute as he was, could not help making a fool of himself. He "fell into the grossest absurdity for want of a little reflection," and by "accepting dogmas which he never examined." The celebrated Bullion Committee turned out nearly as badly as Aristotle and the Schoolmen. One of their main propositions was "purely imaginary" and "an absurdity on its face," and the report itself has been "one of the most formidable obstacles to the progress of monetary science." Ricardo, if possible, outdid all his predecessors in stupidity, even Smith, for "no sooner did he take up his pen to write on monetary topics than he seemed instantly discharged of all reasoning faculty. In the same sentence he could affirm propositions exactly opposed the one to the other without the least perception of their incongruity"; and by way of illustrating the mental condition of the Economists, Mr. Poor mentions that this unhappy person "occupies the front rank amongst them as an original and profound thinker." The leading witnesses before the Bullion Committee "made statements and drew conclusions as groundless as, and far less valuable than, the speculations of the alchemists." The state of Lord Overstone's mind while he was before the committee was "wild and incoherent," and he got the mind of the committee into the same condition. Mr. Goulburn, the then Chancellor of the Exchequer, uttered stuff "for which a schoolboy should be punished."

Another foolish person was Tooke, the author of the 'History of Prices,' "one of whose fallacies ought to have been palpable to the dullest comprehension," and who devoted the greater part of one thousand pages to proving certain propositions "still more absurd." As to J. R. McCulloch, his assumptions are "the dreams or vagaries of persons bereft of all sense in reference to the subjects to which they relate, and who unfortunately are wholly impervious to reason." For him and the other Scotch economists Mr. Poor feels mingled pity and contempt. Not one of them, "although among the most distinguished of their race, can conduct an argument on money through a single paragraph without involving themselves in the grossest mistakes and contradictions." To what, he not unnaturally asks, is "this apparent feebleness of intellect due"? The answer is, "to the uniformity in religion and dogma which has so long prevailed in their country."

As to John Stuart Mill, suffice it to say that he was "incapable of scientific enquiry," had "a puerile mind" and "an infirm temper." Macleod's writings on economical questions are "flippant and incoherent nonsense," to which "it will not be necessary to reply until Dr. Schliemann shall have dug up Dutch cheeses at Troas or Mycenæ, perfectly fresh and sweet." J. W. Gilbart wrote voluminously on money "without any comprehension of its nature and laws." Mr. Fawcett is all wrong, of course, but not such an egregious ass as Macleod and Bonamy Price. As to Stanley Jevons, he is so foolish, "inadequate, and unphilosophical" that he "does not call for comment"; but "there is a lower depth than even he has sounded, and that has been touched by Bonamy Price." Mr. Poor apologizes for quoting from Price's lectures, but says "it may do some good to show the incoherent buffoonery taught in the name of political economy in one of the first universities in Christendom." The American writers need only brief treatment, as they "simply repeat, without a particle of originality or independence," what they find in the books written on the other side of the water. Professor Bowen is perhaps the silliest of them, and is "feeble and garrulous." Sumner and Perry are disposed of with contemptuous brevity, and David A. Wells is accused of "flippant nonsense."

We had intended making some examination of the author's "Laws of Money," which is, as we have said, the excuse for this large and pretentious book, but, after the above citations, we feel sure our readers will excuse our not undertaking it. A writer whose mind is in the condition indicated by Mr. Poor's language is clearly not qualified for the discovery of any "laws" or the prosecution of any scientific enquiry. As he is evidently not a person with whom it is necessary to mince matters, however, we will say, after a careful reading of his exposition, that in our opinion he does not know the meaning of the terms "induction," or "deduction," or "dialectics"; that he has never been taught to reason at all; that he thinks himself "inductive" when he is floundering in the deepest *à priori* bogs; that he has apparently read far more than he can digest, and that he has produced, all things considered, the most foolish and discreditable book which has issued from the American press for many years; and we would warn foreign readers that there is nothing in the author's position at home to warrant or excuse his abusive and insolent treatment of any writer, ancient or modern.

Reminiscences and Anecdotes of Daniel Webster. By Peter Harvey. (Boston: Little, Brown & Co. 1877.)—We have been somewhat disappointed in reading this volume. From the intimate relations which existed between Mr. Harvey and Mr. Webster, and from the greatness of the latter's career, and the interest of the public questions with which he had to deal, and many of which he had to settle, we anticipated finding in his friend's recollections a valuable collection of anecdote and reminiscence. But it is only too evident after reading a very few pages of the book that the author was not equal to his task. The requisite love and admiration of his subject he possessed, but the equally necessary powers of criticism and judgment he had not. There is something pathetic in the fidelity of his friendship, something almost canine in his unintellectual and undiscriminating loyalty. But the picture he gives of Mr. Webster is, we have no hesitation in saying, neither accurate nor characteristic. Mr. Harvey's Webster is a strange character—a combination of the acute lawyer, the far-seeing statesman, and the steady-going farmer, living a frugal and abstemious life, enjoying a large income and extremely punctilious about money matters, yet with a heavy incubus of debt on his shoulders all his life long; a man with a keen sense of humor, yet whose jests are, when repeated by their admirer, flat and stale to the last degree; a paragon of virtue and intellect, and the most popular politician of his time, whose career culminated in failure. Mr. James Parton

published not many years ago, in the *North American Review*, a picture of Webster in very different colors. Mr. Parton's Webster was an able and ambitious man, destitute of principle, involved in debt through his want of self-control, having no more conscience about money than the *roués* of Sheridan's time, who sold his political soul for a mess of pottage, and finally went to precdained ruin in the due course of events.

Mr. Parton exaggerated his case as far in one direction as Mr. Harvey has done in the other. Mr. Webster had his virtues and his defects, and we do not think the time has yet come, even at a distance of twenty-five years from his death, for an altogether impartial estimate of them. Of one thing there can be no manner of doubt : he was a great advocate and publicist. He had the rare merit in a lawyer of being equally persuasive with judges and juries. His arguments on questions of constitutional and general law had a most profound and far-reaching effect in the development of the system of law dependent upon the written Constitution under which this country has reached its present growth. His diplomatic despatches are models. He lived in a time of great lawyers : Marshall, Kent, Story, Mason, Choate, Shaw, and Wirt are all distinguished names at the American bar, and it is with such names that Webster's must be compared, as in the case of all the great lawyers who have had an important share in the permanent settlement of principles, and not attained their reputation by mere ingenuity or learning. The chief characteristic of his mind was perfect clearness and sound judgment. His argument in the Dartmouth College case is founded on the simplest and most elementary principles of justice ; and the positions he assumed as Secretary of State on the right of search were, as Mr. Harvey says, such that when stated there seems to be no possible doubt about them. It is curious to find him in his discussion of it anticipating the case of the *Virginius*, which proved such a puzzle to so many lawyers of a later day. The right of search, as contended for by the English Government, in Mr. Webster's view had no existence, for the simple reason that a regularly documented American vessel, flying the American flag, was part of American territory, and search of her was merely an act of trespass. But if the vessel be flying the flag without right—as, for instance, in the case of a pirate—she is not an American vessel, and it is nothing to us whether she is searched or not searched. Had this rule been applied to the *Virginius* case at the outset, the absurd idea that we had been insulted by Spain would have been seen to be without foundation.

It is impossible to read even the poorest life of Webster at the present time without being struck with the fact that for such a man there would now be literally no place in public life, and that even at the bar the race of legal giants to which he belonged has almost died out. In a measure this is doubtless due to the fact that public work once done cannot be done over again. The Constitution has been interpreted and the Government established on a sure foundation once and for all. The enormous industrial development which set in about the time that Webster's generation had reached maturity, and which had no effect on the early development of their minds or characters, has produced a new race of lawyers and of public men ; lawyers who devote all their ability—of which the total amount available in the community is probably quite as great as it ever was—to service of the interests of great corporations, interests which generally require skilful advocacy and great ingenuity, but devotion to which does not tend to develop profound lawyers. Meanwhile influences whose operation is now so well understood as to excite little or no attention have weakened the judiciary till lawyers of the calibre of Marshall or Shaw will not go upon the bench, and public life has ceased to offer to men of elevated ambition and self-respect an attractive career. It is curious to speculate on what Webster would have been had he belonged to a later generation. Popular as he was during the greater part of his life in Massachusetts, he would not have had the requisite "magnetism" to succeed now. The popularity of that day was inspired partly by a feeling of reverence and awe both for intellectual greatness and social position which the rapid progress of demagogism since his death has almost totally destroyed. He had not the feelings or tastes which would allow him to associate with his intellectual or social inferiors on the terms of equality now exacted in politics. In law he would have been for the last twenty years on the unsuccessful side in all constitutional arguments. Were he alive now, with his intense ambition and love of success, we should not be surprised at finding him engaged in almost any form of prominent activity—except that in which he distinguished himself when living.

History of Guilford, Connecticut, from its first settlement in 1639. From the MSS. of Hon. Ralph D. Smith. (Albany : Joel Munsell. 1877.)—A little country town sixteen miles from New Haven, on Long Island Sound, settled by farmers from Kent and Surrey, Guilford appears to have had an utterly uneventful history. The land was honestly bought of the Indians, the last purchase being confirmed by Uncas, the famous Mohegan chief, in 1641. The settlers obtained a good wheat and corn-bearing soil, excellent quarries of trap and granite, the best oysters on the Sound, and the aboriginal shell-heaps, which supplied an abundance of artificial manure. Numerous attempts to give a manufacturing character to the place have failed, but some ships have been built, and there is a prosperous iron-foundry. The "mayne end" of the fathers of Guilford (the third settlement in the colony of New Haven) was to "uphold the ordinances of God in an explicit *Congregational church way* with most *purity, peace*, and *liberty* for the benefit both of ourselves and posteritics after us." They therefore excluded non-church-members from the government—the common Puritan polity, and not noteworthy here except that from Guilford and the adjoining town of Branford went those uncompromising come-outers who saw in the union of the Connecticut and New Haven colonies an abandonment of the polity, and who, in founding Newark, New Jersey, made a last vain effort for "the carrying on of spiritual concernments, as also of civil and town affairs, according to God and a godly government." In the mere spirit of adventure, too, Guilford proved an actively swarming hive, sending colonists to all parts of Connecticut, to Berkshire County, Mass., to Guilford (Windham County) and Chittenden County, Vt., to Charlemont and Charleston, N. H., to Greenville, N. Y., etc. Most important of all, Francis Austin, of Guilford, is the reputed ancestor of the notorious Stephen F. Austin, the founder of the present State of Texas.

Schools were established as soon as the church was ; a library in 1737; the first newspaper in March, 1877. The great literary lights of the town were Dr. Samuel Johnson, the first president of King's (now Columbia) College and father of William Samuel, a later president of the same institution ; and Fitz-Greene Halleck, whose descent through his mother from John Eliot is perhaps as deserving of mention as that other fact, that he "was the first American poet to whom was awarded the honor of a bronze statue in a public place"—and such a statue ! Abraham Baldwin, member of the Federal Constitutional Convention and subsequent U. S. Senator ; Thomas Chittenden, first governor of Vermont ; and S. B. Chittenden, the present Representative in Congress, are the chief of Guilford's politicians and statesmen. The town is thought to have the oldest dwelling-house now standing in the United States, dating from 1639, though this pretension will be disputed : the Cradock house in Medford, Mass., is assigned to 1634. Longevity is predicated of the people also. In the early days the town was its own physician, purchasing its medicines out of the common funds, and unanimously voting "yea" in special town-meeting on the question "whether the inhabitants would buy Mrs. Cosster's Physic and Physical drugs." Lawyers have only lately obtained a foothold in Guilford, which boasts that none of its inhabitants was ever hung.

The late Judge Smith left a genealogy of the principal Guilford families, and several works of a like nature, which certainly ought to be published. The profits from the sale of the present volume inure to the benefit of the "United Workers for Public Improvement," an admirable organization of ladies for the purpose of beautifying the town.

Who and What. A Compendium of General Information. Compiled by Annah De Pui Miller. (Philadelphia : J. B. Lippincott & Co. 1878.)—Mrs. Miller's compendium of general information has been compiled on no other principle than that of recording the answers to the various questions that came up in her desultory reading. The editor found the book of value to herself and to her friends, and certainly it contains a good deal of miscellaneous information. The reader can learn who was called "The Bard of Avon," what poem was composed amid the noise of hammers, what century was the age of thought, what great men died of the gout, what great man had epileptic fits ; in short, the questions seem to regard nothing as too important and nothing as too trivial for enquiry. The answers, however, are much less thorough ; in fact, errors are inexcusably frequent. For instance, on page 76, it is stated that Cervantes was born in 1549, and at the end of the paragraph we are told "he saw the light of day just three years before Shakspeare," who was born in 1564, while the true date of Cervantes's birth is 1547. On p. 62 is the question "Who wrote 'Arcadia'?" to which the strange answer is given, "Joseph Addison"; on p. 320, however, the book is ascribed to its author, Sir Philip Sidney. P. 266, Horace Walpole is called the wit and beau of the time of Madame Récamier, this lady being confounded with Madame du

Defiand. P. 277 contains the statement that Dr. Johnson was paid one thousand pounds for his 'Rasselas'; what he really received was one-tenth of that amount, with twenty-five pounds additional when the book reached a second edition. We are also treated with some singular criticism of Dr. Johnson; it is stated that "he was a great bore at times, and so very unprepossessing in appearance as to be frequently shunned, till by his perseverance he made people like him. . . . Notwithstanding these many drawbacks he was worshipped by Boswell, who proved himself a friend when all others deserted him." Elsewhere we are told that after reading Boswell's 'Life of Johnson' "one feels . . . that it might have been better for Johnson had his friend Boswell never been born." It is curious, too, to read about Tennyson that a "great deal that he has written is misty, obscure, and enigmatical," and that his longer poems "must be read and re-read to gather their meaning, and even then one is not always sure that he has the right one." Robert Browning is mentioned as "a poet of no mean pretensions," a rewriting of the verdict given in Cleveland's 'Handbook of English Literature,' where, in a biographical sketch of Mrs. Browning, she is said to have married "Robert Browning, himself no mean poet." In the few lines on Keats it is said that the famous article on "Endymion" in the *Quarterly Review* was written by John Wilson Croker, but it is generally ascribed to Gifford; and then we find currency given to the grossly exaggerated statement of its effect upon Keats's life. The Madame Hanska whom Balzac married was a Russian and not a Polish lady, and Balzac married her in Russia and not in Poland, as is stated on p. 59. It seems hasty to assert, as is done on p. 396, that the thirteenth century "laid the foundation or root of all art," and that the next century was "the age of thought" because "then lived Dante and Giotto." The statement on the next page that Dante and Petrarch were great friends is without foundation, for Dante died when Petrarch was but seventeen years old. One can only smile at the assertion, on p. 379, that the Babylonians were the people who first instituted the custom of sacrificing human victims to conciliate their gods. By a florin is not meant necessarily "an ancient gold coin of Edward III., of six shillings sterling value"; there are also modern coins of that name in Germany, Spain, Holland, and England. As used on p. 232, it would seem that it is the florin of South Germany which is meant, and this is equal to forty cents of our money. P. 13, the familiar line from Pope is misquoted; it should read:

"I lisp'd in numbers, *for* the numbers came."

Omniscience is not to be expected in the writer of a book like this, but there is no excuse for ignorance of the best authorities.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Authors.—Titles.	*Publishers.—Prices*
American Newspaper Directory, swd.	(Geo. P. Rowell & Co.) $1 50
Church (R. W.), Beginning of the Middle Ages.	(Scribner, Armstrong & Co.) 1 00
Duncan (Florence L.), My Intimate Friend: a Tale.	(J. B. Lippincott & Co.) 1 50
Feisenthal (Dr. B.), Zur Proselytenfrage im Judenthum, swd.	(S. Rubovits) 35
Garland (Dr. C. M.), Pneumono-Dynamics, swd.	(Hurd & Houghton)
Gobineau (Comte de), Romances of the East.	(D. Appleton & Co.)
Godwin (P.), Cyclopædia of Biography, new ed.	(G. P. Putnam's Sons) 5 00
Hallier (G.), Renée and Franz: a Tale.	(D. Appleton & Co.)
Jennings (L. J.), Field Paths and Green Lanes.	(D. Appleton & Co.)
Medjeff (G. T.), Tankevirksomhedens Love, swd.	(Christiania)
Moore (T.), Prose and Verse.	(Scribner, Armstrong & Co.) 2 50
Powell (A. M.), State Regulation of Vice.	(Wood & Holbrook)
Shaler (Prof. N. S.), Nature of Intellectual Property.	(J. R. Osgood & Co.)
Sherring (M. A.), The Hindoo Pilgrims: Poetry.	(Trübner & Co.)
Sumner (C.), Speech Prepared for the U. S. Senate, March, 1871, swd.	(Lee & Shepard)
Sunshine of Song.	(Oliver Ditson & Co.)
Taylor (F.), Primer of Pianoforte Playing.	(D. Appleton & Co.)
Wentworth (Prof. G. A.), Elements of Geometry.	(Ginn & Heath)
War Correspondence of the *Daily News*, 1877.	(Macmillan & Co.) 2 50

RECENTLY PUBLISHED:

WALKER'S MONEY. 8vo, $4.
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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, FEBRUARY 7, 1878.

The Week.

SILVER is already so plentiful that it is becoming a heavy burden to rich and poor. A good many of the larger employers, especially in the West, have taken to paying the wages of the work-people in it, thus illustrating afresh the old and well-known rule that when currency begins to depreciate, the laborer is the first to feel the effects of it; or, in other words, that when there is any "cheap money" afloat the poor man, to his cost and sorrow, gets more of it than any one else. Now it begins to afflict the storekeepers and the banks, and there promises to be a rising against it. Some dealers have already begun to protect themselves against it by refusing to receive more than ten dollars of it in a single payment. Others, who deal in the necessaries of life on a close margin of profit, are putting up their prices, and, as in the old days of fluctuating gold, the money-brokers are the only persons whom the confusion is helping. A meeting of the Board of Trade, called by three hundred leading firms, was held on Monday to take these facts into consideration, and a memorial to Congress was adopted describing the situation, and asking that sapient body to consider what it will be if the Bland Bill is passed. Resolutions were also passed recommending the associated banks of this city, in case the Bland Bill passes, to "take measures, as a protection to themselves and the community, to consider gold values as the standard or par, and quote all other values at a discount or premium thereon as the case may be, thereby making gold coin the monetary standard of value throughout the community."

We may add that the phenomena which we are now witnessing, or about to witness, here, were to be witnessed in Canada after the subsidiary silver had been driven out of the United States by the greenbacks. Most of it went over the border, and the Canadian tills and safes became so glutted with it that the dealers had to protect themselves as ours are now doing. That is, when you went into a store in Montreal or Quebec and asked the price of an article, you were asked what you were going to pay in—if in silver, the price was so much; if in gold or bank-bills, so much. As the silver had to be got rid of by selling it to brokers at a discount, this discount at least had to be added to the price. This state of facts is puzzling the local silver-men a good deal, and a majority of them have reflected so little on the subject that the most familiar and most easily predicted occurrences of the market take them by surprise. Some of them say that "silver happens to be plentiful about here (the great money centre of the Union) just now," and that the glut is due to "the refusal of the Government to accept its own coin," and offer other nursery explanations which are neither worth repeating nor discussing. The struggle between them and the commercial community begins to remind one of the struggles the merchants in some of the South American States used to have to protect themselves against the savage gauchos of the pampas, who despised anybody who was not equal to one night's gallop, and did not mind what he said on any subject.

The glut of silver has made its appearance as far west as Minnesota, and the merchants are complaining of it all over the State. By way of cheering them up, the Cincinnati *Commercial* explains to them that it is all owing to the fact that "the machinery of the mint and of the whole Treasury Department is in the hands of persons unfriendly to silver"; that is, there is a coolness between them and silver. Feeling lonesome and friendless, accordingly, in Washington, silver wanders off to country stores and banks, and lodges in the tills and vaults, sad and sorrowful. Put kind hearts in charge of the mint and the Treasury, who would smile on silver and receive it, and it would stay in that neighborhood and not bother the merchant elsewhere. The cold and cynical "goldites" will probably deny that money circulates by love and friendship, but the lively Chicago and Cincinnati financiers know better. This suggests the question whether we ought not to have women in charge of the mint and the Treasury, and not women only, but mothers? In fact, does not one need to be a mother to know how to manage silver, and make it the affectionate and faithful currency which the *Commercial* says it is sure to become, if not harshly treated?

The chief incident in Congress during the week has been the report of the new tariff by the Committee on Ways and Means. Though no measure is more certain to undergo radical changes before enactment, we have endeavored in another column to give a fair idea of its complexion. The House had the day before voted against reducing the present tax on whiskey. On Monday an Ohio member, Mr. MacMahon, who it is needless to say is a Democrat, moved to suspend the rules in order to instruct the Committee on Ways and Means to report in hot haste an income tax. He was disturbed by the present condition of public distress, and thought it important that "the wealthy of the country should bear a fair proportion of the burdens of taxation." In spite of the geographical quarter from which this proposal emanated, the requisite two-thirds could not be obtained for it; but as the spirit of the mover was the same as that which actuates the inflationists, repudiationists, silver-men, and communists who now control the House of Representatives, it mustered 165 yeas to 88 nays. The South and West were almost solid in favor of it. On Wednesday week the Senate ratified a treaty with Samoa, which happily commits us to no protectorate or other form of responsibility for the islanders and does secure some commercial and naval advantages. The Bland Bill has been the steady occupation of the Senate, but to enumerate all the amendments which must be got out of the way before a vote can be taken on it would surely be a thankless task. On Monday Mr. Bayard took manly ground against it, and Mr. Beck, to the surprise of some of his colleagues, moved an amendment for the appreciation to the full value of the silver dollar of the halves, quarters, and dimes. He took occasion to manifest his sympathy with Mr. Matthews's indifference to "abroad" by saying that "he did not want any foreign Government, or the citizens of any foreign Government, to have dealings with our mints." But he did not indicate the way in which he would prevent the German Government from selling our mint its cast-off silver. On Tuesday, Mr. Eaton spoke against the bill, but proposed a silver dollar containing six more grains (440) than Senator Christiancy's. In both houses petitions were presented to the effect that the unexpended balance of the Chinese indemnity fund of 1856, which equitably does not belong to the United States, should be applied through a commission to the relief of the famine-stricken districts of Northern China.

Mr. Bayard, of Delaware, has again distinguished himself by an able speech in the Senate on the Silver Bill, which goes over the ground very thoroughly, and which, with the recent speech of Mr. Edmunds, would make an excellent document for popular distribution. Mr. Bayard has rendered such good service on the currency question and in defence of the public credit that he now has all the outward marks of a Republican as depicted in Republican newspapers, and the only reason he is not acknowledged to be one is that he holds certain opinions on questions and events now purely historical. But the line of demarcation between such men as he and that small portion of the Republican party which remains true to Republican traditions, cannot last very much longer with safety. The longer the silver agitation lasts the more clearly it appears that it is but part of a communistic movement directed against all accumulated property, and against the influence of skill, experience, and training

in public affairs. The income-tax bill is but a branch of the same undertaking, and the mischief and danger of it lie not so much in the objects it now aims at as in the spirit in which it is prosecuted, the barbaric hostility to civilization it exhibits, and the contempt for all the great traditions of American politics. To resist it the best men of all parties must unite, whatever be their opinions about the bygone and the irreversible.

The trial of Anderson, of the Louisiana Returning Board, continues at New Orleans; but it is difficult, owing to the meagreness of the reports of the evidence received by telegraph, to say whether the case made out against him is strong or not. The Democratic papers naturally declare it to be conclusive, and his conviction seems probable. Wells has surrendered. Instead of having come on to Washington, he had been concealed in the neighborhood of New Orleans, waiting, he says, for a new jury panel to be made up, and probably, too, for the result of his application to Judge Bradley for the removal of his case to the Federal courts. This Judge Bradley has refused, with the concurrence of the other judges of the Supreme Court, and for reasons which we hope will by and by work their way into the heads of the opponents of the President's "policy." He decides once more, as Chief-Justice Waite decided in South Carolina, that the Fourteenth Amendment only protects citizens against unjust State legislation, and not against the misconduct of State officers. Wells's allegation, therefore, that he could not have a fair trial under the State jury law was, in Judge Bradley's eyes, refuted by an examination of the law, which seemed unobjectionable, and he held that for any impropriety in the execution of the law the Federal courts supplied no remedy.

There are still reports afloat that Wells, and perhaps others of the Board, will "develop" if they do not receive "protection" from Washington; but how the protection could be given has not been explained, and the persons whom the "developments" would, it is said, affect are not alarmed. Governor Nicholls is said to be opposed to the prosecution, and many Northern papers call it a breach of faith to try these men for "political offences." It may be a breach of faith on somebody's part to try them; but we trust it will never be acknowledged by either lawyers or politicians that forgery and falsification are "political offences." They are criminal offences, whatever be the subject-matter with which they deal, whether the Presidential chair or $10. The impropriety of making custom-house officers of Wells and Anderson becomes plainer every day. Men who had so completely forfeited the confidence of the community, whether justly or unjustly, ought never to have been taken into Government employ. It appears on the trial that every one of the Returning Board clerks, some of them pattern rascals, was given a place in the custom-house also.

It was a striking but not surprising fact that such native Southerners as went into business with the carpet-baggers outdid their foreign allies in the depth and breadth of their corruption. The latest revelation on this subject touches Mr. M. C. Butler, noted for his connection with the Hamburg massacre and recently elected United States Senator from South Carolina. He seems, indeed, to be up to his neck in one of the worst jobs of the carpet-baggers. In 1871 the carpet-bag bonded debt had already been contracted, and it was well known to be fraudulent as well as monstrous. A taxpayers' convention was held in 1871, composed chiefly of Conservatives, which we noticed at the time; it was of course an object for the carpet-baggers to obtain its endorsement for their debt. Accordingly Butler and one Gary, both influential members of the body, entered into a contract to get this endorsement, and to take their pay for it in the shape of ten per cent. of the profits to be made in a speculation in the bonds, which were expected to rise handsomely under the action of the convention. The speculation failed, because the bonds did not rise; the speculators were out of pocket, and Butler was called on for his contribution to make up the loss, which he refused on the ground that he was only to share in the profits, and he has been taken into court by his confederates, where the transaction has been exposed. It is a shameful story, in many ways far more shameful than the story of Cardoza, or Smalls, or even Patterson. The revelations of the Ring frauds made before the Legislative Committee at Columbia continue to leak out, and another damaging letter of Chamberlain's has been published. This gentleman, who was a member of the above Convention, and who was apparently made aware of the disgraceful contract, wrote to his "dear Kimpton" that he "would co-operate with Butler and Gary in every possible way."

The Comptroller-General of Georgia in his last official report gives the number of colored voters in the State as 84,164. They own 457,635 acres of land, valued on the tax-list at $1,244,000, and city property valued at $1,199,725. Their household goods are worth $486,522, and altogether, with their cattle and horses and implements and savings in bank, they are supposed to be worth over $5,000,000, which, for a purely laboring population just emerged from slavery and weighted in the race of life in all sorts of ways, is not a bad showing.

There has been a dispute raging for some time in the Legislature and the press over the disposition of the constitutional amendment on city government recommended by the late New York Municipal Commission. The last Legislature passed it *en bloc;* if this Legislature passes it, it will be submitted to the people at the next election. The Democrats, however, have opened up a fierce opposition to the section limiting the suffrage in the election of the Board of Finance, and the Republicans are, on a point of that kind, afraid to lag behind them. Even those who really do not disapprove of the restriction manage to oppose it under cover of a solemn conviction that it cannot be adopted. So it has been proposed either to submit the amendment without the suffrage section, or to break it up and submit the suffrage section separately. Such lawyers as Judge Comstock and Messrs. Peckham, Choate, and Robinson deny that this can be done, to which Mr. Bradford Prince, who advocates it, replies that it has been done in other cases; but it seems dangerous, nevertheless, to try it, and the safe thing would seem to be either its submission as it stands, or its separation by this Legislature and transmission to another in the separated form. Upon its value without the suffrage restriction there is a great deal taken for granted and very little said. This, which is the principal point, has not had nearly as much discussion expended on it as the improbability that the people would adopt the amendment as it stands.

In the financial markets the conclusion of the armistice had the effect of advancing British consols to 96¼; there was no effect on the money market here, although breadstuffs and provisions declined in price. At the close of the week, when the armistice seemed less likely to lead to peace, consols lost of the advance. United States bonds in London early in the week recovered part of the decline caused by the adoption of the Matthews resolution in the House, but later this was again lost and again partly recovered, the market for these securities varying with the tenor of advices from Washington respecting silver remonetization. At the New York Stock Exchange a duller week has not been known for years, and stock speculation was as nearly stagnant as it is possible for it to be with the Stock Exchange doors open. The reasons assigned for this stagnation are that the leading speculators are bewildered in the face of the uncertain news from Europe; of the news from Washington, where it is yet an open question whether the 412½-grain silver dollar will be authorized, and if it is, whether it will lead to inflation or contraction, or whether the effect will not be contraction first and inflation later; and, finally, of the condition of the railroad war, which has been patched up during the week by a settlement that may prove only a truce, to be followed by active war even before the opening of navigation a few weeks hence. United States bonds here have been weak. The 4 per cent. bonds, which are now offered for sale direct to the public, could throughout the week be bought for a less price at the Stock Exchange than the price at which the Treasury is, under the law, able to sell them. Silver in

London advanced to 54*d.* per oz., English standard, and the bullion in a 412½-grain silver dollar could not have been sold at the close of the week for more than 90½ cents gold, $0.9049. The gold value of the "paper dollar"—that is, the promise of the Treasury to pay one dollar—ranged between $0.9756 and $0.9815. In the city of New York there were 129 failures during January on liabilities of $7,113,039; the total assets available for the payment of these liabilities was only $1,433,839.

It was only on Thursday last that the armistice was actually signed, and the conditions which are to form the basis of the treaty of peace definitively announced. The long delay which caused so much excitement in England, and which was, there appears no reason to doubt, not understood even at St. Petersburg, was most probably due both to the unreadiness of the Turkish plenipotentiaries to accept their hard fate and to the desire of the Russians to get as far south as possible, and if possible close in the peninsula on which the capital stands, before stopping their march. The line of demarcation during the armistice has not yet been settled, but when hostilities ceased the Russians were across the railroad where it deflects to the east at Demotika, twenty-five miles south of Adrianople, and held it towards Constantinople down as far as Tchorlu, while their van had pressed down along the Maritza to Feredshik, within a few miles of the sea, on their right, and on their left had reached Rodosto, on the Sea of Marmora, to which point the cavalry had escorted a vast body of Mussulman fugitives—estimated at 50,000—after having disarmed the men. In fact, they may be said to hold the whole of Bulgaria and Rumelia, except the capital, and they had already shut in the garrisons of the Quadrilateral, and cut the line between Varna and Shumla, before the armistice was signed. The armistice provides for the evacuation of the five strongholds and Erzerum, and Erzerum is already in their hands, whether in pursuance of the agreement or through the exhaustion of the defenders does not yet appear. The Servians and Montenegrins, also, have been arrested in a victorious march—the Servians very reluctantly, but the Montenegrins, probably, gladly enough, "unconquered and weary of conquering." The Turk has now no hope but in the fears or generosity of the Powers.

The terms of peace are substantially those which we discussed last week as probable: the erection of Bulgaria into a principality —perhaps paying a round sum in tribute in lieu of taxes; a war-indemnity, either in money or territory; the independence of Montenegro, Servia, and Rumania, with an increase of territory for each; reforms (which probably means "local autonomy") in Bosnia and Herzegovina; an ulterior understanding between Turkey and Russia as to the Dardanelles, and the evacuation of Widdin, Rustchuk, Silistria, Shumla, and Varna. All these points are, however, to be debated and settled in a conference at Vienna which Austria has called, and at which at this writing all the Powers except Russia had agreed to appear, and she will doubtless do so at once. Austria seems to have grown restive under the delay in announcing the conditions, and, when announced, to have been troubled by the extent to which the proposed changes will touch her. She is reported to have mobilized one corps, and Russia, as if to keep herself formidable during the negotiation, is massing heavy reserves in Rumania. Austria has a keen interest in the reorganization of Bulgaria, Herzegovina, and Bosnia, and in the enlargement of Servia and Montenegro, which will probably throw her into close relations with England during the Conference. Turkey is to be represented, but it seems rather as a piece of courtesy than because her say will have any weight; in fact, the empire in Europe is gone, and the Eastern Question, after eighty years of postponement, has come up this time inevitably, Russia being thus far the only Power that has got any weight or credit out of it.

The Greeks, who, partly owing to English remonstrances, partly to their fear of the Turkish fleet, and partly to their poverty, kept out of the fray until it was plainly drawing to its end, threw off all restraint last week, crossed the frontier into Thessaly with 10,000 regulars and many volunteers, from Lamia, and, meeting with no opposition, marched straight on Dhomoko, the first town on their way, and stormed it, taking the garrison of 1,300 men prisoners with slight loss to themselves, and at the latest accounts were still advancing, and 7,000 men more were entering Epirus. They probably think that if they could take Larissa, they might claim the province before the Conference. The Turks have, however, sent their ironclads, under Hobart, to the Piræus, which has caused a panic at Athens, and there are fears that there may be a force landed up in the Gulf of Lamia, which would cut the Greek army off. Admiral Hobart's career in the Black Sea has been so inglorious that he is probably glad of an opportunity of attacking somebody, and the Greeks are an attractive enemy for a man in his plight. The excuse of the Greek Ministry is that they have entered Turkey to save Christians from massacre during the troubled period now approaching, which has some foundation in fact. The Turk, when things are going badly with him, usually looks about him to see whether there is not somebody whose throat he can cut without risk. It makes him feel more comfortable and softens his afflictions.

The debate in the House of Commons continues at this writing, the ministerial prospects on the whole improving, owing to the magnitude of the Russian demands, their vagueness, the delay there has been in communicating them, and the somewhat minatory air of the Czar's address to the troops at St. Petersburg on Saturday, when he said that "they were still far from the end," and must continue prepared until they had secured a solid and enduring peace. The conclusion of the armistice, too, and the calling of the Conference have diminished the Liberal fears of a sudden lapse into war, and other leaders in the House of Commons see and acknowledge the necessity of sending a British representative to Vienna with a united nation at his back. If, therefore, Mr. Forster's amendment is pushed to a division, which it may not be, the Ministry, it is thought, will get a majority of 100. But however the Eastern question may be settled, there is no question that it has in a measure passed out of English hands. A consciousness of the mistakes made on this point shows itself in Lord Derby's reply to a deputation of Greek residents in London, on Tuesday, when he read a despatch of his of 1877 showing that he had been the friend of the Greeks from the beginning, and would endeavor to protect their interest at the Conference, and, while not blaming them for invading Turkey, promised to try and settle this unfortunate affair. There are, in fact, many signs that the Ministry will now try a new rôle in the Levant.

The Turks, in the meantime, have been trying to prepare themselves for the Conference by another change of costume. The creation of the constitution and the parliament not having produced the desired effect on the European mind, the office of grand vizier, which has come down from the earliest days of the Caliphate, has been abolished, and a regular European ministry substituted for it, with its "portfolios" of War, Marine, Foreign Affairs, Commerce, and so on. The object of this evidently is to produce the impression that now that peace has been restored there is going to be more "reform" than ever, and that the little that remains to be done to make Turkey a modern state will be done right speedily. The new President of the Council, Ahmed Vefik Effendi, is one of the few genuinely civilized and cultivated Turks in existence, and his colleagues are mostly men of progressive views. Mahmoud Damad, the Sultan's brother-in-law, an ignorant Turk of the old school, whose influence has, with slight intermissions, been predominant at the Palace during the whole war, and has been vicious in every way, goes into retirement at last. He has many of the mental characteristics of an American silver-man—such as hostility to special training or experience and contempt for "abroad." We believe he can neither read nor write, and is, in fact, a "practical statesman."

"THE ART OF POLITICS."

THE failure or refusal of the President to bring any influence to bear in favor of or in opposition to particular legislation, such as the Silver Bill, for instance, is naturally exciting a good deal of comment, and most of it hostile. Most people, whether friends or enemies of the Administration, admit that the President is not confined either by the Constitution or expediency to the simple execution of the laws. He is directed to recommend legislation to Congress, and long and well-established usage allows him to employ whatever influence his position gives him to promote such legislation as he approves and oppose such as he disapproves. Unfortunately, the way in which the President has for many years exerted this influence is by offering a share in the patronage as a sort of bribe to the members of both Houses. This usage has existed so long that members of the party in power have got into the way of being indifferent to all legislation until they see what are the President's wishes about it. In other words, no matter how important it may be, or how plainly the Constitution has made it their concern, they give no heed to it until they hear from the White House whether they are to be rewarded for looking after it, and the reward, of course, consists in having their applications for offices properly recorded and attended to. It is in this way Presidents have influenced legislation for the last forty years. It was in this way Pierce, Buchanan, Lincoln, and Grant did it. It was in this way Johnson could have done it if he had not arrayed himself against a strong and even passionate public opinion on a leading question.

Mr. Hayes's refusal, in obedience to the party platform, to resort to this means of controlling and directing Congressional action, being a sudden and somewhat violent departure from a well-established custom, is accordingly producing a good deal of confusion in the political world. The Congressmen of his own party came to Washington ready "to support the Administration" in the usual way—that is, to vote as the Administration wishes on particular measures on being asked to do so, and on the assumption that compliance will be of service to them afterwards. Not receiving the expected intimation from the White House, they are accordingly surprised, angry, and demoralized. They exhibit great carelessness about the Silver Bill, for instance, and other attacks on the public credit. They do not resist them in debate or only resist them feebly. They do not defend the Administration when it is assailed, and, in fact, treat public business as if it was only in a very slight degree their business. When the newspaper correspondents ask them the meaning of their lukewarmness they reply that they are very willing to stand by the President and the party, but they must first know what he wants. That they have themselves duties and responsibilities as legislators, wholly independent of the President's plans and wishes, is an idea which, however prominent in the political system of the country, exists only very faintly in their minds. To all old politicians the spectacle is, therefore, a shocking one; to patriotic men of all classes it is, though for a different reason, more or less painful and disheartening. In fact, it is somewhat of an approach to the absence of all government. A country may have all the needed branches of a government, and yet if no one be responsible for the initiation and conduct of legislation, government, in the full sense of the term, can hardly be said to exist.

We ventured to point out some months ago the danger of the President's abandoning the old means of influencing Congress without providing himself with a new one, apropos of the silver movement, which had then begun to look threatening; that is, if he ceased to lead the party through the "spoils system," he would have, we maintained, to lead it through persuasive force and close contact with public opinion. Congress, as now composed, and especially the Republicans in Congress, are not ready to be let alone. They cannot as yet dispense with inspiration from the White House. The President cannot without mischief divest himself all of a sudden of the functions of a party leader; but no President can be a party leader under the new régime which the Cincinnati platform prescribes, and which public opinion longs for, who has not himself strong and definite convictions on the prominent questions of the day, and who is not supported by a united Cabinet who share those convictions. If Mr. Lincoln had had doubts whether it was better to carry on the struggle or not, or whether it would not be as well to compromise, and part of his Cabinet were in favor of peace, part in favor of war, and part in favor of a mixture of war and peace, he could not have made any impression on Congress or anybody else, even with the assistance of patronage. And yet the President is now in a position somewhat analogous to that here described. His own opinions on the silver movement are not, we take it, very clear or deep-seated or long held. The civil-service question, too, evidently still lies in his mind in a somewhat nebulous condition. He is not prepared to produce on either subject what the reporters call a "ringing" message, which would rouse the country and rally round him that large body of persons, both in and out of Congress, who instinctively follow a man who knows what he wants and makes it plain that he means to get it. The silver-men, or some body or class of persons, ought at this moment to dread his pen. There ought to be no speculation and no contradictory reports as to what he thinks and is going to do about a subject which is shaking American society to its centre, and on which the attention of the civilized world is fixed. His Cabinet, too, does not stand well together on anything. Two members care about civil-service reform, and three or four care about a stable standard of value; if the Administration was going to charge on either of the great questions of the hour, two at least would remain in their tents and look on. To be sure, in all this the Administration simply reflects the condition of the Republican party itself. But if we are going to dispense with the influence of office-jobbing, this state of things will not do; and yet it is a state of things which may be called the natural result of prolonged office-jobbing. The President, having been bred under the old system, probably did not foresee the new duties which the refusal to share his patronage with Congress would impose on him, and the increased need it would create for a united Cabinet with definite and pronounced ideas.

This is not the whole of the difficulty, however. Some of our papers—the New York *Tribune* for one—fancy that all the trouble is due to the fact that the President's advisers are "doctrinaire reformers," who have not learnt the "art of politics"—"one of the most delicate of the arts"—and the writer points to the way in which it is acquired in England as a contrast to the way in which some of "the counsellors" who surround Mr. Hayes have acquired it. He says:

"An Englishman goes into public life as he would go into one of the liberal professions, and before he reaches a high position in the Government he is expected to learn the art of politics in some inconspicuous place not beset with responsibilities too great for his strength. He has a pride in his career and a regard for its good repute. Naturally, therefore, he has made politics a highly honorable profession—honorable not only in its objects, but in its surroundings, in the social rank which it confers, and the associations and habits which attend it.

"But in the reaction against political corruption which has agitated the country during the past six or seven years we are in danger of committing a mischievous piece of extravagance. We must not forget that governing the United States is an art, and a very difficult art, and it cannot be learned in a week or two by smart lawyers, merchants, ministers, and authors, who have had no experience in the management of men and parties. The reformers of our day are too much inclined to consider it the highest recommendation of a candidate for a political post that he is 'no politician'; which is much as if they should undertake to correct the evil tendencies of the stage by insisting that all plays should be performed by men who are 'no actors.' It is not usual to value a doctor for his ignorance, or to select gentlemen who have never practised law for elevation to the bench, however highly they may be distinguished for general intelligence and personal virtue. But the principles of common sense which are so rigorously applied to the liberal professions are too often forgotten when we come to deal with affairs of state. The doctrinaire reformer believes that he can practise one of the most delicate of arts without having learned how, and that the right way to govern a political party is to put it under the care

of persons who have no practical knowledge of the mechanism of politics. This is pestilent nonsense."

These are valuable observations because the writer, though he accuses the wrong man, has discovered the *corpus delicti*. But the phrase "art of politics" does not bear the same meaning either in England, France, Germany, or any other civilized country which it bears in the United States to-day, and which the *Tribune* evidently gives it. The young politician in these countries learns "the mechanism of government" simply as a young military officer learns his drill—that is, as necessary, but only as the rudiments of the art. To him "politics" does not mean simply the art of getting and controlling votes, but the art of legislation—that is, of dealing with the leading problems of human society, finance, administration of justice, diplomacy, poor relief, education, and so on, *through laws*. He learns his trade through the study of "questions," and politics to him is "questions," not electioneering. Our politicians, on the other hand, occupy themselves with the "mechanism of government" solely. Accordingly, there is not a leading statesman in France, England, or Germany who would not at this moment be considered a simple-minded visionary, or doctrinaire, or ninny, and, in fact, be laughed at, in any assembly of American politicians, even though he had shown himself capable of giving great empires strength, liberty, security, and honor. One little fact will illustrate the difference better than whole pages of exposition. When the German Government proposed its scheme of recoinage and demonetization of silver, it printed its plan and distributed it among all the leading students of finance in the kingdom—the professors, bankers, and writers, and so on, and, if we remember rightly, left it a year in their hands, and solicited their comments on it, before attempting to legislate. In other words, it brought all the intelligence, experience, and learning of the nation to bear on the problem before touching it. Contrast this with the financial performances and equipment of Bland or Stanley Matthews, and we have the whole story in a nutshell. Who supposes that the able and skilful economists who have, during the last seven years, managed the public finances of France and the Bank of France, would carry any weight in certain quarters in this country if they were among the President's counsellors? And yet what matchless work they have done for the civilization of a great people!

The application of this to the situation at Washington is, we hope, obvious. If the President gets around him real politicians, that is, men who understand government as an art in which electioneering is merely a beginning, he inevitably cuts himself off, to a certain extent, from the sympathies of the other kind of politicians in whose hands the party management mostly lies. The members of a Cabinet so composed, however closely they might attend to their real duties, and however great their authority on all questions of legislation, would pass for "doctrinaires" and "visionaries," and be scoffed at and set upon, very much as Mr. Schurz is to-day; and yet no one can deny that the great end of all reform is to give such men their due influence in the transaction of our public business. But the remedy lies far beyond the reach of any President. It consists in the inculcation at school and college, and everywhere else where American boys and girls are trained, of greater respect for special knowledge, and greater faith in it, and greater willingness to be guided by it in the management of the national concerns. The notion that it is our amateur politicians who consider governing an easy art is a very queer error. It is the bulk of American voters who labor under this delusion, and it is this delusion more than any other which the next generation will have to fight, if we are to be saved from the ups and downs of republics further south.

SOME OBSERVATIONS ON THE PROPOSED NEW TARIFF.

MR. WOOD'S new tariff bill made its appearance last Thursday, and although the time since elapsed has been too short to allow a thorough comparison with the existing tariff to be made, our readers will be interested in the result of a cursory and partial examination of this important document. The introductory clause proposes to let the bill take effect January 1, 1879, thus unusually prolonging the period during which business must inevitably suffer from whatever changes may be enacted. As a commendable general feature of the bill we may point out that it proposes to do away with all complicated duties (specific and ad valorem combined), and to substitute therefor simple specific or ad-valorem rates, thus fulfilling the promise of effectual simplification. Before reviewing the different rates of duties proposed in Sec. 1 we will consider the general changes comprised in the sections following.

Sec. 2 substitutes for the present dutiable charges of packing inland freight, export duty, commission, etc., a general and uniform addition of five per cent. on the first cost of the goods, which in many cases, where ad-valorem duties are imposed, will amount to a reduction of duty, and in all such cases will relieve the importer as well as the appraiser from the difficulties hitherto frequently encountered on the score of charges.

Sec. 3 authorizes an unlimited use of bonded warehouses for the manufacture of bonded goods into articles of export. This privilege may prove of some value, but it will probably be applicable only to such articles as can be exported in large quantities.

Sec. 7 puts an intelligible construction on the amount of personal property which passengers arriving from foreign countries shall be allowed to bring in free, and does away with the vexatious question whether such property has been in use or not. The amount to be allowed to each passenger is wearing apparel to the extent of $200 in value, and other property to the extent of $500.

Sec. 14 in like manner defines more distinctly the privilege granted to States, municipal corporations, and to religious and scientific associations, of importing free of duty works of art and articles of a scientific or artistic nature.

Sec. 20 increases the duties enacted by ten per cent. on the amount of duty on importations from any country that discriminates in its own duties on imports by imposing higher rates upon imports from the United States than upon those from other countries. This clause appears to be rather loosely drawn, inasmuch as it is left doubtful whether such discrimination, practised by any foreign country, must be a discrimination against the United States and in favor of all other countries, or whether any discrimination in favor of one other country and against all the rest, the United States included, shall bring on the proposed retaliation. If the latter were the correct construction the effect would probably be that the additional ten per cent. would have to be imposed on our importations from nearly every country in Europe, since most of these countries have, by their special treaties made within the past twenty years, granted special advantages to the country with which any treaty was made. The case might thus occur that we should have to levy a discriminating duty upon all imports from a country that had granted to some other country a certain favor, though this favor may in no way affect the interest of the United States.

Sec. 21 proposes to enact the most radical of all the changes, inasmuch as it not only grants the free importation of all materials used in the construction, equipment, or repair of vessels of the United States, but also effects a total repeal of our navigation laws by offering the American flag and register to all vessels wholly owned by American citizens. Curiously enough, this sweeping change has attracted but little attention so far, and is passed over in silence by the explanatory notes appended to the bill.

Among the general enactments we miss a clause permitting goods lying in bond at the time the bill goes into effect to be entered for consumption at the reduced rates of duty. Unless this privilege does not require special enactment, the omission will result in great disturbance of trade.

Returning to the consideration of the rates of duty to be enacted by the first section of this bill, we have to say that a reliable estimate and comparison of the new duties on manufactures of cotton, wool, linen, and silk with the existing duties would, owing to the radical changes proposed in the manner of assessing such duties, require more study and more practical knowledge than we have as yet been able to bring to bear on this important subject.

We may, however, state our impression that the proposed rates of duty on dry goods generally would effect a moderate reduction of [illegible] but not sufficient to affect the present position the present duties, but not [illegible] of our own industries.

In Schedule B, treating of earth and earthenware, the most important change appears to be in the duty on plate-glass, of which the sizes imported in the largest quantities, particularly of silvered plate, are assessed at increased rates, which, it is said, will act in a great measure as prohibitory.

In Schedule C—hemp, jute, etc.—the proposed changes appear to effect more or less reduction of duties on the raw materials.

In Schedule D—liquors—the present uniform duty on still wine in casks of 40 cents per gallon and of $1 60 per dozen in bottles, which has favored the importation of the better qualities, is replaced by rates varying according to cost from 25 cents to $1 50 per gallon on wines in casks, and 100 per cent. ad valorem on wine in bottles, which will again discriminate in favor of inferior qualities.

Schedule E—metals.—Here the prominent feature seems to be a reduction of duty on pig-iron from $7 to $5 a ton, and a great simplification of the present tariff by rendering all steel, and most manufactures of iron and steel, subject to a duty of 35 per cent. ad valorem; the most important exception being steel rails, which are to pay 1 cent per pound, or about 64 per cent. on their present foreign value. The retention of the excessive duty of $1 50 per package on gold-leaf, and 75 cents on silver-leaf, will gratify the numerous smugglers who for years past have shown marked predilection for these articles.

Passing over Schedule F—provisions—where no remarkable change seems to be proposed, we come to Schedule G, treating of the important article of sugar, which, it is generally understood, has been fixed by the excellent member of the sub-committee from Louisiana. The result, as was to be expected, proves to be a general advance of the existing high duties and an increased discrimination against the higher grades, which mainly compete with New Orleans sugars. This proposed change will no doubt be widely discussed by our refiners. We will, therefore, leave its discussion to these experts, and merely draw attention to the clause which makes not only the color of sugars, but also their pulverization, a criterion for their classification for duty, which will prove, therefore, the reverse of simplification.

Of Schedules H, I, J, and K we merely observe that the existing high rates on spices, cigars, and tobacco, though simplified, appear to be fully maintained, while woods are favored with a considerable reduction.

Schedule L—wool and woollens—proposes to effect the greatest and most important reduction of duties contained in the bill by an abatement of about 33 per cent. on the existing high rates of duty on raw wool. The classifications of the present tariff are nominally retained, but the existing distinction between clothing and long combing wool is effectually abolished, and both classes, when unwashed, are made subject to a simple duty of 8 cents per pound on wool costing 32 cents and under, and of 10 cents on wool costing over 32 cents per pound. Why this useless distinction should be maintained and allowed to mar the undoubted improvement here proposed it is difficult to explain. The bill also maintains the existing discrimination in favor of English long wools (Class II.) which are allowed to come in *washed* at the single rate of duty, while washed clothing wool has to pay double the rate of unwashed. This discrimination, it is well understood among the trade, was introduced into the tariff of 1867 at the instigation of a prominent New England manufacturer, to whose special benefit it has inured, and who will rub his hands in the grave that now covers him if he learns that his heirs are to continue enjoying the benefit under a reformed tariff. The proposed reduction on fine wool, though less than what was expected and what was promised by the Morrison bill, will no doubt be thankfully accepted by our manufacturers. On carpet wools (Class III.) the proposed reduction of duty amounts to ½c. and 1c. per pound, according to first cost, the low-duty limit being maintained at 12 cents per pound, as at present.

We pass over Schedule M—sundries—with the remark that books are uniformly charged 20 per cent. ad valorem. This is an apparent reduction on the existing duty (25 per cent.), but it does [illegible] limitation of twenty years after publication, away with the prese[illegible] by virtue of which books of an earlier date are admitted duty free. On the one hand, therefore, libraries, collectors, and special students will be severely taxed, while on the other the custom-house officials, called upon to decide upon the value of books and pamphlets having often a fancy price, will not find their work simplified but perplexingly increased, since they will get no help from the importer.

Coming to the free list, we are first struck by the fact that the bill does not, as previous tariffs have, we believe, always done, specify the articles comprised in that lucky category, but simply enacts that "all merchandise not herein provided for shall be free of duty." We are thus consigned to the laborious task of carefully searching out the articles assessed by the existing tariff and not mentioned in this bill before we can knowingly rejoice in the extensive and valuable additions we have been promised, and which everybody seems to take for granted this bill actually proposed to make to the free list. We have not accomplished and scarcely attempted this difficult task, but we have gone far enough to make us entertain serious fears of disappointment for all those who have been expecting an effectual increase of that list. We have failed to discover more than one important article—viz., salt, which now yields an annual revenue of about $700,000—that this bill proposes to make free. The rest of the new free list seems to be composed mainly of minor articles, like honey, glue, burr-stones, ground emery, common soap, acids, acetates, and medicinal preparations, now yielding perhaps another $700,000, thus making the whole loss of revenue by these additions to the free list about $1,400,000. On the other hand, we find many important articles now free which this bill proposes to make dutiable. The following are the most prominent of these unlucky articles and the rates of duty it is proposed to impose upon them, viz.:

Raw silk	10 p. c. ad val.	Alizarine, garancine, and madder	20 p. c. ad val.
India-rubber	10 " "	Cochineal	10 " "
Crude argols	3 cts. per lb.	Indigo	10 " "
Cork bark	30 p. c. ad val.	Tin	10 " "
Cocoa	1 ct. per lb.	Peruvian bark	10 " "
Horsehair	30 p. c. ad val.	Gums of all kinds	10 " "
Hides and skins	10 " "	Camphor, crude	3 cts. p. lb.
Hide cuttings	10 " "	Seeds, other than linseed	20 p. c. ad val.
Rags for manu. of paper	10 " "		
Ivory	50 " "		

Here is a list of articles now free on which it is proposed to levy a revenue amounting, when calculated on the importations of last year, to about $6,000,000. Nearly the whole of this burden will fall first on our manufacturers, who, we are told, must be encouraged and enabled to send their products to foreign markets to compete with European manufactures. Instead of encouraging our export trade, this bill will actually reduce it. Within the past eight years, since hides have been free, our annual exports of hemlock leather to Europe have gradually increased to over a million of sides of the value of six millions. What sense is there in subjecting raw hides again to a duty of 10 per cent. and making no provision for any drawback on leather; or how can our calico-printers be expected to compete with Europe in foreign markets, when they had only just begun the attempt while their principal dyestuffs were free? Is it expected that these industries will, under the beneficent provisions of section 3 of this bill, be hereafter carried on in bonded warehouses? If revenue was the object to be reached by these reductions of the free list, why not rather tax coffee and tea, on which a duty of one cent and five cents per pound would produce as much as the whole of the above list of new duties, and of which tax even the poorest consumer would for ever remain unconscious?

We might point out some incongruities, evidently the result of oversight, where the raw material and the manufactured article are to be taxed alike, as, for instance, bark and quinine, cork bark and corks, ivory and manufactures of ivory; but enough has been stated to show the character of this bill. Clearly this new-fashioned mode of making a tariff in sub-committee and in secret has not fulfilled the expectations entertained of it, and unless this bill is effectually

amended in the direction above indicated the improvements embodied in it will be outweighed by its defects.

THE MIND AND MANNERS OF THE SILVER-MAN.

WE commend the subjoined extract from the Chicago *Tribune* to the attention of our correspondent, Mr. Mason, as an illustration of the way the discussion is carried on by the gentle Silver-man and his organs. Here is at least one sweet thinker to whom one may speak roughly when one catches him preaching a fraud, and inventing fables in support of it:

"The most insolent, most vituperative, the most truth-defying, and most extravagant and vulgar in denunciation of the people of the West, collectively and individually, was the New York *Nation*. It set itself up as a moral censor. It defined financial morality to be the prompt payment of raised checks; and because the people of the West, who discharge their debts from the proceeds of their own labor, decline to pay vastly more than they contracted to do, the *Nation* deluged them with abuse and defamation that would have rendered a fishwoman famous among her fellows, and has threatened them with the malicious lies of a blackmailer and a bully."

The reader will enjoy in this the way the honest fellow has changed his grievance and magnified it. What he has been complaining of until lately is his having lost his dear father's old silver dollar, which he had traded with since before he was born, by means of a most disgraceful and wonderful conspiracy, which was kept a dead secret by about 500 politicians and newspaper reporters, until they had accomplished their hellish design. His bereavement was none the less terrible for his not having been aware of it until two years after the blow fell. He says now, however, that what they really did to him was not steal his silver but "raise his checks," which he had doubtless drawn against gold to repay some Shylock a loan contracted at ruinous rates of interest to educate his younger brothers and sisters. We shall not be at all surprised if he turns up in a week or two with his clothes torn, a bullet-hole in his hat, and his face scratched, and declares that he was on his way to pay his debts with a wagon-load of "coin," drawn by an aged family horse left him by his sainted mother, when the "Money Power" fell on him in a lonely part of the road and took every cent he had. His condition, indeed, is rapidly becoming as forlorn as that of the poor Granger, of whom we heard so much three or four years ago. At first it was only by the railroads that that godly man was afflicted; but when he got time to examine himself closely, he found that almost every class in the community was armed against him and preying upon him. His principal enemy was, of course, the unspeakable villains who lent him money and took his note; then came the villains who carried him and his crops to market; then those who bought his corn and pork; and, finally, the grocers and dry-goods men and piano men, and in fact everybody who sold him anything. Lastly, he fell foul of the judges who sat on his disputes, and he used to foot up piteously the amount of land it took to maintain a judge. His sorrows grew every day, and he cursed and swore and wailed, and got his newspapers to curse and swear and wail with him, and pretend that if somebody did not hold him or pacify him he would bury himself and at least one branch of the human family in red ruin. After a while, finding that the world was getting tired of him, he began to laugh, and now pretends that it was all a joke, but a useful joke, for he says it frightened "the monopolists" and compelled them to carry him at the usual extortionate rates.

The sorry wag has now appeared as the Silver-man, and is threatening us with the same dissolution of the Social Bond with which he threatened us as a Granger. What is troubling him now is the "Money Power," which he never mentions without that wild look in his eye with which all those are familiar who have heard a Belleville orator denouncing "la Réaction." He was ranting about it in Washington the other day in the presence of a cold and bloodless "gold sharp," who, after listening a good while to his eloquence, asked him with brutal abruptness, "What is the Money Power, anyhow?" The strange light forsook his eyes on hearing this, and his jaw fell. After an awkward and reflective pause, he said, "Well, it's the darned fellows that won't buy your property at your own price." If there be one thing more than another which irritates him, it is opposition. He doesn't allow himself to be whistled down the wind by "the bookmen" and "the theorists." Anybody who differs from the people of his village he thinks a stuck-up jackanapes, and the experience of "abroad" in a matter of finance he listens to with the same sort of feeling with which he would listen to Sir John Lubbock's lectures on the manners and customs of the ants. He will not admit that anybody knows more on any subject than any one else. As American citizens, he says, living under equal laws, our knowledge is equal in quality and amount. It is only in monarchies that one man knows more than another. Here is a letter from an unfortunate who has to live with him in Illinois:

"JANUARY 31, 1878.

"I have read with great interest your article in last week's *Nation* on the silver craze in the South and West, and I stand ready to confirm all you have said of the West, so far as my own community is concerned. I can say, and say truthfully, that it requires almost as much courage to stand up against it in this community as it would have required thirty years ago to have stood up for the slave, and the man who does it runs nearly the same risk to his reputation and of incurring the odium of his neighbors. To prove to you the truth of this, I have on several instances of late endeavored to show up the iniquity and evils that would attend the passage of the Bland Bill—have done this in the post-office, stores, and shops of the village, any place where the subject might chance to come up; and it only took two or three such interviews to incur the name of 'bullionist,' and to show the feeling at once awakened by my defence of honest money. One of my neighbors asked me in great excitement: 'How is it that you know so much more than all the community? Are we all fools, and you know it all?' He added that so far as he knew I was the only man in the town who opposed the Bland Bill, and accused me of being 'the poor man's enemy.' And from faint sounds in the community I am confident that I am regarded, by certain ones in the place, as the friend of the bloated bondholder and the enemy of the poor. I have seen nothing like it since the old anti-slavery days, when my father stood almost alone, in a little town in New York, in his opposition to slavery. It is not true that I am alone in the town in defence of honest money, but it is so near it that all those who are with me might be counted on the fingers of a man's hand. Men who use some reason on other subjects seem to use none here—even members of my church, who are wont to give some heed to what I say on other matters.

"I write this simply that you may see how intense is the excitement over this matter in certain parts of the West, and how little, for the present, those who favor honest money in these parts can do to stay the tide.

"—— ——."

Nothing about him, however, is more curious and mysterious than his state of mind touching his beloved dollar. His fondness for it because it is "cheap"—that is, because it is a feeble dollar, which cannot purchase much or do much of the work of exchange—seems to indicate that he loves it as a mother loves a crippled child, because of its very helplessness and incapacity. But this theory is upset by the fact that he not only likes it cheap but small, for any proposal to enlarge it, such as Senator Christiancy's to raise it to 434 grains—that is, to make it a big, handsome dollar—fills him with fury, and makes him curse and call names. We begin to hear abuse of the Senator now in every Western breeze, thus showing that the maternal-instinct hypothesis must be abandoned. The same facts militate against the idea that he loves silver as the money of Scripture and as a great American mineral, for if he did so he would want to put as much of it as possible into his dollars in order to "pay his debts"—a process of which he is passionately fond—and in order to export it to the downtrodden nations of Europe. But he is utterly opposed to anything of the kind. His plan is to use as little silver as possible, a circumstance which has given rise in these parts to the odious suspicion that he is really a knave. This, of course, makes him very indignant, and he says that if anybody suggests this much oftener he will not even use silver to pay his debts. He will shield himself from these cruel insinuations by not paying them at all.

A FRENCH VIEW OF VICTOR EMMANUEL.

PARIS, January 11, 1878.

THE news of the death of the King of Italy will take the world by surprise. Who would ever have believed that he would die before the old Pope, whose death has been announced so often, and who continues to live by a sort of miracle? Only a few days ago we were informed that Victor Emmanuel had received Gambetta in Rome, at the Quirinal, and had had a long conversation with the chief of the Republican party of France. Even those who have not been the friends of the new Italian kingdom, even the Ultramontanes, will, I believe, be troubled by the disappearance of one who had become one of the familiar features of Europe. Victor Emmanuel had something in him which directly appeals to all the instincts of humanity; he was essentially a natural man, he had natural feelings; he was a visage, not a mask; he was real, his plain features were in harmony with a robust and almost rustic constitution. He had remained a true Savoyard, a man of the mountains; he preferred the free and cold air of the high altitudes to the perfumed breezes of the plains. Every year he hunted the chamois for a whole month in the Alps,

and during that time he lived in an immense tent not far from the glaciers.

No royal house has more traditions or a sterner etiquette than the House of Savoy. The reason of it is obvious : the Dukes of Savoy of old times were dwarfs who meant to become giants. They had a great force—they kept the keys of the Alps ; but they were constantly threatened by France on one side, on the other by the house of Austria and its numerous allies. They never were found at the end of a war on the same side on which they were at the beginning, except when they had had time to change sides twice. They were often accused of treachery ; they were simply taking precautions against the eternal foes of Italy. They were, unconsciously at first, the representatives of the great nationality which had lost its unity after the fall of the Roman Empire. Piedmont, the least Italian province of Italy, became the hidden heart of the new Italy. Nobody ever stopped at Turin ; who cared for its cold and stiff aristocracy, its small-capital court, fenced by more prejudices than the court of Louis XIV. ever had been ? There, however, almost at the foot of the Alps, lived princes and noblemen who alone thought of breaking the yoke of Austria and of regenerating Italy. I have known some of the men who were the friends of Charles Albert, the father of Victor Emmanuel. They were very different from the class of modern agitators ; they had not much in common with the men who are now in power in Rome. They were, so to speak, aristocratic Puritans. Collegno, one of Charles Albert's friends, who was obliged to leave Italy on the suspicion that he had entered into a conspiracy against Austria, made himself for years a professor of geology in France, and became minister to France in 1848. Cavour belonged to the same class, as well as Massimo d'Azeglio, as La Marmora, as the Marquis Alfieri. If you wish to have an exact idea of the Piedmontese world you must read Joseph de Maistre's correspondence.

Victor Emmanuel was educated with great severity, as is the tradition of the House of Savoy ; he saw only two classes of men—soldiers, who told him that a prince of Savoy is nothing if not a soldier ; noblemen, who whispered in his ear : "Italy must be made free ; she must be freed not by popular movements and agitations, she must be freed by you ; the new Italy must be the work, not of the revolution, but of the king." The young Prince grew up between these two influences ; but his principal teacher was his father, who instilled in him the instincts, traditions, and ambitions of his race. Charles Albert was only a cadet of the House of Savoy, of the Carignan branch. The last king of the eldest line was Charles Felix, who left no children. In 1821 Charles Albert entered into what may be called a conspiracy against the king, the exact history of which remains to be written. He was then in communion with the Carbonari, and encouraged their plans against Austria and the archdukes, who were the lieutenants of Austria in Italy. He was obliged to exile himself ; he took service in France and took part in the campaign made by the Bourbon government against the Liberals in Spain. He showed the hereditary courage of his race at the assault of the Trocadero, and, in order to recompense him, Louis XVIII. gave him the honorary title of "First Grenadier of France." Some of my friends remember having seen him at the receptions at the Tuileries in his French grenadier's uniform, with a blue coat and red epaulettes.

He was called to the throne of Piedmont at the death of Charles Felix, in 1831. He affected then the most reactionary views ; he took an active part in the attempt made by the Duchess of Berry against the government of Louis Philippe. What was his object ? Did he wish to gain time, to flatter Austria in order to deceive her better ? He surrounded himself with priests, with men of the old régime ; but there are good reasons for thinking that under this new mask the old Carbonaro still lived. Turin became for a while a hot-bed of reaction ; but the writers, the thinkers, the statesmen who were preparing the future of Italy found a sort of asylum in it. The seed which had been sown during long years of hypocrisy came out in 1848; the spirit of revolution was again unchained, and Charles Albert went to Novara. He refused the alliance of the French republic, which was offered him by General Cavaignac. "L'Italia farà da se" was the proud answer of one who never believed in anything but his own Piedmont and his faithful brigade of Savoy. We all know the rest, how Charles Albert resigned after Novara ; how Victor Emmanuel mounted his throne almost as a vassal of Austria. He had learned much from his father ; his rough and abrupt manners covered a profound dissimulation ; he determined to avenge his father, to avenge Piedmont, as soon as he could find his opportunity. He was helped in his plans by a great minister and by a powerful ally. It will be always to the credit of Victor Emmanuel that he recognized the rare qualities of Cavour, and was faithful to the Italian Richelieu. He paid his French ally with generosity ; for we must give this name to the abandonment of the province of Savoy, which was the cradle of his race and the nursery of his best soldiers. When we look back on the work which was performed by Victor Emmanuel and by Cavour we must acknowledge that it is one of the great political works of our age. A great nationality, which had nearly perished, has now revived ; Rome has become the capital of Italy, and Italy is not only united from the Alps to the Adriatic, as Napoleon III. said in his first proclamation to the Italians, but from the Alps to the most southern cape of Italy. Victor Emmanuel probably did not plan at first all that he was allowed to execute ; he ate his artichoke leaf by leaf. The capital wandered from Turin to Florence, and from Florence to Rome. He had to change his allies ; he acted first with France, and afterwards with Germany.

There are two things which will always be remembered of him : though France had done so much for him he never was ungrateful to France. He was obliged to protest against the convention of Rome, which had for a while shut Rome upon him and his Government ; he was obliged to enter into the German alliance, in order first to free Venice and afterwards to obtain Rome, but he never forgot Villafranca and Solferino. I believe that I am not mistaken in saying that at the time when France was so unmercifully punished for the sins of a government over which she had no control, Victor Emmanuel was the only sovereign in Europe, perhaps the only ruler in the world, who felt pity for her, and who understood that a fatal element of revenge and disorder had been introduced into Europe. He could do nothing for us—the sword of San Martino remained in the scabbard ; but he did not turn haughtily against us, and he did not say to us, like so many other nations, "Culpa tua tecum sit." We have also to give him very high praise for his rare perception of intellectual forces. He, the rude soldier, the man who enjoyed nothing but the sport of war, the sight of numberless battalions, the roar of artillery, understood plainly that there was a man as powerful, more powerful in many senses than the leaders of armies—the man of the Vatican, the head of the Catholic Church. He knew that his guns could not prevail against spiritual doors, that hearts and consciences cannot be taken by assault, that dogmas cannot be destroyed by laws. He did not conduct his *Kulturkampf* with any violence ; he became of necessity the adversary of the temporal power, and was very desirous not to make war against the spiritual power. The famous motto of Cavour, "Libera chiesa nel libero stato," inspired the law of Papal guarantees, which is extremely liberal in its character. It can be said, on the other hand, that the head of the Church never carried the war against Victor Emmanuel to the last extremities ; he scolded, he threatened, he did not do all he might have done. He preferred to remain in the Vatican even as a prisoner rather than to go to Malta or to France ; and I know, by many conversations with eminent Italians, that even while the Italian *Kulturkampf* was going on, there were always friendly and confidential communications between the Italian Pope and the Italian King.

Who would have thought a few weeks ago that Pio Nono would survive Victor Emmanuel ? Many fervent Catholics will see in this reversal of the ordinary rules of nature the action of Providence ; imaginative minds will also speculate on the curious coincidence of the dates of the death of the King of Italy and the anniversary of the death of Napoleon III. How rapidly the world is moving on ! Of all the men whose names are connected with the resurrection of Italy, how many are now left ? Cavour is gone ; Napoleon III. is no more ; Victor Emmanuel only survived La Marmora by a few days ; the statue of D'Azeglio is in one of the squares of Turin ; Ratazzi is gone. The old Pontiff who first gave a word of encouragement to Italy in 1848 still survives ; and though he has fought for years in favor of the temporal power of the Papacy, he has probably never felt any real aversion even for the men who deprived the Papacy of its earthly possessions. It cannot be that he has not in his own mind imagined some *modus vivendi* between the spiritual ruler of Catholicity and the armed ruler of Italy. Victor Emmanuel carefully acted so as to make such a *modus vivendi* possible, if not for the actual Pope, for the Pope who will come after Pio Nono. Time alone can show if his sagacity will be imitated by his successors, and if the revolutionists of Italy, who were rendered powerless by his exceptional and extraordinary services to Italy, will not after him shake with the last foundations of the Papacy the foundations of monarchy itself. The difficulties of Italy will now begin in earnest. The ties which held together Cavour, the King, Garibaldi, and even the Pope have been broken by the rude hand of death. Victor Emmanuel may have said on his death-bed, "*Exegi monumentum*" ; history will add or not, according to the wisdom or the folly of the new Italian generation, "*perennius ære.*"

Correspondence.

A GOOD STATE TO EMIGRATE FROM.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The contrast between the statements of the Kansas Board of Agriculture, as shown by the enclosed newspaper slip, and the recent remarks of Judge Dillon on the delinquent cities and counties of that State, deserves, in my judgment, to be noticed in a manner calculated to arouse public feeling against repudiation in every form:

"KANSAS.

"The monthly report of the Kansas State Board of Agriculture is filled with information of great interest to those who are interested in the development of the resources of the State. We give a few of the matters touched upon, as follows: Reports from fifty-eight counties indicate that the State is remarkably free from insect intruders, such as Hessian fly, chinch-bugs, etc. The farmers are generally holding their wheat crop for higher prices. About 80 per cent. of the corn crop is being held, largely for higher prices, although bad roads have kept back some. In the last monthly report the estimated area of wheat sown was given at 1,243,315 acres—an increase of 336,125 acres, or 45 per cent., over the previous year. It is now thought that the estimates were too low, and that the increase is much larger. The total pre-emptions of Government land during the year are 654,702 acres, and there are 6,845,298 acres yet to be taken. Population the past year has increased 23 per cent.; taxable property, 13 per cent.; State taxes, 1.16 per cent.; and the State debt, $1 91 per capita."

This boastful paragraph doubtless alludes to some of the very counties which are included in Judge Dillon's remarks. If so, these repudiators have the audacity to set forth the value of their lands as an encouragement to immigration when these lands have no doubt been made valuable by the use of the very funds for the payment of which they now refuse to make provision. I think it the duty of every public print in the country to warn emigrants not to locate among a people so false to their interest and duty and so tainted with this moral pestilence of repudiation. These remarks I trust will furnish occasion for an article which will be more effective than anything I can say. I have no desire for my name to be made public, but, having in years past suffered a loss of some ten or twelve thousand dollars from rascally repudiators, I am determined as far as it lies in my power to set my face against this damnable heresy.

Yours truly, G.

Boston, February 2, 1878.

STATE SUITS FOR STATE DEBTS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Your article in No. 657 of the *Nation*, "Can States be made to pay their Debts?" opens an important enquiry into the undeveloped powers of the Federal Constitution. Looking at it from the highest States-right point, it would seem that such powers do exist. As between sovereign States, *inter gentes*, each has the right to go to war with another to make that State pay debts which she owes to the citizens of the first. But all gave up that right of war when they entered into the Union, agreeing to substitute for the *jus belli* the right to bring the repudiating State before a tribunal of international arbitration, the Supreme Court of the United States. The Eleventh Amendment in no way diminishes this right of one State to protect her own citizens by suing the State which denies him his rights, but only declares that a citizen shall not make war—*i.e.*, sue a State—but a State may. Therefore, when Iowa refuses to pay citizens of Massachusetts their just debts, Massachusetts cannot make reprisals, issue letters-of-marque, or declare war on Iowa, as she could do if both were sovereign States. But Massachusetts can call upon her citizens to place their claims in her hands for collection, and she can sue Iowa in the Supreme Court of the United States for the debt and can recover judgment. What process can be devised to execute the judgment of the court is to be wrought out of the "undeveloped powers"; but when the Constitution confers jurisdiction it grants no barren sceptre: all power necessary for the full and efficient exercise of it will be found when necessary. B. T. J.

Richmond, Va., February 1, 1878.

WESTERN MORALS AGAIN.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: You have shown your willingness to print, in the *Nation* of January 24, the protest of one of the great number of Western men who believe in the single gold standard, and who find their attempts to make converts seriously hindered by the volleys of vituperation from the press of New York. You even admit that there is a great deal of force in what Mr. Mason says as to the uselessness of vituperation; but you ask, "Is it inexcusable on the part of the Eastern press?"

Permit me, as another one of that number of Western men, to say that it *is* inexcusable. When the heresies of inflation and of the need of "more money" obtained circulation "among the farmers and others who are very suspicious of money-changers and Congressmen," the Eastern press passed the subject almost without notice, or simply ridiculed its folly; but in times like these the great majority of men are far more inclined to lend their ear to men who assign *some* reasons for the shrinkage of values and the prostration of business, and who give them some hopes of a remedy. Demagogues knew but too well how to turn this to their advantage, gaining popularity by talking and writing continually about bloated bondholders, moneyed institutions, and corrupt Congressmen, until these demagogues themselves became our legislators, governors, and Congressmen; witness in this State of Missouri a Colman, Bogy, Bland, and others, too numerous to name.

The defeat of the inflationists in Ohio silenced them for a time, but also confirmed your Eastern men in merely ridiculing and denouncing the suffering people of the West. Is it to be wondered at that when the silver movement began—prompted by the great mining interests of the Western country—all the inflationists again supported it? Not from dishonesty, but from errors of judgment, which demagogues did everything to spread and to strengthen, but which the Eastern press did nothing to correct, except "calling names."

You say: "The charge that the demonetization of silver had been brought about by a conspiracy of bondholders and speculators" was opened by the West, and that it was difficult for the natural man to be polite to adversaries who went on degrading their country by the account of the credulity and corruption of Congress, when the facts disproving this charge could have been easily obtained by simply consulting the *Congressional Record*. The charge emanated from Congress itself. Senator Jones, of Nevada, in his speech delivered April 24, 1876, and sent broadcast over this country, opened with the assertion that it was "a wrong committed, no doubt unwittingly *yet no less certainly*, in the interest of a few plutocrats in England and in Germany," and that the undoing of that wrong "must be as open as the doing was indirect and implied." There, in Congress, the charge was made, and it has not been refuted or contradicted then and there, as it should have been, and not until the *Nation* produced the facts, almost two years later! Is it not natural that the false charge, so long and often repeated, uncontradicted, stuck well?

I fully agree with Mr. Mason that facts and arguments are wanted, and that the argument of expediency will be more effective than that of morality. It is difficult for most men to comprehend and believe that it would be immoral to pay in silver, recognized as money from time immemorial; they have learned in school that Congress has the power "to regulate the value thereof"—the Constitution of the United States says so; and did not nearly all our national economists teach that gold and silver are the best money and *immutable in value?* It will take a long time before even statesmen will understand that these were grave errors; that value is the relation of things in exchange with each other, constantly varying according to demand and supply, and, consequently, *constantly changing*, so that no immutable value or measure of values *can* exist—least of all can the relation of two things in exchange with each other and with other things be unalterably fixed. It will take a long time before legislators will fully understand that Government is and has ever been powerless to do more, in coining money and making it a legal tender, than to establish a denominator, whose purchasing power, however, is beyond Government control. And whilst I hold that a bi-metallic system could be established, consisting in coins simply denoting the weight of pure metal they contain (as "one ounce pure silver," "one pennyweight gold," or, under the metric system, one, two, three decagrams, etc.), making only a small charge for coinage, leaving their exchange value to the immutable laws of exchange—"demand and supply"—I have no hope that Congress will now adopt any such reforms. But the silver-men and the gold-men are too befogged in their prejudices on this question.

It is much easier to understand that, even if the silver dollar were remonetized, exactly as it was before 1873, and the Government would make it a legal tender for all debts, public or private, without limit, every dollar which we, *the people*, owe for goods imported, or otherwise, to the people of foreign countries, and every pound of tea, coffee, sugar

and other goods which we may hereafter import from England, France, or Germany, will have to be paid in *gold only*. We do not owe dollars, but pounds and shillings, or francs, or thalers, *gold*; on the other hand, what foreign countries buy from us, our flour, bacon, cotton, and *all* products which we export, will be paid to us in dollars, *silver*. On which side will then be the advantage of the cheaper money? The amount of money which we pay annually for our imports exceeds one thousand million dollars; the amount we receive for our exports amounts to another thousand million dollars, whilst the amount of interest which the Government pays on its indebtedness is but one hundred million dollars, and of this a large portion to its own people!

Let our laborers and our farmers understand that they would receive their wages and pay for the products of their labor in the depreciated silver, and would have to pay for their coffee and sugar and a thousand other things at gold prices, and Western men will sooner understand and believe you than when you taunt them for being debtors, and insult them by saying "Western morals are in a bad way." If Western morals are in a bad way, the Eastern press has done little to correct them, and Eastern Credit-Mobiliers, municipal and other rings, bankrupt life-insurance companies and merchant princes settling at 25 cts. on the dollar, have set the bad example.

Yours, etc., ISIDOR BUSH.

ST. LOUIS, MO., January 21, 1878.

[What was the Western press doing when Senator Jones told this story? Had the Chicago and Cincinnati and St. Louis papers no duty with regard to it?—ED. NATION.]

THE INDEBTED FARMER'S PROFIT IN SILVER.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The case of the indebted farmer may be put into figures as follows. Suppose that he raises 10,000 bushels of wheat, worth $1 gold, on his farm, and owes $1,000:

His crop will bring	$10,000	gold.
Expenses, including living, say	9,000	"
He can pay the debt with surplus	$1,000	"

If he can sell his crop for $1.10 in silver, his crop will bring:

10,000 bushels, at $1.10	$11,000	
He still estimates expenses at	9,000	
Surplus	$2,000	silver.

which will pay his debt and leave him $1,000. Should we be flooded with silver from other countries, and silver decline further, he thinks he would make an additional gain.

The answer to this *prima-facie* case is to be found in the prices current of this country for the past thirteen years. We have been trying inflation, and can ascertain just how it worked. If our farmer makes a profit by depreciating the dollar, some one else at home loses it. Liverpool will pay no more, no matter what metal dollars and cents are made of. The farmer deals with three principal classes: the laborer, the storekeeper, and the banks—perhaps the savings-bank which lent him the money to buy and stock the farm. To these must go the whole proceeds of the crop until the debt is paid, and out of these he must get the advantage he hopes to make by forcing upon them silver, while he still sells his crop for gold, or its equivalent.

Now, this expected profit all hangs upon one thing: Can the farmer compel his laborer to take a silver dollar instead of a gold one, and the storekeeper, who sells him groceries, tools, and clothes, to accept silver in pay without raising his price? If he can accomplish this feat, he will make the gain, and those who advanced him labor, merchandise, and money will divide the loss. Looking back, however, to the period from 1865 to 1868, when gold was at a premium of from 30 to 40 per cent. above par, all articles of ordinary consumption were 40 to 60 per cent. higher than now. When gold dropped to 115 and 110, after 1870, merchandise declined more slowly, remaining 25 to 35 per cent higher than present, which are practically gold, prices. Those who watched the markets with care consider that, until the panic of 1873–74 shook prices down toward their present scale, retail prices in currency had ever since the war ranged from 15 to 20 per cent. higher than gold for most articles in common use—that is to say, if the gold price was $1, when gold was worth $1 30 in paper, the currency price of the article was $1 40 to $1 50.

It now becomes important for the farmer to figure this closely, for if prices in silver advance more than 10 per cent. he will lose money. He cannot get more than 10 per cent. premium for his wheat. The same thing that happened before would occur again for the same reason—if silver should prove equally fluctuating. The storekeeper, in fixing his prices, always added an extra margin to cover risk of fluctuation or further depreciation of currency. He could watch Liverpool at least as closely as the farmer, and, always knowing the prices of gold and silver, could tell just how much to pay for grain. The farmer possessed no such check on the prices of groceries, clothes, and tools, and the fluctuating currency always told against him, and always will.

The laborer can barely make both ends meet now. As soon as he finds prices in silver advance for all he buys, he will demand $1 10; and, if prices advance more than 10 per cent., he must have more than $1 10 where he now gets $1. If the farmer moves quickly, he may make something out of his laborers before they combine and get prices up, but he cannot hope to get ahead of the storekeeper.

Admitting that silver will be steadier than paper was, and keeping within the safest limits, should gold continue worth only 10 per cent. more than silver, there is no reasonable doubt that prices of all staple commodities, not exported, will advance 15 per cent. above present prices, the extra 5 per cent. being the margin needed against fluctuation of currency. The farmer's case will compare with his present one as follows:

GOLD BASIS.

10,000 bushels at $1 gold	$10,000	
Expenses 90 per cent	9,000	
Surplus	$1,000	

SILVER BASIS.

10,000 bushels at $1 10	$11,000	silver.
Expenses, $9,000 + 15 per cent., or $1,350	10,350	
Surplus	$650	

Should the farmer be able to get any profit out of depreciation, it will be what he can take out of his hired man; and when the laborer gets his wages levelled up the farmer will be worse off than ever.

To sum up:

He may pay his creditor in silver with his surplus crop, and thus get something out of him; but on all his expenses the price of supplies will more than counterbalance this advantage.

The loss from depreciated currency would first fall upon the thirty millions of laborers in the country, who could only get wages raised by a series of struggles in which they would suffer before the advance was conceded.

The creditor would have to stand his share.

The farmer would feel his loss, as already shown, while the only men who in the long run could profit by the change are the middle-men, who protect themselves from fluctuations in currency by additional margins, and the broker and speculator, who trade upon rapid changes of value.

F.

BOSTON, February 3, 1878.

PROF. WALKER ON BI-METALLISM.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Prof. Walker, after quoting a passage translated from Hertzka, and published in the *Evening Post*, says: "The demonstration is complete; but I am not satisfied that Mr. Hertzka and his American translator are on equally firm ground when they argue that the extreme case of 1:1 affords a test of the bi-metallic theory, and that if it be found to fail here it would fail on any ratio assumed." And again: "When Hertzka's translator, after giving his demonstration of the impossibility of keeping gold and silver in concurrent circulation at a ratio far wide of the market ratio, say 1:1, draws the conclusion that 'In whatever degree the legally fixed ratio should differ from the market ratio, in that degree the results described would follow'; and again: 'All this holds true, according to its measure, of any other legal ratio than 1:1, if it were not the true ratio of the market,' he overlooks the important principle stated by Mr. Mill, that, in efforts towards certain ends, 'small means do not merely produce small effects: they produce no effects at all.'"

I do not remember the remark here attributed to Mr. Mill. The author says it was made in regard to "efforts towards certain ends." It certainly could not be true of any "means" other than artificial expedients. Artificial expedients, whether great or small, not only may not have proportionate effects, but they may have no effects, an observation which it seems that the bi-metallists ought to ponder, since it is they who propose

to employ "means" of that order. Hertzka and his translator, however, are discussing the operation of economic forces, not "efforts towards an end," or artificial expedients at all. It is as impossible to conceive of any force whatsoever which does not produce an exactly corresponding effect in economics as in physics. Artificial expedients may change the direction and incidence of the form of economic forces, but they cannot diminish their effects in the slightest degree. Hence, it follows that the law of action of any force in economics, when once determined, applies to all degrees of that force. Regarding this passage, therefore, from the interest of financial science, it demands a very earnest protest. The unwary reader is likely to go away with the impression that he has seen a strong and clever point turned against the enemies of bi-metallism, when, in fact, the author has let slip entirely the subject he was treating, and has insinuated the most mischievous confusion possible in financial science, that between the domain of artificial expedients and the domain of natural law.

Prof. Walker quotes from many writers for and against bi-metallism, but it may be doubted whether his readers will get any clear idea of the issue. The question in issue is not whether it would be expedient to use both metals at once or not. The mono-metallists are not those who *want* to use only one metal, and the bi-metallists those who want to use two, supposing that we had free choice. It is a scientific question as to whether it is *possible*, under the natural laws controlling the matter, for us to use two. Those who take the negative are called mono-metallists. The affirmative is divided into two schools. The first affirms that legislation can so limit the fluctuations in value of the metals that neither metal shall be permanently demonetized, but that the one out of use can be recovered, if occasion arises. This is the doctrine of Wolowski and the adherents of the alternate standard. The other school affirms that legislation can hold the two metals so closely to a fixed ratio of value (however closely that may be) that they *will* circulate together. This is bi-metallism, properly so called. These two propositions ought to be carefully discriminated, for they are of very different scientific value. As to the former, I assert that, if true, the legislation proposed would alter the incidence of the effects of changes in economic forces and would be an abuse of legislation. As to the second, which teaches that legislation can *control* natural forces for definite results, I hold that it is a heresy which an economist is bound to combat.

Prof. Walker nowhere discusses this issue, nor does he present it to his readers. He leaves them to infer that his discussion is adequate to the subject, and that, with an international coinage union, starting at the market ratio, a concurrent circulation would exist. It is unfortunate that when he comes to the climax of his discussion, where we are entitled to the most calm and severe presentation of the reasons for believing in the efficacy of the double legal tender to keep up a concurrent circulation, he should put us off with the illustration of the dog tied to the express train, and the man driving a pair of horses. He admits the force of Hertzka's demonstration, but does not tell within what limits that demonstration seems to him to yield to the action of the double legal tender. The dog story fills this important gap, and leaves the author in the position of teaching that the limitations on the action of an economic force are analogous to the limitations on a dog's power to run.

I will not take up your space to analyze this or the other illustration, to show their inappropriateness, or the mischievous fallacies which they suggest. It is enough to say that those who regard money as an organ in the industrial organism cannot admit any analogy between the power of legislation to interfere with the functions of money and the power of intelligence, strength, and machinery to control brute force. The author, applying his illustration, says that "the success of the [bi-metallic] experiment will probably depend upon the strength of the impulse to divergence, as compared with the strength of the carriage, of the harness, and of the driver's arm." I suppose it will not be denied that, whatever restraint the driver exerts over the horses, is won at the expense of the carriage, the harness, and the driver's arm, so that the illustration, if otherwise admissible, would only lead us up to the question: At the expense of what other parts of the industrial organism will any restraint exerted on the fluctuations in the value of the metals be won? The economic forces leading to a change in value can only be diverted by legislation; they exert their full effect somewhere. Formerly France secured the compensatory action by assuming the burden and the loss. Under the coinage union the loss on one metal would be transferred to the other, to the gain of bullion brokers and false coiners.

We come next to a paragraph in which there is an attempt to discuss the question of practical action of the double legal tender. In 1870 the average ratio was 1: 15.57; in 1871 it was 1: 15.58. It is asked whether if the ratio of 1: 15.57 had been adopted in 1870 by all civilized nations, it would not have counteracted the forces which produced the ratio of 1: 15.58 in 1871. The answer given is that it would, seeing that debtors would seize upon the depreciated metal and, by their demand, restore its value.

Let us first fill up the hypothesis. It must be assumed that in 1870 all civilized nations fixed upon the ratio of 1: 15.57, and supplied themselves with coin of both metals at that rate, say half the circulation of each metal. I cannot conceive of any such thing as practically realizable, but that is the hypothesis. Now, new supplies of the metal do not come into use in the requisite proportions all over the earth, but the sources of supply are local. Hence, the metals do not have the same ratio of value in the Atlantic and Pacific States, and if there were a gold-mine in New Haven and a silver-mine in New York there would not be the same ratio in those two cities. Suppose, then, that the silver-mines of the United States produce an extraordinary supply. If there were not a free mint this supply could not act on the value of the coin, and the supposition that there were not a free mint is the only condition on which the supposed extraordinary demand for silver could at once prevent a depreciation of silver coin. Thus, if there were not an open mint silver would not fall, and if there were not an open mint an increased demand would keep it from falling. Hence, it appears that the bi-metallists require another specification in their hypothesis—that, when the concurrent circulation, at a fixed ratio, has been provided, the mint be closed. In this form it will hardly be necessary to discuss the proposition with any one. Take, then, the case of an open mint, which, of course, is the only case contemplated. At the ratio of 1: 15.57 the dollar should be 23.22 grains fine gold or 361.5354 grains fine silver. The new supplies of silver would be taken to the mint and would increase the volume of the circulation. Silver would now fall, since, with the monetary system supposed, it would require only the lightest shade of preference to decide which metal to hold and which to give—*i.e.*, which to withdraw from a redundant circulation. A small force would exert a small effect, or would require a long time, by affecting only that small class of transactions which employ large amounts of coin. We think at once of exchange transactions and of the coin reserve of banks of issue. The fact that a light shade of difference would not lead all debtors, great and small, to demand silver, is just the reason why the "demand" on which the bi-metallists count would not have the magnitude or the effect they anticipate. If silver fell to 1: 15.58 the silver dollar ought to weigh 361.7676, or the coined dollar in use would be worth .641 of a mill less than the gold dollar. Such a difference would not affect all transactions, but it would amount to $64.10 on $100,000, and I think no one will deny that that difference would determine the choice of metal to use in large transactions. I have no hesitation in affirming that one-tenth of that difference, or a variation from 1: 15.57 to 1: 15.571 —*i. e.*, $6.41 on $100,000—would suffice, only in a longer time, to overthrow the balance of the monetary system supposed. So long as the new supply continued to be offered at the lightest shade of depreciation (and it would be so offered unless it happened to fall in with an increased requirement for money), the demand of those who could profit by it would simply draw it into the circulation, gold being given out to the same extent, and, instead of the depreciation of silver being counteracted, it would depend entirely on the amount of the new supply of silver whether the movement would stop when the proportion of silver in the concurrent circulation was raised from .5 to .51, or to .9, or to the whole; that is, the concurrent circulation would be destroyed in part or altogether.

It is a necessary assumption of the bi-metallists, although they have never discussed the point, that the metal exported under these circumstances would be silver, just as the domestic debtor would pay silver. This is certainly an error. Foreign debts are paid by bills, and American drawers would have to ship gold to draw against, if they wanted to keep their bills up to standard. Or, to put it otherwise, as prices rose here from the addition to the total circulation, and as gold was thrown out by the advantage from using silver, gold would be superfluous here and would lose value, as compared with its value elsewhere. Silver would be sent here from other "civilized countries," and the upshot of the experiment would be that we should use silver only, while the nations which have no silver-mines would use gold only. To sum up, then, the bi-metallic theory is reduced to this dilemma: If the concurrent circulation were not accurately established it could not be established at all, but the money would be in stable equilibrium, consisting of one metal only. On the other hand, the more accurately the bi-metallic theory was realized the

less stable, and not the more stable, would be the equilibrium of the metals in the coinage. The lightest turn in the ratio of value of the market would suffice to throw out either one metal or the other to a greater or less extent. To this result every scientific investigation of the question must come, enforcing the conclusion that a concurrent circulation, save when and while the legal and market ratios coincide, is a natural impossibility. Yours respectfully,

"HERTZKA'S TRANSLATOR."

NEW HAVEN, January 24, 1878.

Notes.

THE important announcement is made of the union of the two firms of H. O. Houghton & Co. and J. R. Osgood & Co. under the name of Houghton, Osgood & Co.——The president of the New Hampshire Antiquarian Society, Rev. Silas Ketchum, has undertaken to compile a 'Dictionary of New Hampshire Biography.' He desires minute information in regard to persons, living or dead, who deserve a place in such a work. His address is Poquonock, Hartford Co., Conn.——The last number (4) of vol. i. of the *Pennsylvania Magazine of History and Biography* is adorned with an illuminated title-page for the volume; a steel portrait of William Penn, at the age of twenty-two; and a map of the battle-field of Germantown, accompanied by a lucid account of the battle—perhaps, too, as authoritative as any we shall ever have.——The January number of the *Magazine of American History* gives a steel portrait and a sketch of the life of William Walton, who built the famous dwelling still bearing his name in Franklin Square a century and a quarter ago. It contains, besides, two very interesting articles on "The Fall of Alamo" and "The Portraiture of Washington"—the latter with special reference to the General's false teeth.——Prof. J. E. Todd, in the *American Naturalist* for February, discusses the distribution of timber in Southwestern Iowa, where there is great diversity of surface but substantial identity of soil, and concludes that Prof. J. D. Whitney's theory of too close a soil will not account for the treelessness of the prairies. "The fundamental condition of forest growth is a constant medium humidity of air and soil."——President Samuel H. Scudder's address before the Appalachian Mountain Club, published in the February *Appalachia*, is a remarkable résumé of the past year's explorations and surveys, State and national, in this country. It deserves a wide distribution among Congressmen and State legislators. ——By special arrangement with Trübner & Co., the *Library Journal* will print in two double numbers (January and February) the unabridged proceedings of the late International Conference of Librarians in London. No extra copies beyond the subscription list will be printed.——Bulletin No. 44 of the Boston Public Library continues the Check-list for American Local History as far as New York City.——An elaborate history of Middlesex Co., Mass., in preparation by Samuel Adams Drake, will be published in two volumes, for subscribers only, by Estes & Lauriat, Boston.——B. Westermann & Co. send us the first number of *L'Athenæum Belge*, published January 6, at Brussels. It is a tolerably close copy of its great namesake, but its meagre eight pages and fortnightly appearance give the enterprise an air of feebleness which we hope is only temporary. We learn from its advertisements that a 'Parliamentary History of Belgium, from 1831 to 1880,' by Louis Hymans, has begun to be issued in parts. It will make two solid volumes of 1,200 pages each.——Prof. Stanley Jevons is engaged on an abridgment of Adam Smith's 'Wealth of Nations,' to which he will add copious original notes for the use of students. Macmillan & Co. are to publish the work. ——George P. Rowell & Co. have converted their annual 'American Newspaper Directory' into a quarterly, beginning with the January issue, which is before us. It is characterized by the typographical neatness and accuracy, and evidence of conscientious labor, which distinguish the publications of this firm, and which savor (at least to the uninitiated) more of public spirit than of business calculation.

—The fifty-second annual report of the President of Harvard College has the usual claims upon the attention of the public interested in the higher education in this country. Already the section discussing the cost of a course at Harvard has been widely copied by the press, and certainly it was high time that some reliable estimate should be obtainable by would-be patrons of the college. In round numbers, $500 per annum is the minimum (food and clothing included), $600 is economical, $800 moderate, $1,300 ample, and there is no limit beyond this. The second estimate allows for the student's taking his meals in Memorial Hall, at a charge of $175. Moderate as this sum is, it appears that it could be materially diminished if some friend of the college would relieve the enterprise of the debt incurred in equipping the Hall and kitchens, which now amounts to $43,069 66. Mr. Quincy A. Shaw has set a good example in this direction. The benevolent millionaire, in fact, is reminded on every page of this report of the splendid opportunities of increasing the resources of the University. The Divinity School is straitened and needs about $50,000; the Dental School is sadly in want of an endowment; the Library building must make haste slowly, and money is needed for salaries and wages more than for books; $100,000 would enable the Observatory to catch up with the arrears of publication of its achievements. The Medical School is making money; and the Law School is in good financial condition, though expecting soon to be pinched for room. "The best forms of gift to the University are now these," says President Eliot on p. 41, to which we refer all testators. The Botanic Garden and Arboretum should not be overlooked. The latter is an establishment only five years old, yet it has been the cause of the planting during the past season, in the New England States alone, of nearly half a million trees. Before taking leave of this report, we must notice the protest of the Law School against the recent rules of the New York Court of Appeals. The Court itself will, we are sure, acknowledge the justice of it. The rules shorten the term of pupillage for admission to practise first in favor of college graduates, and next in favor of those who have studied in a *New York* law school—an invidious distinction, which, if imitated in other States, would take away the motive for existence of any law school of national scope.

—We commented a fortnight ago on the address of the *Christian Advocate* to its "non-renewing subscriber," in which it virtually promised everlasting salvation and the paper for one year on the receipt of $2 70; and as the editor is a prominent divine, we take it for granted he knew what he was saying. His offer has, however, called forth severe criticism from others besides ourselves, and last week he answered the fault-finders, and our readers will be entertained by hearing that the answer is simply that his method of pushing his circulation *pays;* that it has brought him in 18,000 subscribers "during the present canvass, which is yet far from being complete." With this, he says, "he is satisfied," and he insinuates that those who do not get subscriptions in this way, and object to it, are simply crying "sour grapes." His views on temperance appear also to have got him into trouble with the religious press, owing to his saying that (our readers will forgive our reproducing his remarks—there is no other way of dealing with such people), "if Christ made alcoholic wine he must be put on trial, not as a sot, but as a moderate drinker, who, according to the law of human nature, with so many million illustrations, was possibly saved from becoming an example for sots by being crucified in early manhood."

—We have received several letters enquiring the best method for calculating the gold value of the bullion in silver coins. The shortest and best way is, having found the price per ounce in New York of silver, to multiply that price by the number of ounces in $1,000 of the coins whose bullion value is sought, and thence derive the value of a dollar of these coins. In every thousand of trade-dollars there are 875 ounces of silver 900 fine; in every thousand 412½-grain dollars there are 859⅜ ounces, and in the subsidiary coins (halves, quarters, and dimes) of the face value of $1,000 there are 803¾ ounces of silver 900 fine. It follows, therefore, that if the price per ounce is multiplied by the number of ounces the gold value of the bullion in $1,000 of the coins given is ascertained. To illustrate, suppose that silver bullion 1,000 fine can be sold in New York for $1 15½ gold per ounce. As standard silver, the kind that the coins contain, is 900 fine, silver 900 fine would be worth $1.0395 per ounce; this price multiplied by 859⅜ will give the gold value of the bullion in a thousand 412½-grain dollars, which would be $893 31; one hundred dollars would be worth $89 33; and one dollar $0.8933. At the same price of silver the formula for the gold value of the bullion in a thousand trade-dollars would be $1.0395x875; and for the gold value of the bullion in subsidiary coins of the aggregate face value of $1,000, $1.0395x803¾. In the calculations that we have from time to time published we have taken as the New York equivalent of the London price the exact price at which the bullion business between London and New York was done on the day on which the calculation was made. Nothing could be more accurate, for it shows the price at which the silver in the coins could be sold on the days named; and if purchases or sales of silver were to take place they would be at that price. In making the calculation of the New York equivalent allowance has to be made for the difference between the English standard and our own, the rate of sterling bills on the day, the rates of insurance,

freight, etc., several of which items may change so that on two different days when the London price is the same the New York equivalent may not be the same. The bullion dealers are the only persons who in getting the New York equivalent must be accurate, and who, from the nature of their business, must make allowance for these items, which are too frequently overlooked in general calculations.

—A Western correspondent writes us :

"Two or three weeks ago there was some remark in the *Nation* as to the want of influence of our universities and colleges on public questions. There is one interesting fact : the one paper in Wisconsin which has been from first to last sound and unflinching on the currency question is the Madison *Democrat*, which has all this time been entirely controlled by university graduates. This is good, so far as it goes."

—The death is reported, at the age of seventy, of Dr. John Doran, one of the most industrious of English men of letters. He had but just published a work on 'London in the Jacobite Times,' and in the January number of the *Nineteenth Century*, which arrived here almost at the same time as the news of his death, there is a characteristic article of his on "Shakspere in France." Most of his books were but little more than compilations. The one by which he was most widely known, 'Their Majesties' Servants,' is a biographical and anecdotical history of the English stage from Betterton to Kean ; it is excellently put together, lively in style, and full of special knowledge. At one time editor of the *Athenæum*, of late years Dr. Doran has been editor of *Notes and Queries*, a post in which he succeeded Mr. Thoms, the originator of the paper, and for which he was admirably qualified. With the odds and ends of literature and the by-ways of literary history his acquaintance was extended and minute, as even the new edition of the 'Encyclopædia Britannica,' to which he contributed, testifies.

—The death, since our last issue, of George Cruikshank, breaks a link which united old times to new. The same man who, in his youthful strength, was the caricaturist of the dandies and their Turveydrop master, has designed and etched, for children who are children still, charming illustrations of fairy tales, and still later has given the designs for a Christmas book of what seems only "the other day." At the time that the first Napoleon assumed the crown George Cruikshank's etchings began to appear ; when Napoleon fell the artist was beginning to be famous. Throughout the stormy politics of the years that followed, a time of pamphlets and caricatures, he was the leading political caricaturist, wielding an influence of which we can but dimly conceive. Those of his works which Thackeray (surely no mean judge of such art as his) declared to be his favorites were produced during the few years after the death of George III., the time of trials for treason and Government prosecution for libel, conspiracies, and Peterloo massacres, and the trial of Queen Caroline. It seems almost as if one George Cruikshank had passed away in 1827, the year of Canning's death, and that a new one, a powerful and gentle book-illustrator, succeeded. For the past fifty years, indeed, it is by his book illustrations, both in woodcut and etching, that Cruikshank has been known. Perhaps the very culminating point of his artistic power is to be fixed forty years ago, at a time when the illustrations to Smollett and Fielding's 'Don Quixote' and the Waverley Novels had become famous, and when *Bentley's Miscellany* began to be published. In the first four years of that publication appeared the wonderful etchings to 'Oliver Twist,' those to 'Jack Sheppard,' and the 'Ingoldsby Legends,' and, by way of contrast, some of our artist's very feeblest work in the illustrations to Ainsworth's 'Guy Fawkes.' The *Comic Almanack*, with twelve etchings a year, occupies all the years from 1835 to 1853 ; these etchings were probably the best known at the time of all Cruikshank's work, and their average of merit is very high. The great Exhibition of 1857 supplied him with a seemingly inexhaustible subject ; this and the last years of the *Comic Almanack* mark the close of his strongest time. Since 1853 the amount of work produced by the great designer has been but small, and though some of it is very good and deservedly famous, it is of a less powerful designer than that of an earlier time. The 'Life of Sir John Falstaff' came out in 1858, the 'Fairy Library' in 1864, 'The Brownies' in 1870. Cruikshank died in his eighty-sixth year.

—We drew attention last year to the 'Théâtre de Campagne,' edited by M. Ernest Legouvé, the collaborator of Scribe in the play of "Adrienne Lecouvreur." Its two volumes contained fifteen or sixteen bright little plays suitable for parlor performance. Altogether the best of the editor's own contributions was "Autour d'un Berceau," a pretty and pathetic little monologue, the sole actor in which is a young mother. The monologue, as a form of dramatic composition, is a favorite in France, although unduly neglected among us. Influenced, perhaps, by the success which has attended the 'Théâtre de Campagne,' another publisher, Tresse, has issued two series of "Saynètes et Monologues." "Saynète" may be roughly Englished as a dramatic trifle, and most of the *saynètes* in these two volumes are indeed trifles—only the suggestion of a situation, deftly and delicately treated, two or three lightly-drawn characters, a few pages of dialogue, and nothing more. It is the many monologues which give novelty and value to these volumes. Certainly, it is surprising to see what variety and what vivacity can be given to a play in which there is only one part. The "Voyage dans mes Poches" of M. Charles Monselet is both witty and humorous. M. Léon Supersac's "La Porte est close," also in the first volume, is really a complete drama, in spite of its limited *dramatis personæ*. But the best things in the books are half a dozen monologues by M. Charles Cros, and of these "La Bonne," in the second volume, and "L'Affaire de la Rue Beaubourg," in the first, are especially amusing ; in the latter the monotony of the monologue is most ingeniously avoided by allowing the one actor to assume at times a second part. In short, these *saynètes* and monologues are most of them polished and pointed, few of them broad, and none of them long. They bear witness, also, to the growth in France of the study of English literature. There is a reminiscence of "Locksley Hall" in M. Paul Ferrier's "Le Roman d'un Pupille" :

> "Et qui vous aimerait, ayant tous ces défauts,
> Un peu plus que ses chiens, et moins que ses chevaux."

And nearly the whole of "La Perle," by M. Théodore de Banville, has been borrowed from Shakspere's "Antony and Cleopatra." The imitation is often very close and at times happy.

—The history of French operatic music, in all its minutest details, is getting itself written very rapidly. Of the very interesting and copiously-annotated catalogue of the Bibliothèque Musicale du Théâtre de l'Opéra we have already made mention. The first volume is now complete, and one instalment has been issued of the second, covering the years 1807–1826, and containing the portrait of Spontini, etched by M. Le Rat. The two succeeding numbers will, for most readers, be the most entertaining, for they will record the many brilliant successes of the past fifty years, "the epoch Rossini-Meyerbeer," to use the locution of M. Lajarte, the compiler of the catalogue. And while M. Lajarte is thus tracing the main itinerary of opera in France, more than one of his colleagues have been exploring its byways. M. Adolphe Jullien is the author of nearly a dozen musical monographs of varying value and bulk, of which not the least important is the latest, 'La Cour et l'Opéra sous Louis XVI.' (12mo, pp. 369. New York: F. W. Christern). In searching in the national archives for documents cited by M. Desnoiresterres in his excellent work on 'Gluck et Piccini,' M. Jullien came again and again upon the names of Salieri and Sacchini. Knowing how scant were the biographic details about these composers, whose lives and labors had been overshadowed by the conflict of their immediate predecessors and masters, Gluck and Piccini, M. Jullien felt his curiosity piqued ; he made a thorough investigation of the documents, discovering many new and important points in French musical history, which he has set forth at length in 'La Cour et l'Opéra.' His title is well chosen indeed; the paternal government managed the amusements of its subjects with as much intrigue, as much log-rolling and wire-pulling and pipe-laying, as it managed any other important affair of state. The volume—the separate chapters of which have previously appeared in two musical periodicals—contains two distinct biographies. The pages devoted to Salieri are the more interesting, and the chapter recounting the collaboration of Salieri and Beaumarchais in "Tarare" comes most apropos. Beaumarchais, after Gluck and before Wagner, enunciated the fundamental ideas which are to dominate the art-work of the future. M. Jullien points out many analogies between the words of Beaumarchais and the words of Wagner (see p. 250 et circa). He also indicates the similarity in character between Salieri and Beaumarchais, a similarity which rendered the execution by the composer of the musical suggestions of the author an easy task. Beaumarchais even went so far as to send Salieri airs which he had noted down, desiring the composer to use them in a given situation. M. Taine has likened Sheridan to Beaumarchais ; here is another point of resemblance, for Michael Kelly has told us that Sheridan, although he knew nothing of music, had this same feeling of musical effect. The author of the "School for Scandal" and the author of the "Mariage de Figaro" wrote each an opera, and both the "Duenna" and "Tarare" were marked successes. M. Jullien cites the malicious reproduction by one of Beaumarchais' critics, apropos to "Tarare," of the jest of *Figaro* : "Ce qui ne vaut pas la peine d'être dit, on le chante."

—Pasquale Villari, author of the admirable 'Life and Times of Savonarola,' has recently published the first volume of an equally important work, 'Niccolò Machiavelli e i suoi Tempi, illustrati con nuovi documenti' (Florence. 1877. 8vo, pp. xx.-647). No Italian, perhaps, except Petrarch has been the subject of so much study and has been judged so variously as Machiavelli. Like Dante and Petrarch, he has followed in his fame all the vicissitudes of his country, and has been upbraided as a traitor and lauded as a patriot. The cause of such diverse opinions is, as the author of the present work justly says, to be found in an ignorance of the Florentine statesman's times and circumstances, and to form a correct judgment of him one must be well acquainted with the Italian Renaissance. In order that the reader may have this necessary acquaintance with the period, Villari has prefixed to his work an introduction which is nothing less than an elaborate monograph of three hundred pages on the Italian Renaissance. This part of the book is divided into four divisions: The Renaissance; The principal Italian States; Literature; and Political Conditions of Italy at the end of the Fifteenth Century. In the first division the author gives a masterly review of the whole period, explaining in a luminous manner its contradictions and solving many of its enigmas. Then the five important states, Milan, Florence, Venice, Rome, and Naples, are separately and briefly discussed and their complicated relations unravelled. The next chapter is devoted to the rise and progress of Humanism, embracing also Italian literature. Although this subject has been so thoroughly treated by Voigt, Burckhardt, Von Reumont, and Symonds, the reader will still find Villari's treatment fresh and attractive. The final chapter of the introduction discusses the election of Pope Alexander VI. and the expedition of Charles VIII. into Italy, and vividly pictures Rome under the Borgias and Florence under Savonarola. The remainder of the volume is filled with a portion of the First Book of the life of Machiavelli, which embraces the period from his birth, in 1469, to his dismissal from office in 1512, the present volume ending with the year 1507. This period includes the interesting embassies to France and the more famous one to Cæsar Borgia, in the Romagna. More than a hundred pages are devoted to an appendix of documents, many now published for the first time and greatly adding to the value of the work. We cannot speak too highly of the manner in which Villari has done his work; he has ransacked the archives of Italy, and it must not be forgotten that we owe to this thorough search the invaluable despatches of the Venetian ambassador, Giustinian, edited by Villari in 1876. The author possesses a clear and attractive style, and, in spite of his strong convictions, is, it seems to us, candid and impartial. German and English translations of the above volume have recently appeared, the latter by the author's wife, who, we believe, is an English lady and a novelist of considerable power.

SCHLIEMANN'S MYCENÆ.—I.*

THE eager interest with which Schliemann's discoveries at Mycenæ have been received, not merely by scholars but by educated people generally, is a fresh testimony to the strong hold which Homer and the Homeric heroes have kept upon the popular mind. The previous discovery of Troy, still buried in its own ashes, made less than its due impression owing to the scepticism of scholars, not yet entirely abated, as to the possibility of identifying with Homer's Ilion any one of the five cities which Schliemann found piled on the hill of Hissarlik. But no sceptic has ever doubted that the massive fortress with its guardian lions which has stood on the hill of Mycenæ since the earliest dawn of history, was the home and the citadel of Homer's Agamemnon. The further question whether Homer's Agamemnon was, in the last analysis, a human being or a "Solar power" who "rescues the Dawn from the grasp of the Chief who has taken her away," has never disturbed the vast majority of those whom the 'Iliad' and 'Odyssey' have directly or indirectly reached. Ever since Dr. Schliemann telegraphed to the King of Greece in November, 1876, that he had discovered the tombs which tradition called those of Agamemnon, Cassandra, and the others who were slain on their arrival from Troy by Clytemnestra and her lover Ægisthus, and had found in them "immense treasures," sufficient in themselves to fill a large museum which would be the "most wonderful in the world," the work of excavation at Mycenæ has been watched with unabated interest. An account of the principal works of art and the human remains which were brought to light during the first few weeks has been given in the *Nation*, Nos. 601 and 603. These first announcements, alike astonishing and bewildering, were confirmed and supplemented by the later reports; but while we were dependent on Schliemann's own letters for our knowledge, it is not surprising that some allowance was made for a discoverer's enthusiasm and exaggeration. But independent testimony to the importance of the disclosures soon came in, especially after Mr. Newton, of the British Museum, had visited Greece and returned satisfied with what he had seen; and now Dr. Schliemann's large and elegant volume has brought the treasures before our eyes by more than seven hundred excellent illustrations, and confirmed the original impression that an archæological discovery second in importance to none since the finding of Herculaneum and Pompeii has been made upon the famous hill of Mycenæ.

It is true there are some things in the execution of this elaborate work which might have been improved. For example, we wish that the relation of the lithographed "Ichnography of the Royal Tombs in the Agora" (p. 124) to the larger "Panoramic View of the Excavations" (p. 148) were more clear, and that in the latter plan it were possible to make out with certainty any of the important objects of interest (besides Mrs. Schliemann in the foreground). It is provoking, after studying so extensive a plan, to be told that "the four sculptured *stelae* are hidden behind the large standing slab, just in front"; and then to hunt in vain for the unsculptured tombstones, in the belief that "two can be seen to the right, on the side of the entrance to the Agora" (which has no visible entrance), "and two more on the side (?) of the two horses" (when there are at least four horses at some distance apart). Again, we could wish that the weight as well as the size of the more important gold objects had been indicated; now we are left to judge by occasional intimations that they are "massive" or "thick." Perhaps the best information on this subject is that given by Mr. Gladstone in his Preface (p. xxxvi.), when he says that the gold treasure buried with the bodies in the first tomb weighs about 100 lbs. Troy, and is nearly equal in value to £5,000. But we would not seem ungrateful towards a work which, after all deductions are made, offers us a truly regal wealth of illustration.

One of the most interesting topographical discoveries is that of the circular Agora of Mycenæ, just within the Lions' Gate of the citadel. This was surrounded by two circular rows of stone slabs, slightly inclined inward, and covered with horizontal cross slabs, thus forming a continuous bench on which the people or the elders could sit when they were summoned by the king to an assembly within his gates. (For Homeric and other references to an agora of this nature see pp. 125, 126, 338, 339.) Within this circle five tombs were opened, in all of which were found treasures of precious metals, works of art, and human remains. The First Tomb was distinguished by the great amount of its treasure, including (as stated above) about 100 lbs. Troy of gold, although one of the three bodies there buried had been plundered of its ornaments in ancient times (as Schliemann thinks) by means of a shaft sunk from above. The other two bodies in this tomb had their faces covered by "massive" gold masks, represented on pp. 289 and 333. Seven of these remarkable masks have been found, one having the face of a lion (p. 211), a second (p. 199) supposed by Schliemann to have covered a child's face (though there appears to be no other evidence of the child's existence), and five with human features wonderfully delineated. These last are believed by Schliemann to be portrait masks, representing the actual faces of the deceased. This discovery opens a new chapter in archæology, and it would be difficult at present to suggest a better explanation. The only mask preserved without serious mutilation covered the face of the man who was buried at the south end of the First Tomb (p. 289); this shows a face of which even a "Jove-nurtured king" need not have been ashamed. The man who wore it, however, like a true veteran of Troy, mostly crumbled to dust before he could be photographed, leaving only a few bones which are "unusually large." But the body at the north end of this tomb was "wonderfully preserved under its ponderous golden mask," with its "round face" and "all its flesh," and with "thirty-two beautiful teeth," which led "all the physicians" who saw it "to believe that the man must have died at the early age of thirty-five." This body was squeezed into the space of 5 ft. 6 in., and since the man was "of large proportions," as is shown by his large thigh-bones, this squeezing had pressed his head into his breast, so that the top of the head was almost in a line with the upper part of the shoulders. The whole body, moreover, had been pressed to a thickness of 1 in. to 1½ in. By chemical aid it was mummified and carried to Athens. This wretched object, however, was once a king of men, if we may judge by the royal state in which he was interred. The choicest treasures were selected to do honor to his burial. A golden

* 'Mycenæ: A Narrative of Excavations and Discoveries at Mycenæ and Tiryns. By Dr. Henry Schliemann, Citizen of the United States of America; Author of 'Troy and its Remains,' 'Ithaque, le Peloponnèse et Troie,' and 'La Chine et le Japon' The Preface by the Right Hon. W. E. Gladstone, M.P.' Maps, plans, and other illustrations, representing more than 700 types of the objects found in the Royal Sepulchres of Mycenæ and elsewhere in the Excavations. New York: Scribner, Armstrong & Co. 1878.

shoulder-belt, 4 ft. long and 1¾ in. broad, lay across his loins, with the fragment of a double-edged bronze sword attached to it. A "massive golden breast-plate," 15⅞ in. long, and 9¼ in. broad, covered his breast, and the gold mask (p. 333) covered his face. Two bronze swords, with handles richly plated and ornamented with gold (p. 303), lay by his side, and a golden tassel (p. 304) was doubtless attached to one of them. Near by lay eleven bronze swords, one 3 ft. 2 in. long, with ornaments of gold. Among the articles of value in the tomb were 340 gold buttons, most of which were richly ornamented; five large gold cups, four silver cups, and a silver vase 2 ft. 6 in. deep and 1 ft. 8 in. in diameter (see pp. 308–332). Besides the five tombs within the circular Agora, a sixth was afterwards discovered outside of the Agora, but within the Acropolis; this contained no human remains, but treasures and works of art, among others the "marvellous" gold signet-ring pictured on p. 354 and elaborately described in pp. 354–359. It must be, indeed, more marvellous than beautiful. Four sculptured "tombstones" and various fragments of others, together with five plain slabs, were found early in the excavation; three of the former Schliemann thinks were part of a sepulchral monument built over the First Tomb (p. 337). Over the Fourth Tomb was found a circular monument of Cyclopean masonry, open at the top like a well, which Schliemann calls a "funeral altar."

Most readers of this volume, we suspect, especially those whose interest comes more from curiosity than from archæological tastes, will find themselves (perhaps unwillingly) chiefly engrossed with the obvious question whether Dr. Schliemann has actually unearthed, after a burial of thirty centuries, the remains of Agamemnon, Cassandra, and the other victims of the fatal banquet with which Ægisthus and Clytemnestra welcomed the victors of Troy home to Mycenæ. Schliemann's narrative is full of intimations that he felt a growing confidence in this result as he proceeded; and even Mr. Gladstone cautiously says (p. vi.) that it seems as though "the balance of rational presumption might ultimately lean" towards this belief. Perhaps the most remarkable argument in this direction on the slenderest evidence is reported by Mr. Gladstone. He has just mentioned the piteous tale told by Agamemnon's ghost in the 'Odyssey' at his famous meeting with Ulysses (which may fairly be considered the latest authentic news from the King of Men), and his complaint that Clytemnestra left him dying and refused even to close his eyes and mouth in death, and adds (p. xxxvii.): "Singularly enough, Dr. Schliemann assures me that the right eye [*i.e.*, of the body which was preserved], which alone could be seen with tolerable clearness, was not entirely shut; while the teeth of the upper jaw-bone did not quite join those of the lower"! We look in vain for any indication that the learned statesman winked either eye when he wrote this or when he heard it from Dr. Schliemann.

There is, however, a question infinitely more important than that of the identity of these human bodies with those of Agamemnon or Cassandra, which indeed must be settled before the latter can be intelligently discussed; we mean the question upon which the archæological value of the treasure of Mycenæ chiefly depends—to what age are the works of art and other relics found in these six tombs to be assigned? Fortunately, this question admits of an answer which is, on the whole, definite and satisfactory. There was one period, and only one, in the traditional and historical existence of Mycenæ, when such regal entombments as these could have been possible. If this consideration carries us far back into legendary times, it can do no more than the walls and Lions' Gate of Mycenæ have done long ago. Mycenæ boasted no common human origin. Perseus, son of Zeus and Danae, was its reputed founder. His son and successor, Sthenelus, allied himself by marriage with the new royal race whose power was fast spreading over the land. Nicippe, the new queen of Mycenæ, was daughter of Pelops, "the Lydian stranger," whose vast wealth, brought from his father's gold-mines, soon made him the foremost man in the country. Pelops was grandson of Zeus, and his wife, Hippodameia, was granddaughter of Ares. Mycenæ, with the rest of Peloponnesus, soon came under the dominion of the Pelopidæ; and Atreus, Thyestes, and Agamemnon are said to have reigned there as kings of that powerful dynasty. Under Agamemnon, according to the universal tradition, the glory of Mycenæ was at its height. No grander homage could be paid to the majesty of the King of Men than is found in the 'Iliad' (ii. 100–109), where the poet says that the sceptre upon which Agamemnon leaned when he addressed the Achæan host was made by Hephæstus and given by him to Zeus himself, then given by Zeus to Hermes, and by Hermes to Pelops, from whom it descended to Agamemnon. The Trojan war marks in tradition the era at which the royal house of Mycenæ felt so secure in its position, entrenched in its rocky fortress, that it could summon its vassals from all Greece for a war of foreign conquest. The wealth of Mycenæ at this period was as famous in story as her power. No other city in Greece was distinguished in Homer by the epithet "rich in gold"; and as her walls still testify to her strength, so the vast subterranean vaults, which in ancient and modern times have always been held to be hiding-places for treasures, bear witness to her enormous wealth. The treasures which such costly buildings could have been designed to protect must themselves have been of immense value. We have, therefore, the best of evidence in the shape of stone walls to support the legends which make Mycenæ the centre of power and the centre of wealth in Greece in the pre-historic period described by Homer, to which the great kings of the race of Pelops belong. But with the triumph of the Trojan war the traditional glory of Mycenæ suddenly ends. The terrible tragedies which stained the palace of the Pelopidæ, multiplied and magnified by poets and by the accumulated traditions of many centuries, are a part of the stories of civic convulsions which historians and poets alike ascribed to the strain of the Trojan war. It was the universal belief that the descendants of Agamemnon never fully recovered their ancestral dominion even over Peloponnesus, before the great revolution known as the Dorian invasion swept away the heroic monarchies and brought nearly the whole peninsula under the rule of a new race of Greeks. The history of Mycenæ after this is short and uneventful. We know little more than is told by Strabo, who says (viii. p. 372): "After the Trojan war, when the empire of Agamemnon was broken up, Mycenæ was humbled, and especially after the return of the Heracleidæ. These subjugated Peloponnesus and expelled the former rulers, in consequence of which the new possessors of Argos held Mycenæ as a dependency." This is what we should suppose to have been the fate of Mycenæ, from the absolute disappearance of so noted a city in history and tradition and from the growing importance of Argos. Finally, in 468 B.C., the Argives captured and destroyed Mycenæ, for the honorable offence (as we are told) of sending eighty men to join Leonidas at Thermopylæ twelve years before. From that time nothing is known of Mycenæ except from the description of its ruins given by Pausanias about 170 A.D. Dr. Schliemann finds evidence, which appears to be conclusive, of a later Greek settlement on the site of the ancient city (p. 63); but these later inhabitants must have been unconscious of the treasure which was buried beneath them, and they certainly cannot be suspected of having contributed to its increase.

The earlier and only glorious part of this story of Mycenæ is, of course, largely fabulous, and we are here dealing with demigods and not with common mortals. But our argument requires us to admit merely that this mythical period, full of famous names and immortal deeds, was a time when powerful princes, whose seat of empire was the citadel of Mycenæ, held dominion over the Argolic land, and that this dominion was brought to an end by the invasion of a new race and the establishment of new governments, under which Mycenæ was neither the seat of a royal house nor even the principal city of Argolis. This invasion, though surrounded by mythical incidents and based upon a mythical claim, must still be acknowledged to stand at least on the threshold of authentic history; for the change from the Achæan civilization described in the Homeric poems to the Dorian life, as it is found in historic times, is a fact too obvious to be questioned. When now excavations in this citadel disclose buried treasures such as no other ancient city has ever yielded; when these treasures are used solely in giving magnificence to the entombment of certain persons who are clearly of the highest rank and dignity, persons whom it is absurd to think of as living in the provincial town which Mycenæ became in the historic period; when, further, it is impossible to believe that such an amount of treasure could have been suffered to remain in a dependent town by the Dorian rulers of Argos, unless it had previously been consecrated to the memory of departed heroes; the conclusion seems irresistible that these treasures and the royal personages with whose remains they were buried all belong to the great heroic age before the Dorian invasion, the age which has heretofore been known to us only by the traditions of the families of Perseus and Pelops, and others equally mythical, by the romances of the Trojan war, and last, not least, by the solid testimony of the walls and gate of Mycenæ—the age, in short, of which Homer sang, and to which Agamemnon and Clytemnestra, Menelaus and Helen, Nestor, Achilles, Diomed, and Ajax all belong.

There are other and somewhat independent grounds for assigning the treasures of Mycenæ to the heroic age. The whole tendency of the Dorian race was to repress art and the higher civilization, and to sacrifice the

elegancies of life to military discipline and gymnastic training. We know the Dorians chiefly through the Spartans, of whom Plutarch says ('Inst. Lacon.,' § 4) that they learned to read and write because they needed it, but banished all other education as they did foreigners. The race cannot have been very different in other places; and though Mycenæ may have been partially exempt from Dorian influences by its secluded position, it cannot, on the other hand, have offered any such encouragement to domestic art as would produce works like those now discovered. Still less can Dorian Mycenæ be suspected of any such foreign trade as would import from abroad either the works of art themselves or foreign workmen who could execute them. On the other hand, when we pass the barrier of the Dorian invasion, though we are beyond the bounds of historic knowledge, we are in a region in which the Peloponnesian fables are full of foreign voyages, and the people appear familiar with foreign works of art. The names of Hercules, Perseus, Prœtus, Io, Danaus, Pelops, Menelaus, all suggest wanderings or migrations. Every reader of Homer is familiar with the works of art with which the Achæans are constantly assumed to be acquainted, and many of these are stated to be works of foreign artists. We mention only the breastplate of Agamemnon, which was a gift of the king of Cyprus, who had heard the fame of the great Achæan and the news of his armament against Troy (Il. xi. 19–22); Helen's silver work-basket with golden edges, which moved on wheels, and her golden distaff, both gifts of the wife of Polybus, who lived in Egyptian Thebes; and the two silver bath-tubs and two tripods which Polybus gave with two golden talents to Menelaus (Od. iv. 125–132). The magnificence of the dining-hall in the palace of Menelaus, which strikes Telemachus with astonishment (Od. iv. 71–75), and the whole style of the hospitality with which Telemachus and his friend are entertained in Sparta (ibid., 43–58), show a refinement and an elegance of living which were entirely unknown to the Dorian successors of Menelaus. Attention has repeatedly been called to the resemblance of the pottery found at Mycenæ to that brought to the British Museum from Ialyssus in Rhodes; this city had in its territory a settlement named Achæa, founded by "Children of the Sun"; and at the time of the Trojan war (according to the Homeric Catalogue) it belonged to the dominion of Tlepolemus, son of Hercules, who was an exile from Peloponnesus, and who sailed with his army to Troy in aid of Agamemnon (Il. ii. 653–657). Curium, in Cyprus, where General di Cesnola has recently found the treasures which are now in this city, was a colony of Argos (*i.e.*, Peloponnesus), according to tradition; and the king of Cyprus mentioned in the 'Odyssey' (xvii. 443) is called a son of Iasos, a name famous in Argive legends. Fabulous as all these stories may be, they are historical so far as they show a race in Peloponnesus whose traditions are full of maritime enterprise and adventure. Surely no such legends could have clustered round a race of Dorian kings.

TWO CALVINISTIC MINISTERS.*

THE impression produced by the first of these books is a vivid sense of the power and compact organization possessed by the Calvinistic Church in New England. Its roots struck so deep in the political and social existence of past generations, its powerful metaphysics so trained and strengthened the minds of its adherents, it required and it produced such a strength of conviction and such a power of endurance, that it fitted them to be citizens of no mean city; and it is nowise a figure of speech to say that the Westminster Catechism produced the American Revolution. What did cold and hunger and poverty matter to a man whose entrance to a near heaven was secure to him as the threshold of his own meeting-house? What heed was he likely to pay to Orders in Council, or any government but of his own choosing, who had fought the battle of freedom and foreknowledge, of election and depravity, and found his own peace in the "covenanted mercies"? They were not agreeable or tolerant or perhaps *tolerable* individuals, but they were capital material to make a state out of. They burned their neighbors with composure for the greater glory of God; they looked forward hopefully to the heaven whose transparent floor should enhance their joy by the sight of the torments provided for sinners and unbaptized infants; they accepted fully the statement that few should be saved; the pleasant things of life disappeared where they lived—but what modern creed will furnish us with such an enduring fibre?

Dr. Woodbridge was a worthy successor to the powerful and pitiless men who made Northampton and the beautiful region thereabout the headquarters of pure Calvinism. He was born in Southampton in 1784, and had on both sides an ancestry beginning in England as dissenters and continuing here as strong Calvinists. The matter of his descent, like a good deal of the book, is confusedly stated, but we make out that he was the seventh John Woodbridge in a direct line. As a very young man he lived a fair life, and began early to study law. His mother and a friend were earnest in his behalf, and are characterized by Mr. Clark as follows: "Those wrestling mothers! A scene for a painter!" At twenty-six years old, in 1810, he had been "converted" during a revival and was settled in Hadley, where there was but one church, and the parish and the town were conterminous. There he remained for twenty years, administering orthodoxy pure and undefiled; fighting the perilous "New Divinity," which taught that attendance on the Lord's Supper was a means of grace; training the farmers, who formed a large portion of his parish, "to think, to discriminate, so that they understood the distinctive difference between Sabellianism, Pelagianism, Socinianism, Arminianism, Unitarianism, as well as the more modern forms of error from German rationalism." How many of our readers are competent to that? At Hadley, according to Mr. Clark, "sometimes gathering into his grasp masses of inspired truth, he hurled them with herculean strength"; here he made pastoral visits, when, calling up each member of the family, "he spoke to each one in regard to their soul's interest in the presence of the others"; here he "preached all day long on the Deluge"; here he refused to concur in the ordination of those whom he found unsound on the cardinal points of "God's absolute sovereignty and man's freedom, and, notwithstanding his absolute depravity, his full responsibility."

After twenty years of this life he accepted a call to the Bowery Church in New York. This church had sunk into a truly shocking condition. "Doing seemed to have been thought of more importance than believing," and both attendance and money were scanty. Dr. Woodbridge was not the man for the place, and left it after six years' vigorous application of orthodoxy to their spiritual and temporal needs, tried two other places, and finally returned to Hadley in 1842 to take charge of a part of his old parish. Here he worked fifteen years longer, consistently setting forth everlasting punishment, and endeavoring to "alarm the sinner and awaken the weeping solicitude of the Christian." After his wife's death the old man went to live with his children in Chicago, and died in 1869 in his eighty-fifth year, a strong and upright man whose convictions one may respect without sharing them.

Dr. Kirk's biography is in marked contrast to Mr. Woodbridge's. The times change, and we change with them, and Dr. Kirk, though holding suitable opinions on death and damnation, was by nature more inclined to persuade than to threaten. He was of Scotch descent, and, like Dr. Woodbridge, began with the study of law. In March, 1822, a friend persuaded him to call on Dr. Spring, whose directions were: "Leave your law-office. Go to your room. Determine never to leave it except as a Christian or a corpse." The result of three days of this regimen was a satisfactory "conversion," and young Kirk entered the Theological School at Princeton in a few months. He was first established in Albany, where there was a *split* in the Second Presbyterian Church, and the Fourth Church was organized under his ministry. It met in an old hall in a poor part of the town, and "the first sign of the influence of the church upon the community was manifest when people began to paint their houses and fences."

Here, as elsewhere throughout his life, Dr. Kirk was a firm believer in revivals, accepted their machinery and trusted their results; and Mr. Mears says "the methods of Moody are substantially those of Dr. Kirk." After eight years' work at Albany he went on a long visit to Europe, whence, it must be confessed, his letters are singularly uninteresting, but where he gained a facility in speaking French to which his friends allude with an almost awe-struck admiration. Two or three years were spent, after his return, in assisting sundry revivals and preaching here and there with great acceptance, until, declining many other calls, he came to Boston to organize the Mount Vernon Church in 1842. He preached here for thirty years to a devoted and admiring congregation, using the accredited formulas but bringing a power of facile oratory to their exposition which made him a successful and renowned preacher. He says of himself, "I aimed at reaching the emotions, and shall while I live," and his personal gifts of voice and presence were effective aids. He was popular, attractive, and successful; if there were severe trials in his life, if he had any mortal liabilities, they do not appear in the biography, and a certain lack of human interest inevitably follows.

* 'The New England Ministry Sixty Years Ago. A Memoir of John Woodbridge. By Rev. Sereno D. Clark.' Boston: Lee & Shepard. 1877.
'Life of Edward Norris Kirk. By David O. Mears.' Boston: Lockwood, Brooks & Co. 1877.

HILLEBRAND'S FRANCE UNDER LOUIS PHILIPPE.*

THIS work could scarcely have appeared more opportunely—in the midst of a fresh struggle between the powers for evil and the powers for good in France, and on the eve of a victory for the latter. The present volume treats of the first seven years of Louis Philippe's reign, or, as Hillebrand aptly calls it, the "storm and stress" period of the bourgeois monarchy. At first sight the reader might be disposed to think seven hundred pages a too liberal allowance of space for seven years; but the author assures us that the remaining volumes will be planned on a smaller scale, and pleads the necessity of introducing in the initial volume all the characters and starting all the springs of action. This he has done with the exception of the philosophical and clerical movements, socialism, and finance, which are to find a more appropriate place in volume second. Both plan and execution, we are persuaded, will meet with hearty approval.

Prof. Hillebrand is evidently no friend to the philosophic treatment of history. He inclines, we think, too much to the opinion that the historian who depicts political leaders at work, who sums up results and assigns to them immediate causes, has done enough. For such a conception of the historian's functions there is at the present day a certain transitory *raison d'être*. It is the symptom of a reaction against the excessive tendency to generalize and to philosophize at the risk of sublimating conscious political action under self-appointed leaders into mere ethnic psychology. So far as the author's treatment is a rejection of ethnic fatalism and a vindication of the claims of the personal element in politics, we can only wish him success. But Hillebrand is too clear a thinker not to be willing to admit that there are such things as national character, inherited instincts, limitations imposed upon every leader by his age and his associates, and that it is a part of the historian's duty to exhibit the vital structure of the past under light that has been, so to speak, carefully polarized. There is all the more danger of misunderstanding the recent past because it is recent. No cultivated reader is likely, for instance, to misjudge the temper of the age of Louis XVI. The *ancien régime* has acquired for us sharply-defined outlines and permanent colors. But who shall depict for us the age of Louis Philippe just as it was, and shall make clear to us how nearly it resembles our own, and yet how radical the difference? Who, indeed, unless the professed historian? And that Hillebrand has not attempted it, has not even considered it his duty to make the attempt, is a defect which we regret all the more because of our conviction that he is eminently qualified for precisely such a task. The author of "Zeiten, Völker, und Menschen" has given too many proofs of his skill at generalization and close analysis to plead exemption.

On the other hand, judged from his own point of view and according to his own plan, Hillebrand has executed his work in a masterly manner. Free from all verbiage, all high-sounding phrases, without a trace of that air of superior wisdom and apocalyptic virtue which has infested most German writers since 1870, he treats France and French politics with the kindness and sympathy of a friend who is afraid neither to praise nor to blame. It is easy to read through the lines and perceive that Louis Philippe is not the author's ideal. In his eyes the burgher-king is a hopeless compromise between divine right and popular sovereignty, a station on the road to Cæsarism on the one hand and a true republic on the other. Yet Louis Philippe is dealt with fairly, and his many good qualities obtain ample recognition. Hillebrand's ideal, so far as he can be said to have one, is unquestionably Casimir Périer. In fact, the first three hundred pages are little more than a warm tribute to the memory of the great Frenchman who piloted the ship of state through the stormy years 1831 and 1832, and made Louis Philippe's reign a possibility. No one can read these pages without conceiving a high admiration for Périer, so energetic, so clear-sighted, so loyal to his principles and his country, so prematurely cut off. Next to Périer, Talleyrand comes in for the largest share of praise. There is something almost touching for its quaintness in the character of the veteran diplomatist, a relic of the *ancien régime*, unable to shake off wholly its prejudices and traditions, yet never failing to repress them when the real interests of France demanded the sacrifice. Those who are specially interested in Continental politics will do well to compare Hillebrand's treatment of the Belgian imbroglio and of the chief actor on the Belgian side, Van de Weyer, with Laugel's account in his 'Grandes Figures Historiques.' The two authors do not disagree, but they present the subject from different sides. No less interesting and valuable are Hillebrand's portraitures of Lafayette, Guizot, Thiers, and Broglie. The true strength of Thiers and the organic weakness of the other three are shown clearly and justly. The vibrations of parliamentary life, the portentous looming-up of the fourth estate, the romantic and fatal episode of the Duchess of Berry, the first appearance of Louis Napoleon on the stage at Strasbourg, the several *attentats* upon Louis Philippe, the shameless demagogism of the republican press—these and all the other factors in the internal life of the nation are set forth in a manner that evinces the author's careful study, his thorough mastery of details, and his accurate sense of proportion.

In respect to his judgments upon the foreign relations of France during these seven years Hillebrand enjoys a double advantage. In the first place, he has had access to German and Italian archives containing the reports and other confidential communications from the various foreign representatives in Paris to their home governments. These reports embody occasionally facts hitherto unpublished, but their chief value consists in the new light they throw upon the motives and conduct of the French leaders, and upon the varying phases of opinion in the capital. A notable instance of secret history thus brought to light is the account of Broglie's famous circular rescript, excepting Piedmont from the so-called "non-intervention" policy, and the *démentis* to which it gave rise (see pp. 552–555, and especially the notes). The duke's convenient faculty of forgetting is exposed in anything but flattering colors. The tergiversations and intrigues of Louis Philippe himself are also laid bare. The despatch of October 18, 1833, from Baron Werther, Prussian Ambassador, to Ancillon contains an extract from an alleged secret memorandum dictated by Louis Philippe to his private secretary (quoted p. 558, note) which, when connected with the cipher instructions to the frontier prefects and to the division-commanders at Metz and Châlons, and with the pretensions of the French representatives at Frankfort and Turin, renders it highly probable that the king was at that time busy with the scheme of a Rhine and South-German confederation under the protectorate of France. We cite this passage, partly to show the author's fulness and partly to justify our previous strictures. If there be any one point more than another calling not merely for statements but for explanation, in every French history written since 1870, it is precisely this "Spuk" of an alliance between the minor German States and France against Austria and Prussia. It sounds to us in this year 1877 so much like a chimera that the historian is under obligation to show how it was a sober possibility, in the eyes of Frenchmen at least, in 1833, and even as late as June, 1870.

In the next place, the author is not a Frenchman but a German. His familiarity with French life and ways and character is too great to require our commendation, yet he himself remains a disinterested and impartial observer. His tone is throughout friendly to the real interests of France. He is incapable of taking a chauvinistic pleasure in the mistakes and misfortunes of a rival nation. He evidently shares the belief, although he does not publicly express it, that a strong and united France is a necessity to Europe—no less, but no more, a necessity than a united Germany or a united Italy. His manliness and perfect good sense are among the most attractive features of his work.

The Cyclopædia of Biography: a Record of the Lives of Eminent Persons. By Parke Godwin. New Edition. With a supplement, brought down to August, 1877. (New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons. 1878. 8vo, pp. 821 and 332.)—The first edition of this book appeared in 1851; the second in 1866, with a supplement by George Sheppard; who is the author of the new supplement we are not told. We reviewed the second edition at the time of its appearance, and pointed out a large number of errors and other shortcomings. None of even the most glaring errors to which we called attention has been corrected in the original parts of the work, the first 821 pages appearing now, so far as we can judge, without the alteration of a letter: George Washington, for instance, is still stated to have been born in Fairfax (instead of in Westmoreland) County, Virginia, and Prince Poniatowski to have fought bravely in "1812, 1813, and 1814," though he "was drowned in attempting to cross the Elster" at the close of the battle of Leipsic in 1813. None of the notices omitted has been inserted, so that this "comprehensive" record of eminent persons again gives—to use our former words—"all the Artaxerxeses, but no Xerxes; all the German Conrads, but none of the Othos, Maximilians, or Leopolds; all the English Henries, but neither William the Conqueror nor William of Orange; all the French Charleses, but none of the Philips, not excepting Philip Augustus; a number of Spanish Alphonsos, but no Philip, not even the Second; all the Turkish Achmets, but no Mohammed (Sultan), Solyman, or Selim; no Attalus, Herod, Ptolemy, or Seleu-

* 'Geschichte Frankreichs von der Thronbesteigung Louis Philipp's bis zum Falle Napoleon's III. Von Karl Hillebrand. Theil I. Die Sturm und Drangperiode des Julikönigthums, 1830–1837.' Gotha: Perthes; New York: Westermann. 1877.

cus," etc., etc. Nor does this unaltered condition of the original work much surprise us, considering the amount of alterations in the old plates required to fill up the gaps and obliterate the mistakes. What surprises us is the coolness with which the preface to the edition of 1866 is, without the change of another word, made to be a preface dated "Riverside, August 29, 1877," and, though *nothing has been supplied*, to repeat these words: "In the present edition an attempt has been made to supply the few notable names that had been omitted." The separate statement concerning the "Supplement," however, is correct, since that has really been made "copious," being more than doubled in extent. The new matter in it is also on the whole incomparably better than the old, and it is to be regretted that side by side with a large number of readable and generally correct notices of persons of all countries, now added, the poorest titles of the "Supplement" of 1866 have been left standing in all their deformity. Thus, on the same column which contains twenty-three lines on the banker Mirès we find this notice of Poland's greatest poet, Mickiewicz: "Mitzkievitch [*sic*, sing.] Adam, a Polish poet and professor of the Slavonic language [*sic*, sing.] in the college of France. D. 1855"; and directly after twelve lines on Abdul-Aziz, the following biography: "Abdul-Medjid, Khan, sultan of Turkey, b. 1822; d. 1861." We are not even told when the poet was born or when the sultan ascended the throne. Priessnitz reappears as "Pressnitz," and Nakhimoff as "Nachimoff." Oscar I. of Sweden, Frederic William IV. of Prussia, and Maximilian II. of Bavaria, whom the compiler of 1866 forgot to enter, are also forgotten in 1878, while Frederic William of Hesse-Cassel and Leopold of Lippe, both of whom died in 1875, are duly, or unduly, recorded. Slips in the new matter are much rarer than in the old. We have noticed, among others, the following: Freiligrath is entered as "Freilegrath"; his death is forgotten; so is the birth of Napoleon III.; Benedek, the vanquished of Sadowa, is noticed, though falsely reported dead (the book contains no living persons); "1847" stands for 1848 as the year of revolutions, in "Ferdinand I."; and "September 21" for September 20, as the date of the battle of Chickamauga, in the notice of General Thomas.

Foreign Classics for English Readers. Edited by Mrs. Oliphant. 'Voltaire.' By Colonel Hamley. (Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott & Co. 12mo, pp. 204.)—There is no author more worthy than Voltaire to form one of a series of foreign classics. He not only stands in the first rank of literary merit among the writers of his nation, but is in every respect an author very characteristic of his nation. Nor is he eminent in literature alone, but is one of the small class of purely literary men whose literary career is an historical event; for however great or small may have been his direct influence in producing the French Revolution—a question which Col. Hamley leaves undecided—there is no doubt that he is the most prominent representative of that tendency of the French mind in the eighteenth century out of which the Revolution grew. But there is another even stronger reason for conferring this honor upon him, viz., that probably no writer of equal eminence in all history has been the object of such violent and unmerited abuse. Col. Hamley has appropriately begun by recalling to memory the unreasoning obloquy with which Voltaire's name was covered in his own time and for many generations after—a feeling which found suitable expression in Dr. Johnson's doubt whether he would rather sentence Voltaire or Rousseau to transportation in the plantations. From this beginning it would not be possible at the present day that a candid review of his life should not, on the whole, have the aim of vindicating his character and influence. His own words (p. 186) in reference to the church which he rebuilt at Ferney with the inscription *Deo erexit Voltaire* are most significant: "The church that I have built is the only church in the universe that is dedicated to God alone—all the others are dedicated to saints. For my part, I would rather build for the master than the valets."

It is not that Voltaire is made out to be a perfect character, any more than an author of the highest rank. He shared in both respects the limitations of his nation and his age. As a man he was not in advance of the society in which he lived; nor, certainly, was he below its standard. As a writer he produced works which we are glad to read at the present day, but which nevertheless nobody need feel himself much the poorer if he has never read. If he is the highest name in French literature, it marks the essential inferiority of French literature that there is not one of his writings which ranks among those which every educated man must know—by the side of "Hamlet" and "Faust" and the "Iliad." Probably to most persons this little volume, which is excellently edited, contains all of this great man which they will care either to read or to know; but the strongest impression gained from it will be that he did a real service to the world in behalf of humanity, a service for which the world has only just begun to be grateful.

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NEW YORK, THURSDAY, FEBRUARY 14, 1878.

The Week.

THE Louisiana Returning Board trial has resulted in the conviction of Anderson with a recommendation to mercy, the jury having been out only forty minutes; the conviction was obtained entirely on the Mount Vernon parish returns. He has moved for a new trial on the ground that one of the two colored jurors was a minor, and that therefore the trial took place before eleven jurors, and also that one of the jurors had, a few days before the trial, expressed his belief in the prisoner's guilt. The result seems to make Wells's conviction certain, and appears to have thrown the "visiting statesmen" at Washington into a state of considerable excitement. Messrs. Sherman, Stanley Matthews, Garfield, Eugene Hale, and Harry White have united in a letter to Anderson, expressing their belief in his innocence, and in the falsehood and malice of his persecutors, and their hope that "the sense of justice and love of peace of the people of Louisiana will protect him." Mr. Sherman during the trial, we believe, wrote to him to the same effect, and is now loudly denouncing the court, the jury, and the people of Louisiana and the whole South to the newspaper reporters. The defence put forward for the prisoner by his Northern friends is that the jury was packed to convict; that the judge who tried the case is a defaulter to the United States Government to the extent of $600,000; and that anyhow Anderson's offence, if real, is political, and ought to have been covered by President Hayes's goodness in setting up the Nicholls government.

The unseemliness of Mr. Sherman's course, as a Cabinet officer, in denouncing a State court during the progress of a trial, and writing sympathizing letters to the prisoner, is, of course, apparent to everybody. But it is the natural and inevitable result of his first indiscretion as a United States Senator in going down to meddle in a local election, the result of which was very likely to come before him as a judge in Congress, and in point of fact did eventually do so. Neither he nor Messrs. Garfield and Hale had any business to turn "visiting statesmen," or to form part of any partisan body appointed to superintend a Presidential election in a distant State. The commission appointed by General Grant to go to Louisiana during the count ought to have been composed of men of high standing of both parties, and not of the active, expectant friends of one of the candidates. Therefore the sweeping certificate of character which the "statesmen" gave the Returning Board did not win popular confidence for their performances, and gave the "statesmen" the air of confederates in the eyes of those who believed the Board guilty of fraud. For all these reasons, and others, the new certificate will not now help Anderson; and it follows the first one as a matter of course. We may add that the appointment of Wells, Anderson, and their clerks as custom-house officers after all that had occurred, and in view of the fact that half the voters of the United States believed them knaves, was not only not "civil-service reform," but was just the thing to keep up popular irritation in Louisiana, and provoke the legal attack on them which is now proving successful. It is, perhaps, well for the cause of reform, however, that these little compromise measures, of which the President seems so fond, should not succeed. He will yet have to make his reform "thorough, radical, and complete," or succumb.

As to the character of Judge Whittaker, who presided at the Anderson trial, it is difficult, with the means at our disposal, to pronounce any definite opinion on the charge of defalcation made against him. He is a native of Massachusetts, and the case against him is that, being Assistant Treasurer in New Orleans in 1866, his cash was found "short" by about $1,100,000, which he accounted for in part or in whole by having deposited it in a national bank which failed, and with the managers of which he was accused of complicity. Being indicted and tried for the same, he was honorably acquitted, his friends say, by the jury without leaving their seats; while his enemies aver that this hasty action of the jury was taken in the teeth of the evidence, owing to their being "unrepentant rebels." That he may have defaulted and Anderson still be guilty is, however, not impossible or improbable, as Secretary Sherman apparently thinks.

In any case, a judge that is good enough for the people of the State is good enough for the Returning Board. It is shocking, no doubt, to have a defaulter on the bench—if defaulter he be—but it is on behalf of the whole community that the thing is to be protested against by outsiders, if at all. There is nothing in Anderson's case or Wells's to entitle them to be tried by an exceptionally pure man. Judge Whittaker's charge lies before us, and appears to be extremely careful and fair. The principal point in Anderson's defence is that the forgeries and alterations in the Mount Vernon returns were done by Littlefield, the clerk, to qualify himself to be a Democratic witness, and no language seems to be considered too strong on the part of the "visiting statesmen" in describing the badness of his character. They are right in this; but he was appointed by the Returning Board with a full knowledge of his character. When they gave him the place he was a noted loafer in "stables and bar-rooms," according to his own account, and held a sinecure in the New Orleans Custom-house at $83 a month; of the other clerks, four were under indictment, one for murder and another for obtaining money under false pretences. We believe they are all now, except Littlefield, lodged in the custom-house. That Anderson had less to do with this dirty work than Wells, or perhaps left it all to him, we think is very likely; he is a much more respectable man. That Wells did it cheerfully is not surprising; General Sheridan testified as early as 1867 "that he had not an honest man among his friends." The thing for the President and Cabinet to do now is to let the law take its course. They are not responsible in any manner or form for the doings of State courts, and threats and denunciations will be both unseemly and mischievous. Any embarrassment there is in the situation falls on Mr. Sherman, and he fairly merits it.

The most important contributions to the financial discussion during the week have been a letter of Mr. Belmont's and a speech of Senator Hill, of Georgia, the "Ben Hill" whom Butler was elected "to take care of." The letter is in terms a severe castigation of Mr. Hendricks, who seems to be running a race in demagogy and tergiversation with Mr. Thurman, of Ohio, either of whom is apparently ready to say anything to be on the side of the majority, and both of whom will soon have changed opinions so often as to endanger their sense of personal identity. Mr. Belmont convicts the worthy Hendricks of having in 1874 or 1875—that is, after the demonetization of silver—maintained that the public debt was payable "exclusively in gold," but he now says that when he said "exclusively in gold" he meant "silver," or "silver or gold." What he will say he meant a year hence, of course nobody knows. After disposing of Hendricks, the writer goes on to show that the Act of 1873 was really a pledge to the public creditor, waiving the right to pay in silver; that the right now claimed by the Bland Bill to repeal it and pay in silver, silver having greatly depreciated, is the assertion of a power over private property which a czar or sultan would not dare to claim, and that if this act is not binding on the public conscience, no other is; that the power of Congress over the coinage has to be exercised within the restrictions imposed by the national faith towards its creditors; that the steadiness given to the United States

bonds by the Act of 1873 has been of enormous benefit, owing to the fact that the $1,300,000,000 out of $1,726,000,000 which, according to the best estimates, are held in this country, and nineteen-twentieths of them by savings-banks, trust companies, and private estates, have thus during the last three years of financial disaster been saved from the terrible depreciation which has overtaken every other species of property. He further shows how the perpetration of the pending silver fraud will increase our present burden of interest, and will, by robbing us of our gold and deluging us with foreign silver, put it out of our power to reach bi-metallism in the only permanent way, by concert with foreign nations. The letter ought to be circulated among those of the silver-men who are still in even partial possession of their reason.

Senator Hill's speech was "ringing," and, while eulogizing silver, proposed to make it a legal tender only for amounts under $100. He denounced the Bland Bill in strong terms, declaring it "the pickpocket bill of American legislation." He was also very severe upon those who hold that because we were glad to borrow money during the war at sixty cents on the dollar, we are now entitled, in spite of our bargain, to pay the bonds off in depreciated currency, no matter in whose hands we find them, or what the holder may have paid for them. Some of the remarks which the friends of honest courses have to make on this subject have the simplicity of the exhortation of a prison chaplain to a band of recently-arrived convicts. Mr. Hill's peroration is worth quoting and remembering, especially by the constituency which sent Butler up to Washington:

"There was but one patriotic course for Congress to pursue—call back the people to an honest renewed recognition of the obligations of contract; teach the present generation, teach all generations, that fidelity to truth and law was the best religion, the wisest statesmanship, and the truest patriotism."

Mr. Conkling has not spoken on the Silver Bill, and it is now said that he is going to reserve himself for the debate after the veto. The probability is, however, that he is so absorbed in studying "the mechanism of government," as the *Tribune* says, that he has no time for the products of government. He and others like him enjoy the working of the loom so much that the kind of cloth produced has no interest for them. There are sinister rumors from Washington that there need be no difficulty in sustaining the President's veto, if he will only intimate to certain Senators that he needs their votes on the usual terms; which reminds one of a duel that occurred in California the other day, where, after the first fire, one of the combatants offered to "settle" for $275, and not a cent less. The Senate, in fact, seems to be getting into the condition of the Prætorian guards or the Janissaries, who, in their later days, would never fight without largesses of some kind. At present Senators require offices before they will consent to legislate; as the years roll on they will probably take their compensation in produce, or negotiable securities, or plain money.

It would be nearly correct to say that Congress has during the week not advanced the public business a single step. Everything waits on the passage of the Bland Bill in the Senate, and the debate has still no visible end. Mr. Blaine delivered himself on Thursday, and has since learned, what he might have known before, that the compromiser with his plumper though still short-weight dollar excites the rage of the silver-men even more than the out-and-out "goldite." The Cincinnati *Commercial* calls his plan "the meanest and most foolish and insolent proposition that has come before the American people." The speech was a wasted "effort," except as a test of character. Besides Senator Hill, of Georgia, another Democrat, Senator Kernan, of New York, took his stand on the side of the national honor, on Wednesday week, on which day also Senator Christiancy introduced a well-meaning substitute for the Bland Bill, providing an awkward *modus vivendi* for the two metals, with gold as the standard, and the Senate chaplain made his contribution to the discussion by reminding the Almighty in his prayer that "the silver and the gold are Thine, and the cattle upon a thousand hills"—an argument which has an equal bearing on the duties on hides. On Tuesday the Senate passed a bill which promises to lead to enlarged or wholly new accommodations for the National Library, and a bill for the purchase of the Freedman's Bank Building, by which depositors will be gainers. The House has rejected a Southern war-claim by a non-partisan vote, and has refused to amend the Military Academy Appropriation Bill by cutting off the extra pay of first lieutenants employed as instructors.

"Adjustment" is still the preoccupation of the Virginia Legislature, nor does an agreement between both houses, or between them and the public creditor, seem highly probable. While the House is considering with favor a gross repudiation measure, the Senate has passed a milder one, which provides for the issue of new four per cent. bonds dated July 1, 1878, payable in thirty-four years, but redeemable after ten, and with semi-annual coupons receivable for most State dues and taxes unless in time of war or rebellion. For these the holders of various classes of consolidated bonds, having already tax-receivable coupons at a higher rate of interest, may (which means *must*) exchange the latter; and when this exchange amounts to three-fourths of the consolidated debt, the so-called "peeler" bonds may be likewise exchanged for their face, and other unfunded bonds and stock for two-thirds their face. This is regarded by Virginians who desire the State to fulfil its obligations as a respectable and honorable proposition, and as, at all events, a pledge that the more unblushing designs of the House must fail to receive the Senate's approval. They lay great stress on the tax-receivable coupons, and apparently the holders of the non-consolidated debt may find in this a security which will compensate them for the docking they receive in principal or interest or both; but of course this security has no real basis. The admission of the right of the State to force its creditors to accept less than they were promised leaves their claims at the mercy of the first rascally legislature, which may begin by taking away the receivability of the coupons. That such contracts differ in kind from private contracts has been openly asserted in the Virginia House, which has been asked by one of its members to declare its opinion that the United States Constitutional prohibition against State legislation impairing the obligation of contracts applies "only to the case of private contracts, and not to the public debts of this Commonwealth." General Taliaferro admitted that this interpretation was in accordance with the contemporaneous views of Governor Randolph and Luther Martin, but opposed it as a long since judicially-branded heresy.

It cannot be said that the integrity of Virginia suffers as yet in comparison with that of South Carolina. In 1874 this State arranged a settlement with its creditors under a consolidation act which reduced the debt from about $16,000,000 to $6,000,000. This was not a wanton procedure, but rested upon the well-known fraudulent character of a large and indeterminable proportion of the bonds issued under the carpet-bag régime. Very likely the State profited as much as she was entitled to, especially at the expense of innocent holders; at all events there was supposed to be an end to all further question about the validity of the debt when once the consolidation securities were issued. Now, however, the Bond Commission makes a long report to the Legislature, and though it can find less than a thousand dollars' worth of consolidated securities that have been issued otherwise than "in proper form," it declares that only about $1,600,000 of them are absolutely good, while the rest are tainted. The explanation of the taint goes back to the doubtful character of some of the bonds exchanged for these securities—in other words, to the very occasion and basis of the compromise made in 1874 with the State's creditors. This is a very remarkable mode of impairing obligations, and one to which there is no end or limit. Another concession of 50 per cent. by the creditor, leading to a fresh issue of consolidated bonds, will after a little interval call for another commission, another "going behind the record," and a third repudiation, and so on.

It is clear that the Virginian adjusters have something to learn from South Carolina; and so, let us add, have all compromising creditors.

The events of the week which most concern Wall Street have been the silver debate in the Senate, the war news and its effect on the London money market, and the differences between the trunk-line railroads. The silver debate has not made any clearer the question whether the 412½-grain dollar will be restored as a full legal tender, and reports at the close of the week are as conflicting as ever. In this city the prevailing opinion is, however, that there will be some providential intervention—exactly in what form no one seems capable of even guessing—to prevent such a consummation. Between the conflicting opinions gold has stood at 101⅞a102¼. The agitation of the London market in consequence of the Russian advance upon Constantinople made consols fluctuate between 96⅛ and 95½, closing near the lowest price. According to the vote of the £6,000,000 asked for by the Government for military and naval purposes, this extra credit is to take the form of an issue of Exchequer bills; they will relieve the London market, to the extent of their issue, of an equal amount of surplus money which is now weighing down the discount rate in that market. U. S. bonds continue to return home from the European markets, and, large as is the amount that has already arrived, it has thus far proved insufficient to pay for our heavy exports, and some gold has been sent here; the amount started from London for New York during the week was little, if any, less than $1,750,000. The trunk-line railroad managers have found it impossible to arrange so as to prevent discrimination against New York on Western-bound freights. In Eastern-bound freight one or two large receivers of grain here have special arrangements which enable them to monopolize the business. Report says that they pay 20a22½ cts. per 100 lbs., while the schedule rate is 40 cts. The merchants are becoming aroused, and a lively "war" is expected even before the reopening of navigation. At the close of the week the gold value of the paper dollar was $0.9803; and the gold value of the 412½-grain silver dollar would have been $0.9029.

The Pope died on Thursday last in his eighty-sixth year. We have made an attempt elsewhere to fix his relations to the great political and ecclesiastical changes which occurred during his reign. His death is of great importance as being likely to force on the Cardinals the decision of the question whether the Church shall now relegate herself to a purely spiritual rôle, and give up the hankering after a restoration of the temporal power which has kept her in hot water ever since 1870; and the necessity for this decision will probably exert a powerful influence on the Conclave. But the question is not nearly so important as it would have been even five years ago. Germany has been so successful in her war against the Ultramontanes that Bismarck is said not to care what the Conclave does. The powerful effort made by the clericals to seize the Government in France, probably in preparation for this very juncture, has totally failed, and the party now in power is probably as indifferent as the Germans. The same thing may be said of Austria and, though in a less degree, of Spain. In fact, the only Catholic Power which is thought likely to wish to use the veto to which they are all entitled is the little kingdom of Portugal. The only other question of interest is whether, now that the temporal power is gone, the Italian cardinals will be willing to let a foreigner into the Chair of St. Peter, in recognition of the changed relation of the Pope to the world. It is not likely, however, that they will do so; the church organization is their work, and perhaps the most splendid monument of Italian genius, greater even than the Roman Empire; and they will probably be unwilling to have it carried through the present crisis by other than Italian hands.

There is no doubt that at this writing the relations between Russia and England have passed into a phase of such delicacy that a very slight indiscretion on either side may bring on war. Great excitement was produced in England towards the close of last week by the news that the Russians had entered Constantinople, and it removed the Liberal opposition to the vote for the army and navy and produced a good deal of warlike frenzy in the London mob, and led to the breaking of Mr. Gladstone's windows and those of the *Daily News*. What had really happened was that the Russians had occupied the Turkish line of defences across the peninsula, at Tchadallye, seventeen miles from the capital, so that during the negotiations they were to have the city at their mercy. This really made little difference, as the Turks had no army to hold the line, and the defeat of Suleiman Pasha was virtually equivalent to the fall of the city; but it was accompanied by great reticence on the part of the Russian Government as to the terms of the armistice, and was followed by an intimation from Prince Gortchakoff to the British minister at St. Petersburg that the terms concerned nobody but the belligerents. What was worse still was that news came from Adrianople which made it very plain that Turkey had determined on a total change of policy, had thrown England overboard, and was likely to enter into a close alliance with Russia. On this the fleet was ordered to Constantinople "to protect the life and property of the Christians," and the Sultan was asked for a firman to open the Dardanelles, which was at first refused on the ground that if the fleet came up the Russians would enter the city, but has probably been by this time conceded. St. Petersburg despatches say that this contingency has been provided for in the Russian instructions to the generals commanding in the field, and that if the British fleet comes up the army will occupy the city and receive the British Admiral with great cordiality. This is the situation which at this writing seems likely to be created before the end of the week. The fleet and army will then be face to face, both in a state of considerable irritation, and each with an enraged public at home egging it on; and the slightest misunderstanding on the spot may bring on war.

That Russia has acted with an appearance of sharpness in the matter there is no question. The Emperor pledged himself that he would not occupy Constantinople, except as a military necessity, in order to compel the Turks to submit. The Turks having submitted while the invading army was still north of Adrianople, it was doubtless expected in London that it would come no further southward, but that peace would be made at Adrianople. The Grand Duke, however, took a broader view of the matter, and concluding, not unreasonably, that the cutting off and defeat of Suleiman's army virtually put the capital at his mercy, determined to get within reach of it before he began to negotiate, so as to preclude the Turks from organizing any fresh resistance behind the fortified lines. While, therefore, he received the envoys at Kezanlik with great courtesy, and began talking peace with them, he carried them gently along with him on his march southward, and managed not to have the armistice concluded until he had reached Tchadallye, at the same time sending very meagre information to St. Petersburg of what he was doing, lest he might be interfered with. This is all, undoubtedly a little sharp, but it is what might have been expected and what any other Power would have done under the circumstances. The political crisis it has brought on in London is little short of ludicrous. It appears to have been expected that Russia, at the close of a bloody war, in which she has lost 100,000 men and disordered her finances, would, after having brought the Turk to his knees, be as moderate and conciliatory and as careful of all collateral interests as she was at the Conference in Constantinople last year, and be ready to take England into partnership on equal terms and to submit the terms of peace to her for revision. There appears, too, to be a strong belief in England that the fleet can blow Russia out of Turkey, especially now that the Danubian fortresses, Widdin, Rustchuk, Belgradshik, and Silistria, are in her hands. If any Power can compel her to retire it is Austria, but Austria will not fight for a trifle, and will certainly not fight for "British interests."

THE DESTRUCTION OF CONFIDENCE BY THE SILVER MOVEMENT.

THE great and, within the last three months, increasing number of failures both of individuals and of banks and other moneyed corporations, following on four years of deep depression and wide-spread financial disaster, would of itself be sufficient to make the return of better times slow and difficult. For the thing which brings back "good times," and keeps them good, is confidence, and confidence means the belief of those who have money not only that it is secure in their hands to-day, but that they may part with it by loan or investment with a reasonable certainty that in one, five, or ten years they will receive back what they gave and enjoy a fair profit on its use in the interval. In no country in the world has this confidence existed in so high a degree during the last sixty years as in this, and in no country has it produced such wonderful prosperity. Nothing like the natural progress of the United States since the beginning of the present century has ever been recorded in industrial history, and this progress has not been due simply, or even principally, to richness of natural resources or wideness of area. The soil is as rich in all ways in Mexico and South America, and in Russia, as here; the climate is as salubrious, and the area open to agriculture for all practical purposes as large. But for want of the last and greatest of all blessings, the blessing of security for savings against vexation or spoliation whether by legal or illegal means, no other nation, however gifted by nature, has grown as this nation. In no other has that splendid confidence in the future which we call "energy and enterprise" been developed in so high a degree; to no other shores has there been that flocking of the most industrious and adventurous spirits of every nationality, which has made the records of American immigration so marvellous a story. There have been plenty of financial disasters within the last eighty years, it is true. There have been "hard times" before now, and the recovery after the collapse of 1837 was very slow; but our present trouble differs from all crises which have preceded it in this, that the standard of value has never in any other been dragged into the political arena, and made the football of political parties. There have been various kinds of currency afloat since the Revolution, good, bad, and indifferent, but behind them all there lay gold and silver coin of steady purchasing power, which nobody thought of meddling with for political purposes, and by which the industry of the country readjusted itself after the various forms of paper inflation had failed.

The trifling changes which have been made in the coinage since 1792 have been made until now by experts, with reference simply to the proper supply of small change and the maintenance of durable monetary relations with other countries. That Congress could meddle with the standard of value, or exercise any discretion in the creation of legal tender, for political convenience, or the convenience of any particular class of the community, was something never dreamed of until the outbreak of the war. Indeed it seems a fair question whether, as suggested by our correspondent, Mr. Sterne, on another page, the power of deciding whether gold and silver should be the unit of value was not reserved to the States by the Constitution, and whether Congress has any right to meddle with the standard at all—whether its function is not confined to coining money and fixing the value of the different coins *in relation to each other*. Taken in any other sense the Constitution would give Congress the right to fix the purchasing power of money—or, in other words, to say how much of any other commodities a particular coin is worth, which is absurd. The "value" of a coin means its value in other coins. The notion that Congress could control the standard of value and make anything it pleased a legal tender came in during the agony and peril of the civil war, and served its purpose at the time; but no man who looks into our financial history since then, and who examines intelligently the situation in which we are now placed, can help regarding it as one of the greatest calamities which ever befell a commercial community, and as likely to give confidence a blow from which it will not recover for many years, and which may permanently diminish our rate of material growth. Between 1865 and 1872 the chance of escape from it offered itself by a rapid funding and redemption of the greenbacks while they were still popularly regarded as promissory notes, and before the politicians had begun to perceive fully the use which might be made of the power of issuing them. That great opportunity was allowed to slip by, owing to General Grant's having put in charge of the Treasury at this most critical moment a very ignorant politician, who wasted precious millions, and years more precious still, in redeeming bonds not due. From the consequences of that mistake, which it is no exaggeration to call frightful, we are now suffering. The standard of value has got down into the political arena, and a question which is almost as delicate and almost as independent of legislation as a mathematical problem, and which is fit to be dealt with by nobody but experts, is being decided by a count of noses, has become a text for all the demagogues in the country, and has filled the minds of millions of the needy and unthinking with the possibility of vast improvements in their condition by legislative money tricks. This situation is grave, and the issue from it is not easy to foresee; but the first step towards escape is to be found in a clear perception of its gravity on the part of the intelligent and industrious, and a clear recognition of the fact that it is unprecedented; that, therefore, the complacent optimism which says we shall get out of this scrape as easily as we have got out of others like it before, is no longer warrantable. We have never been in any scrape like this before.

The possibilities with which it is filling the popular imagination in some parts of the country have produced a kind of insanity in which demagogues are revelling. It has, all accounts agree, ceased to be of any use to argue with the silver-men; the very facts which to the rational and sober-minded portion of the community furnish the strongest argument against the performances with which Congress is threatening us, are to them arguments in their favor. The hostility of all the merchants and bankers and solvent traders to the Bland Bill they regard not as the judgment of competent critics, but as the natural dismay of a parcel of tricksters and gamblers at the prospect of having to disgorge and make compensation to their victims. The rapidly-multiplying failures they treat not as signs that the bill will prove mischievous, but as proofs that it should be passed as speedily as possible. The rapid return of United States bonds from Europe and their fall in the foreign markets they jeer at as devices of the "Money Power" to secure the fruits of its conspiracy in 1873 and defeat the great popular effort to undo its work. In fact, the ordinary weapons of persuasion are at this moment as powerless with the majority in Congress and at the West as they would be in a lunatic asylum, or as they were during the madness of 1792 or of 1871 in Paris. When General Trochu refrained during the siege from sending the National Guard to attack the Germans outside, they said the "*grédin*" was in league with the enemy, and did not like to let loose the only force which meant fighting. When at last he sent them out and they got a sound thrashing, they said the villain had sent them out because he loved to see "the people" slaughtered. In like manner, everything which now happens is to the silver-men a trick of the "goldites"; if silver is scarce, it is the result of their "plot"; if it grows too plentiful, it is the result of their spite and malice. In fact, those who are charged with the discussion of this question would be fairly justified in throwing down their arms, and pronouncing discussion useless. It is apparently the doctor rather than the logician or economist who is now needed.

There are some reasons for fearing that out of this weariness and despair further mischief may result if they produce anything like acquiescence. Some of the supporters of sound currency in the press—the Cincinnati *Gazette*, for instance—are already preparing for total surrender, by saying that this is a people's government, and that if the people decide to remonetize silver, the only thing to be done is to accept their decision and do our best to make

the silver standard a success. It is in this spirit that our greatest danger now lies. The silver movement cannot be made successful by your exertions, brethren. The standard of value is not a question of taste, or philanthropy, or majorities. It is something which neither legislation, nor heroism, nor patriotism can reach. There is, therefore, no use in your "bowing to the popular will" about it. You might as well bow to the popular will about the properties of the circle. If "the people" could settle this question there never would have been any good reason for opposing the silver movement, or any attempt to doctor the currency, for all that would be needed to justify any expedient and make it succeed would be a popular majority in its favor. If we remonetize silver, we shall lose our stock of gold and be deluged with French and German silver, no matter how pious we are; if we pay our bonds or interest in silver we shall lose our credit for a century, no matter what the people say or think. If we part with our gold, as Mr. Belmont showed in his excellent letter the other day, the hope of creating the double standard by concert with the European Powers, the only feasible mode of doing it, will be destroyed, for we shall not have the means of resorting to it.

Moreover, we must not suppose that by accepting the Bland Bill, and making the best of it, we shall satisfy the silver fanatics. On the contrary, there is every reason for believing that we shall embolden them to try other experiments of the same sort. The silver movement began with rational bi-metallists; it has been ever since passing more and more into the hands of extreme men who are burdened with no financial theories whatever, and whose ultimate aim is repudiation and unlimited government money of some sort; and any sign of submission will give this class more and more strength and enterprise, and spread the poison of communism, already very rife, further through the ranks of the workingmen. In addition to this, too, it will probably take a year or two to demonstrate fully the folly of the measure. These two years will be years of alarm and uncertainty and commercial disaster, and before they are passed the timidity of capital will have increased, the reluctance to embark in any new enterprise or to lend money will have spread, and we shall have to try the next experiment in the midst of a paralysis and confusion of which our present condition gives but a slight idea. What wisdom calls for now is that we shall resist still, and to the utmost, at every stage. If the bill is passed over the President's veto, or he should be captivated by any of the "compromises" now offered, such as Mr. Blaine's or Mr. Christiancy's, every effort should be made to localize the folly by State legislation. The sane States, which contain the capital of the country and most of its manufacturing industry, such as New England, New York, and Pennsylvania, should legislate promptly, making gold exclusively the standard of value, and, if thought desirable, making silver a legal tender at its bullion value in gold. This would meet the lunatics and criminals with the only argument which lunatics and criminals understand—the argument of impossibility. It would save the business of the country from a prodigious aggravation of the existing disorder, and would cause a restoration of confidence, by removing that dread of the wild-cat majorities in Congress which is now so fatal to all enterprise.

PIUS THE NINTH.

THE death of Pius IX. has produced more sensation than that of any of his predecessors in modern times, partly owing to the length of his reign, which of itself gave him a certain pre-eminence over them, but mainly owing to the trials through which the Papacy has passed under his rule. Pius VII. excited a good deal more sympathy throughout Europe, and undoubtedly played the *rôle* of a martyr with more dignity and patience; but then this sympathy was largely made up of hatred of Napoleon. Outside the comparatively small politico-religious sect known as "Ultramontanes," the sufferings of Pius IX. have called out nothing that can be called commiseration. His fulminations, too, against the "sub-Alpine monarch," as he called Victor Emmanuel, for despoiling him of the patrimony of the Church, have been deprived of all weight by the belief, which has long been widely diffused among those who were most interested in Papal matters, that these fulminations were purely official; that privately the Pope esteemed Victor Emmanuel; and that he had retained through all the stormy years which had elapsed since he himself first roused the enthusiasm of the Italian Liberals, in 1848, a soft place in his heart for the gallant king who had at last rid Italian soil of foreign rulers—who had, in short, accomplished the work which he, in the first moments of his pontificate, had dreamed that, priest as he was, he might share. It may be fairly questioned, too, whether his abandonment of the Liberal cause in 1848 was not an absolute necessity of his position—whether, defended as it was then, it was possible for anybody who was *ex-officio* conservative to help it; for it must be admitted that, legitimate as was the great uprising of that year, and ripe for it as Europe was, the materials for success of any kind did not exist in the Liberal ranks. The leaders of the movement in every country were mostly either conspirators embittered by persecution, or speculative philosophers who had dreamed so much as to have lost their sense of the possible. In Italy, in Germany, and in France the situation was essentially the same. The popular movement was headed by half-crazed zealots, of whom the military men took easy reckoning as soon as they had recovered from their first surprise, and at whose head a High-Priest professing to represent the most stable of all institutions, and to speak with the voice of indisputable Authority, would have cut a figure almost farcical. It is not to Pio Nono's discredit that he should have quickly recognized his mistake, but there are many reasons for believing that he never wholly cast out the noble aspiration which led him into it, and that the booming of the Italian guns at Palestro and Custozza rekindled in the old man's breast the smouldering fire of the earlier days.

His prolonged and, considering everything, remarkably successful efforts to strengthen the purely spiritual authority of the Papacy look, now that the amazement they at first excited is over, like a recognition on his part of the fact that the temporal power was soon to leave him, and that as a purely spiritual chief he might make demands on the faith and obedience of believers which, when trammelled with responsibilities of a grossly misgoverned principality, he could not decently put forward. The French occupation he must have recognized as a mere preface to his final overthrow as a secular potentate. It left his rule a mere name; and the presence of the king at Florence was a sure sign that he was really on his way to Rome, and that the union of Italy under one head was not only inevitable but near. Mad as the performances of the Vatican Council seemed at the time, would anybody pass the same judgment on them now that he did then? The authority it claimed for the Church and its earthly head then certainly appeared monstrous, not because its propositions were any more abstruse or indigestible than many others already firmly embedded in the body of Roman theology, but because it was supposed that the Catholic mind was no longer as receptive towards dogma as it once was, and that the promulgation of fresh and startling truths would too severely strain the faith of the faithful. It certainly seems now as if the Pope in this matter had been wiser than his critics. The dissent and insubordination which showed themselves immediately after the Council, and which then seemed so formidable, have almost faded out of sight. The Old-Catholic movement, from which so much was expected, has come to nothing. When such leaders as Dr. Döllinger and Bishop Reinkens—already old men—disappear, it is probable we shall never hear much more of their following. On the other hand, as far as the rest of the Church is concerned, the infallibility proclamation has acted very much like the successful quelling of a mutiny or an insubordinate army. It has broken in the clergy and the laity to a submission and discipline they have never known before. It has made resistance of any kind to Papal authority look more hopeless than it has ever looked before. It has completely extirpated all the traditions of the national churches, and converted the Papacy into a true spiritual Cæsarism, whose law-making power no man disputes any longer.

It is true, doubtless, that the success of the Ultramontanes has been due in a measure to the existence of a state of things which at first sight seems unfavorable to all spiritual authority. The Old Catholics have failed not because the world is more disposed now than ever to submit to prelatical pretensions, but because the indifference about dogma is very great, and the hostility to it not strong enough to make men take much trouble to display it. In Luther's day, when a man revolted against the church he was bred in, he could not be satisfied without setting up another. In ours he does not care enough about the matter to supply himself with a new organization. He simply goes his way, keeps his belief to himself, and if there is no church to suit him he connects himself with none. The prevalence of this lukewarmness takes the life out of all dissent, and makes the promulgation of new doctrines comparatively easy. On the other hand, the really earnest and sincere believers, who in other days would have had a sore struggle in accepting anything so strange and non-rational as the Pope's infallibility—that is, the large body of Christians who are ready enough to inherit articles of faith, however strange, but do not like adding to the number themselves—are in our time too much troubled about the whole fabric of belief to care much about any alterations in it that do not seem to imperil it. They are frightened by Materialism, frightened by the assaults made not on the Catholic Church only, but on all faith in the supernatural and invisible, and shrink back with horror from the world which modern Science seems to offer them, in which Memory would seem an encumbrance, Hope would have nothing to feed on, and Love itself become the seed of useless pain. To these—and they are a great host—the pretensions, however exorbitant, of any institution which seems to stand for and maintain the connection between the visible and invisible world, and to guarantee man's immortality, are readily forgiven, even if they are not applauded. They are a host, too, whose ranks will be easily and largely recruited as long as bread is won in bitterness and sorrow, and in every human life "the sweet bells of morning" cease to ring at noon.

The Pope was perhaps, therefore, more a man of his time than he seemed to most of us ten years ago, and yet he was the last and greatest relic of the Middle Ages. We shall never again see a compound of the priest and king, or the strange spectacle which he, good and gentle as he was, afforded us of earthly battalions in the pay of Christ's representative raking his enemies with repeating rifles, and sacking towns *ad majorem Dei gloriam*. Perugia and Monte Rotondo left "damned spots" on the Pope's white hands which all the waters of Jordan could not wash out, and yet they were but projections into modern society of ideas which fifteen centuries of theological cultivation of morals had sanctioned, and which to the whole Catholic world to-day have nothing strange or shocking in them. Fifty years hence they will seem as atrocious as heretic-burning, and our descendants will be reading of the temporal papacy as we now read of the Order of St. John or of the Knights Templars. The death of Victor Emmanuel and of the Pope and the dismemberment of Turkey in the same year may be said to mark the close of an era. With them the Old Europe left by the treaties of 1815 has finally passed away, and a new Europe with new problems to solve and new forces at work, both social and religious, has taken its place. As we see it, those of us who can recall the Europe of 1848, in which both Pio Nono and Victor Emmanuel first appeared on the scene, must acknowledge that the gains of the thirty years have been very great. It is not only that new states have arisen on the ruins of mediæval despotisms, but that the friends of progress have been sobered and disciplined by experience. Those who now long for better things see with clearer eyes and labor with steadier hands. It is pleasant to remember this when one recalls the vast and flaming battle-fields on which the old régime passed away. It is pleasant to remember that the year which witnesses the death of the last temporal Pope and of the first King of Italy will probably witness also the final extirpation of Asiatic rule on European soil.

THE CONSTITUTIONAL AMENDMENT ON CITY GOVERNMENT.

THE last Legislature passed the Amendment to the Constitution providing a general plan of municipal government for the cities of this State. It has to be passed by the present Legislature also, in order to be prepared for submission to the people at the next election, and at this writing it seems likely that the present Legislature will not pass it. The amendment may be said to have met with the approval of all that portion of the community which really desires to see city government improved, except as regards the fifth section, which provides for the election of a Board of Finance by taxpayers exclusively. The well-meaning who object to this do so either on the ground that this restriction of the suffrage would not raise the character of the board, or on the ground that, whether it would or not, no amendment with this restriction on it has any chance of adoption by the people. To meet the views of this class it has been proposed and advocated by Mr. Bradford Prince that the suffrage section shall be submitted as a separate amendment, so that it may be voted on without endangering the remainder, which is acknowledged to contain valuable features. But certain members of the bar, belonging to the Committee of Fifty organized for the support of the amendment as reported by the Commission, have written an opinion, in which Judge Comstock concurs, that this Legislature has no power to break up the amendment and submit it in parts; that it must submit it as it received it from its predecessor, and that any such change as is proposed would make it a new and different one, which, in its turn, would have to receive the approval of two Legislatures before being voted on by the people. It may be taken for granted, therefore, that it will either be submitted as it is, or be allowed to drop.

It is easy to understand why the Legislature should be unwilling itself to embody it in the Constitution, if it had the power to do so; why it should be unwilling to submit it to a popular vote is tolerably hard for the ordinary mind to comprehend. All those who think the suffrage section ought not to be adopted, no matter for what reason, are, as far as our observation goes, sure that it will not be adopted, so that the submission would be to them at worst nothing more than an act of common courtesy to the very large and respectable body of citizens who believe in it, and to the Commission which gave a good deal of time and labor to framing it. The only thing that its opponents can possibly fear from the submission, therefore, is that it would pain the people to be asked to vote on anything of the kind. But is not this taking a very superfine and wholly unreal view of popular susceptibilities? Nobody who knows the people of this State really supposes that their feelings would be hurt by being asked to cast their ballots about anything not frivolous or ridiculous. On the contrary, if the proposal of the Commission be as offensive to the popular feeling as many politicians think it is, the voters will be glad to have a chance of formally stamping it with their disapproval, and in this way the matter would be finally set at rest and the responsibility of rejecting the plan of the Commission placed on the only shoulders competent or authorized to assume it. For we have no hesitation in saying that, considering the increasing gravity of the problem of city government in this State, nobody but the people at large ought to venture to reject any well-considered and properly authorized attempt to solve it. It is not claiming too much for the report of the Commission to say that it is such an attempt. What the people think about the matter is something on which the wisest and shrewdest politicians may be mistaken; we know what blunders this class occasionally make as to the drift of popular sentiment. When the popular judgment can be so readily had, it seems unreasonable and unwarrantable to refuse to ask for it, particularly when, if obtained, it might serve as a useful guide in subsequent efforts to provide our cities with a better government.

The report of the Commission shows beyond dispute that the proposed mode of electing the Board of Finance is no innovation; that the principle on which it is based has long been recognized in

the government of the smaller municipalities of the State. We have drawn attention in these columns to the various devices adopted in all the charter legislation of the last twenty years, such as commissions and boards of apportionment, to withdraw the city funds in whole or in part from the control of universal suffrage; or, in other words, to do covertly or by indirection what the amendment proposes to do openly. The arguments, therefore, which have been most freely used against it, that it is an innovation and that it would deprive a large body of voters of rights they now enjoy, may fairly be pronounced worthless. They are refuted by notorious facts. What this portion of the plan of the Commission seeks to accomplish, and all that it would accomplish if it succeeded, is the creation of a better body than now exists for the supervision of city expenditures. It would, in other words, if it answered the expectations of its authors, put the city treasury in the keeping of a board of citizens of character and repute, place it out of the reach of the General Committee of Tammany Hall, which is probably the most discreditable organization which has ever controlled the government of a civilized community, and is about as much influenced by universal suffrage or by public opinion as King Koffee Kalkalli.

There are two good results which the adoption of the Amendment *without* the restricted suffrage would bring about, and two only. It would put a stop to charter-tinkering at Albany and to the annual interference of the Legislature with city affairs, and might possibly thus increase the sense of responsibility of the citizens themselves with regard to municipal business. It would also stop the practice of running in debt for the current expenses of the city government. That these would be important gains we do not deny, but they might be achieved and leave the fundamental evil of municipal affairs still untouched—viz., the levying of enormous taxes, to be expended by a low class of officials in a wasteful and corrupt manner. The leading misfortune of New York to-day is essentially the same as that under which it labored twenty years ago—viz., that vast sums of money are levied from the citizens for which no adequate return is made. The streets are not properly cleaned or paved or policed; the administration of justice in its lower branches is ignorant and corrupt; the whole government is honeycombed with sinecures and jobbery, and the public works are used for the reward of party services. The Tweed Ring did not create these evils; it merely aggravated them rapidly. The Constitutional Amendment, if shorn of the suffrage section, would not cure them, and for the simple reason that a board of Finance such as the Amendment provides for, elected by universal suffrage—that is, by the constituency which elects the present city government—would be in no respect superior to the late Board of Supervisors or the present Board of Aldermen. Why should it? Its members would be nominated in precisely the same way, and its powers would be so great that the eagerness of the class of persons who now control the city government to get hold of it would be unconquerable. It would become, in short, from the very first a ring of jobbers drawn from both parties, like the old Board of Supervisors, probably most of them men without property, and animated by that contempt for property-holders which seems to be the latest fashion among American demagogues; and, worse still, it would be embedded in the Constitution.

The one hope of salvation for the city lies in bringing home to the bulk of the voters two things—first, that they are taxpayers, and, secondly, that municipal affairs are business affairs, to be managed on business principles. The election of a Board of Finance by universal suffrage will not do this. It will bring no new sentiment or idea or influence to bear on city affairs. It will not create or foster any new way of looking at them. It will not bring home to the resident workingman that he is any more interested in the proper conduct of municipal business than any tramp who begs by day and sleeps in the station-house at night. It will simply be a rearrangement of the old materials of the kind which is attempted at Albany every winter, with the difference that this one would be permanent. The plan of the Commission, perhaps, would not produce any improvement; it may be that the evils of government in a city peopled as New York is are ineradicable; but it is quite certain, or certain as anything can be in politics, that creating a new Board, differing from the Board of Supervisors mainly in name, will make no essential change in the situation.

The flippant demagogy of the Democratic speeches against the suffrage section of the amendment is brought into bold relief by the universal satisfaction with which the withdrawal of the prisons and canals from government by popular election is hailed by all parties. What is this but a practical and sensible recognition by the people of the State that there were some important places which universal suffrage is not fitted to fill directly? Why is there no mourning over the loss by "hundreds and thousands of estimable citizens, clerks, artisans, and young professional men," of all voice in the management of our prisons and great public works? Why should great cities be given up to the dominion of sentimentalists and idealogues any more than the penitentiaries and the canals?

WASHINGTON GOSSIP.

WASHINGTON, February 11, 1878.

THE debate on the Bland Silver Bill has reached the languishing point, so that one begins to hear people say that it will not amount to much whether it passes or not. Its supporters generally acknowledge that it will not relieve the existing commercial distress, and its opponents (many of them) say that, while it is a bad thing, the country will somehow survive it—business will put itself upon a gold basis in spite of silver legislation, and the present worshippers of the "dollar of the fathers" will be so disgusted with their idol after they get it that within three years they will banish it to the uttermost parts of the earth and call for greenbacks instead. The "green goddess of irredeemable paper," as the late Mr. Vallandigham was wont to call it, is the real object of adoration among the silver-men. The report of the Silver Commission itself is an undisguised plea for "fiat money," to be issued on a *per capita* basis. The Ohio inflationists, a few years ago, called for an issue of paper money equal to "the wants of trade." Senator Jones proposes that it be made equal to the census, which is still more vague; and that is what the bulk of his followers are after. I met one of them yesterday. He is a member of Congress. He is wild of eye, honest of purpose, restless of motion, and mad as a March hare. He knows just enough of political economy to be dangerous to himself and others, and he can retail till the crack of doom the theories of "fiat money" which Senator Jones and the Hon. Mr. Bland have furnished in a "job lot" in the pages of their mischievous report. I beg the merchants, bankers, manufacturers, and all citizens who have anything to lose to beware of this disguised legion, who are pushing the Silver Bill only to gain new vantage-ground for greenbacks. They will be just as much opposed to specie resumption after silver is remonetized as before. They want no metallic money whatever, and no metallic basis whatever. Their strength, fortunately, is not so great as that of the Silver Bill itself, which counts among its advocates a great variety of misinformation, thoroughly honest and well-grounded in the belief that specie is a desirable feature of a permanent currency. Nevertheless, the danger will be ever present, till gold resumption is reached, that these madcaps may get possession of the Government long enough to work their theories upon the American people, and for this reason the earliest opportunity should be embraced by every man and corporation to put his or its business upon the basis prevailing in the commercial world. This is not a difficult thing to do at present, and, if the Bland Bill becomes a law in the shape given to it by the Senate Finance Committee—*i. e.*, with the free-coinage clause stricken out—there will be two or three years, while the mints are running on silver, within which this voluntary change may be effected.

I remarked that the silver debate has reached the languishing point. There are signs of weariness and of a desire for change on both sides; yet the demon of bankruptcy and threatened bankruptcy continues to lash an unwilling Congress forward to an act which a majority of members deem unwise, and which they would like to find some excuse to avoid. There can be no doubt that large and important sections of the country are crazy on this subject, and that they will continue so until a revival of business takes place, or until they get the "dollar of the fathers" and find it does them no good. Among the opponents of the bill one frequently hears it said that, but for the disastrous blow to the public credit, it would perhaps be wise and statesmanlike to let the silver-maniacs have their way, free coinage and all, in order that they might by experiment get

all such nonsense out of their heads for all future time. The fact that the public credit is inseparably linked with the measure frustrates this benevolent design, and keeps the President up to the mark (as I am fully persuaded) of vetoing the bill on its first passage. Whether it can be passed over a veto, is the standing conundrum of Washington City; but I am inclined to think it cannot. The next step of the silver-men will be to make silver legal tender to the same extent that greenbacks are. This would be equivalent to a repeal of the date of resumption, as it would precipitate a run on the Treasury for gold on the first of January next, and would cause every outstanding greenback to be presented for redemption in order to get the premium of gold over silver before the new silver dollars could be coined. Of course the Treasury, with $100,000,000 or less of gold, could not expose itself to a draft of over $300,000,000, stimulated by the temptation of 9 per cent. premium. It must necessarily refuse to execute the Resumption Act.

The silver discussion has temporarily withdrawn attention from the President's attitude to the Republican party, or, rather, to the Republican majority in the Senate. The conviction of Anderson and the imprisonment of Wells at New Orleans have, however, fallen like a bomb-shell in the ranks of the "visiting statesmen," and much uneasiness has been manifested in high quarters. It is generally believed that Wells will be convicted also, and that both culprits will be sent to the penitentiary. This movement, so far as one can judge from the conversation of Southern politicians, has no bearing upon the validity of the President's title, but is intended to make the alteration of election returns a costly and reprehensible trade hereafter. Nevertheless, it has stirred up many smouldering fires, and it may possibly have the effect to bring the President "into harmony" with the Republican Senators for the purpose of common defence. Such harmony would imply the abandonment of civil-service reform, the surrender of appointments to Congressmen after the old method, and a re-establishment of the "machine," which has been considerably disabled since the 4th of March last. It is not likely, however, that Wells and Anderson have any disclosures to make which will injuriously affect the President or any member of his Cabinet; for, although Secretary Sherman was among the "visiting statesmen," and may be considered their chief, he is too sagacious to leave any footprints in the company of felons. When the doors of the penitentiary close on Wells and Anderson, and the New Orleans Custom-house loses their valuable services, it will make little difference what they say by way of inculpating others, unless they can produce contracts in writing, bills of exchange, or other instruments capable of being identified. It may be safely assumed that they have nothing to show except the fact that they have been retained in important Federal offices.

The visit of Gen. Bristow to this city on the President's invitation, and the state dinner given in his honor, have no significance beyond what appears upon the surface. They do not imply that Mr. Bristow is to be offered a seat in the Cabinet, or that he is to be the Administration candidate for the next Presidency. What does appear upon the surface is the fact that the President regrets having given heed to the request of the ex-President that he should never recognize Bristow in any way, a request which was not responded to at the time it was made, but which, nevertheless, seems to have produced some impression.

The lobbying forces of the several Pacific Railroads are collecting in formidable array. The most numerous are those of the Union and Central Pacific, whose common object is called a settlement with the Government on the score of the subsidy bonds, but might more properly be styled a plan of compromise offered by a solvent debtor to obtain the profits, without incurring the risks, of fraudulent bankruptcy. The Texas and Pacific subsidy is already slain to all intents and purposes, and if its friends will now join in requiring payment in full of the other subsidy, there will be a new and notable illustration of the proverb that when rogues fall out honest men get their dues.

THE WIFE OF CHARLES I. OF ENGLAND.

PARIS, January 25, 1878.

HENRIETTA-MARIA of France, Queen of England, is chiefly known to the present generation in her own country through the eloquent funeral oration of Bossuet. As long as the French language endures, and even if it ever becomes a dead language, the famous exordium of this oration will be remembered. "He who reigns in heaven, and on whom depend all empires, to whom alone belong glory, majesty, and independence, can alone glory in dictating laws to kings and in giving them, when he chooses, great and terrible lessons, etc. . . ." But a religious sermon, even on the death of a woman who was daughter, wife, and mother of kings, can hardly be looked upon as an historical document. The oration of Bossuet really tells us more about the spirit of the seventeenth century in France than about Henrietta-Maria. The good Madame de Motteville speaks occasionally of her. I found long ago in the wooden boxes of the Quai Voltaire a book with this title: 'Histoire de très-haute et très-puissante Princesse Henriette Marie de France, Reyne de la Grand' Bretagne, avec un Journal de sa vie,' without any author's name; but I have ascertained that this book, published in 1694, is the work of a priest, Father Cotolendi. It is chiefly a homage to the religious sentiments of Henrietta-Maria and an account of her life after her return to France. In England we must cite the 'Lives of the Queens of England,' by Miss Agnes Strickland, and the 'Letters of Henrietta-Maria,' published by Mrs. Anne Everett Green. These letters are translations from the French, and Comte de Baillon gives us now for the first time their original text in a new work on Henrietta-Maria. Mrs. Green discovered these letters in the British Museum. She found there a manuscript containing copies of letters made by a person who evidently hardly knew the French language. The letters had been transcribed without any order, without any regard for the dates, nor even for the unity of each letter. Many letters, which covered several sheets, had been divided without any reference to the end or to the beginning of the phrases. The names had been replaced by pseudonyms. The copies had evidently been made by order of the queen, and the names of her best friends had been changed into those of Pym, Hampden, Essex, etc., so as to deceive the persons who might have found them.

Henrietta and Charles I. had a common cipher. The queen wrote her letters to her husband in French, and she herself made the translation in cipher, when she did not confide this care to Lord Jermyn. When Charles received the letters the cipher helped to restore the original French. The king himself always answered in English. Count Baillon does full justice to the skill with which Mrs. Green reconstituted the original letters of the queen. He has added to the previous collection of these letters in the Harleian collection copies of many letters written from 1625 to 1660, and found in the archives and collections of London, of Paris, and of St. Petersburg. He has used also a manuscript of the memoirs of Father Cyprien de Gamaches, one of the queen's almoners, who never left her for many years.

The first letter of M. de Baillon's collection is significant enough (it is in manuscript at the National Library of Paris). It is addressed to Louis XIII. on the 6th April, 1625. Henrietta thanks the King of France for his good offices in arranging her marriage with the Prince of Wales, and adds: "I give your majesty my word and my faith, in conscience, that if it pleases God to bless this marriage, and if he gives me the grace of having children, I will make no choice in order to educate and wait upon these children except of Catholic persons." She takes the same engagement in a letter addressed on the same day to Pope Urban VIII. It is well known that the Duke of Buckingham came to France to accompany the young queen to her kingdom, and that Marie de Médicis accompanied her daughter to Amiens, where she fell dangerously ill. When she recovered, the queen mother took leave of her daughter and gave her secret instructions which had been prepared by Father Bérulle, and which are kept in copy in the French archives. These instructions are chiefly religious: "Thank God every day that you are Christian and Catholic. . . . You are a descendant of St. Louis. . . . Be firm in the religion in which you have been born, for the defence of which the saint, your ancestor, exposed his life, and died among the infidels. . . . You have received, for the sake of the Holy Virgin, the name of Mary. . . . You belong to God; be always wholly his."

These first letters, these instructions, give us, so to speak, the key to Henrietta's life. Her devotion to her native country, the associations of early life, the memories of the past, all combined to estrange her from a country where she was almost immediately surrounded with enemies. She had the tenacity of her mother, and she had not inherited the elasticity and the intelligence of her father. Religion was always to her more important than politics; it would be perhaps more just to say that she only looked on politics through a religious veil. The queen refused to appear at the ceremony of the coronation on the 7th February, 1626, because she would take no part in an Anglican ceremony, and M. de Baillon is probably right when he says that from that moment she was considered as a mere foreigner, and that the English people deeply resented what it considered a mark of contempt. The Duke of Buckingham inflamed Charles against the French-followers of Henrietta, and on the 7th August, 1626, Charles wrote this letter, so unworthy of a

king: "Steenie: I have received your letter by Dick Graham. This is my answer: I command you to send all the French away to-morrow out of the town, if you can by fair means, but stick not long in disputing; otherwise force them away, driving them away like so many wild beasts, until you have shipped them away, and so the devil go with them." The French followers of the queen were expelled from Somerset House in the most brutal manner. A man threw a stone at the head of the handsome Madame de St. Georges (one of the queen's favorite correspondents, whom she always calls Mamie Saint Georges), but fortunately did not wound her. Henrietta, separated from her French household, considered herself almost in exile. Bassompierre—the famous and handsome Bassompierre—was sent by Louis XIII. to the English court; the details of his mission must be read in his 'Ambassades.' His instructions obliged him to try to effect a reconciliation between Charles and the queen, and he was constantly opposed in his object by Buckingham.

Henrietta was happier after the death of the king's favorite; for eighteen years, says Madame de Motteville, she was "happy as wife, as mother, and as queen." The history of her later misfortunes is well known; in her long conversations with Madame de Motteville, Henrietta-Maria always attributed the fatal issue of the duel between Charles and the Parliament to the betrayal of the Countess of Carlisle. When Charles had resolved to arrest the "five members," he told his secret to his wife. Before going in person to Parliament he embraced her, and said to her: "If in one hour precisely you have no bad news, you will see me again stronger and more powerful than ever." He then left with a hundred gentlemen, and lost some time on his way receiving petitions from various people. Meanwhile, the queen was closeted with Lady Carlisle; after a while she imprudently said to her: "At the present moment the king is, I trust, the master in his own realm, and such and such men (naming the five members) are arrested." The countess left the apartment, wrote a letter to Pym, and sent it in haste. The king was already approaching the house of Parliament with his guards; Pym, however, received the letter in time, and he and the threatened members left before the entrance of the king. Speaking of Charles I., the queen assured Madame de Motteville long afterwards: "I have lost him by my own fault." Henrietta left England for Holland on the 23d of February, 1642. Civil war soon began, and the letters of that period written by the king and his wife became valuable historical documents. The daughter of Henri IV. could write to her husband: "Walk straight on and God will help you; if you do not take care of those who suffer for you you are lost, and if you forget them it is such a vile action that I am sure it cannot come from you. Beware of yourself, as those who speak to you with boldness are generally right in your eyes."

Madame de Motteville will always be the best authority with regard to Henrietta-Maria. You will find in the book of the Comte de Baillon the account of the scene which took place when the news of the execution of Charles I. was broken to her at the Louvre; but the venerable Father Cyprien de Gamaches writes in that peculiar religious style which envelops all human events and affairs in the same solemn generalities. Motteville is simple and more lively. She goes to see Henrietta in the monastery of the Carmelites in the Faubourg Saint Jacques, where the unfortunate widow had found a momentary asylum; she asks her if she has any message for the royal family: "As soon as she saw me she asked me to kneel by the side of her bed, gave me her hand, and with a hundred sobs which interrupted her speech, she besought me to inform the queen of her state, and to tell her that the king her lord, whose death was making her for ever the most unhappy person in the world, had destroyed himself because he had never known the truth; that she advised her never to irritate her people if she had not the power to conquer them completely; that otherwise the people became like a ferocious beast; that she advised her above all to give her confidence to those who can tell the truth and labor to discover it." Mademoiselle de Montpensier—the grande Mademoiselle—insinuates in her memoirs that Henrietta-Maria was not much moved by the terrible fate of Charles. But Mademoiselle, though she had much courage, did not show much sense during her long and agitated life. She was not the best judge of character. She would not condescend to marry the Prince of Wales, and she offered herself afterwards to Lauzun.

From the time of the death of Charles I. Henrietta's life was almost exclusively given to piety and to good works. She took no part in active politics, neither in England nor in France. She spent almost all her time in the convent which she established in a house at Chaillot, and which she bought from the heirs of Marshal Bassompierre. She visited England after her son ascended the throne. Her only object was to propose the marriage of her daughter with the Duke of Orleans. The sight of London, of her apartments at Whitehall and at Somerset House, became a torture for her. Her health was much enfeebled after her great misfortune. She wept constantly and fell in prayer. She thanked God for having made her not a queen, but an *unhappy* queen. Her piety had become a sort of exaltation. She returned to France as soon as the affair of the marriage of her daughter with Monsieur had been arranged. The ceremony of the marriage of the young Henrietta-Anne took place at the Palais Royal the 31st of May, 1661, and Henrietta-Maria, who had always lived with her daughter, had to separate herself from her. It is wonderful to read in Madame de Lafayette's charming life of Madame, and in Saint-Simon, the account of the short career of the new Duchesse d'Orléans. One kind of martyrdom was spared to Henrietta-Maria. The words used by Bossuet in his famous oration, "Madame se meurt, Madame est morte," did not ring in her ears. She died before her daughter, without much pain, and almost passed from life to death as she would have passed to sleep, at the end of 1669. The volume of Comte de Baillon will be found chiefly valuable for its latter part, the correspondence of Henrietta-Maria, which occupies nearly half the volume.

Correspondence.

THE ENCYCLOPÆDIA OF BIOGRAPHY.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The 'Encyclopædia of Biography, noticed in the *Nation* of this week, to which my name is attached, was prepared some thirty years ago, as one of a series of brief, popular "hand-books," without any pretensions to completeness. It has since been enlarged and changed, as I understand, but I have had nothing to do with it, and am in no way responsible for its publication, about which I was not even consulted.

Yours very truly,

Parke Godwin.

19 East Thirty-seventh St., New York, February 8, 1878.

PRESIDENT HAYES AND HIS CABINET.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In your article on "The Art of Politics," in your issue of Feb. 7, you bring out an idea of great value, it seems to me, to all Presidents who, like Hayes, endeavor to carry on reform. I refer to your statement that such a President supremely needs a "united Cabinet."

The real strain upon Hayes—and it is an immense one—is essentially moral in its nature. The vital question with him is: "Have I the stability to resist the great waves of disapproval and discontented ill-will that daily roll over me from the armies of politicians?" The fearful stress and strain upon the resolution, the manhood, of a single person breasting such waves, should find relief by the support of a Cabinet that was a unit in point of purpose and sympathy. It seems to me this should be the virtual requisition upon each member of it: "Your paramount duty is to give me sympathetic, whole-hearted support in my reform measures." If a President found it impossible to gain such support for many measures, let him seek it for two or three, or even one. Let minor issues or results be sacrificed to the great ones. A President surrounded by a Cabinet thus presenting a solid front to the country, would have at hand a moral power vastly helpful to himself and vastly influential with the people.

M.

Hartford, Conn., February 10, 1878.

THE WOODRUFF EXPEDITION.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In your issue of Jan. 31, 1878, appears a communication, signed "Navy," warning parents and guardians from allowing the young to have their characters and morals endangered in the "Woodruff Expedition."

"Navy" refers enquirers to naval officers, and especially to those who have visited foreign ports "on a school or training ship." I am a naval officer, and have served in practice-ships visiting foreign and domestic ports, and desire to bear testimony entirely opposite to your correspondent "Navy." I know of nothing in a practice-cruise for midshipmen, or in the Woodruff Expedition for students, which will be more injurious to their moral characters than the training and instruction pursued in fitting youths for any other profession or business, unless that, perhaps, of a school of divinity.

In making this statement, I speak not only for myself, but also for a large number of officers who think as I do, and who are surprised at the unusual views held by your correspondent "Navy."

Respectfully yours,

AN OFFICER OF THE NAVY.

WASHINGTON, D. C., Feb. 4, 1878.

[This case seems to be one in which an unlimited amount of testimony can be adduced on both sides, if one will only take the pains to collect it, because there will be no agreement as to what excesses and practices are dangerous to morals. The defence has the great advantage of having a strong interest in the manufacture of public opinion in its favor, whereas no one in the Navy or out of it has any personal interest in opposing it. It has been said, we do not know whether on official authority, that one of the reasons for discontinuing the practice-cruises of midshipmen to the Mediterranean was the difficulty of preventing the young men from contamination during the visits to foreign ports, and we believe that this is a case in which prudent people will take the safe side. We have, nevertheless, thought it well to submit the foregoing letter to an eminent naval officer of the widest experience, and we herewith print his comments.—ED. NATION.]

"No man sends his son from home in his early youth to a distant college, or training-ship, or counting-house, where he will be free from parental control and become a law unto himself, without the gravest concern for the temptations and demoralizing influences to which that son must be subjected. In a well-ordered training-ship, such as the practice-ships of the Naval Academy, where the greatest effort is made by judicious officers to protect cadets from vicious influences, and where the time and thoughts of the cadets are fully occupied by healthful and engrossing pursuits, the opportunities for vicious indulgence and the temptations to it are greatly diminished, and I believe that a young gentleman in a naval practice-ship, where the discipline is exact and the supervision careful, is far safer than he would be at a college or in a counting-house. In an ordinary cruising-ship, such as I served in in my early youth, the midshipmen were left with but little restraint to encounter the most dangerous temptations, and the moral risks incurred were such as might well alarm their friends. I know almost nothing of the Woodruff Expedition, and therefore can express no opinion in regard to it. As those who embark in it will pay their own expenses and be under little or no discipline, and may have no engrossing pursuit, they will encounter the temptations to which young men going far from home are subjected. So far as the practice-ships of the Navy are concerned, I fully concur in the opinion expressed by 'An Officer of the Navy.'"

HOW CAN A STATE BE FORCED TO PAY ITS DEBTS?

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: You think it can by a change in the Constitution, giving creditors a right to sue. There have been some similar, if not exactly parallel, difficulties which may be worth considering before you waste your powder on an amendment. The tenants of the Patroon, near Albany, were liable to process, yet for years they resisted the very reasonable claims on them which had, through the good nature of the Patroon, been left to accumulate too long. Process of law was found to be a worthless remedy, and compromise was successfully resorted to. To-day many communities, county and municipal, neglect to pay, and are not sued, and never will be until, like Secretary Boutwell's constituency, *they grow up to the amount* of their inflation and can conveniently stand it. Numberless bondholders of large railroads have waited and are now quietly awaiting payment while the railroad managers pay themselves out of the earnings for the debts *to* themselves which they have put upon their roads.

Why is it that these various classes of creditors submit? Simply because it costs more than they think it would come to if they sued. If a law was passed to-morrow giving retrospective right of process against the States, its only effect would be the bad one of deluding some more simpletons into lending money on the strength of it, and when pay-day came the creditor would need a long purse, an india-rubber neck, and a ball-proof jacket if he tried to issue process and sell out a State's property.

What, then, is the remedy? Some who lived in China half a century ago, before there were either English colonies there or consular courts, remember one *large business centre where no debt of any sort could be collected by law, and where the bad debts incurred were so small that they did not form an element in commercial calculation.* Cannot we get a hint from this as to the true remedy?

Railroads, counties, cities, and now it seems States, have had a credit granted them which they did not deserve. Let us recognize the fact that creditors have, under *any* laws you can frame, a very limited remedy against any of these classes of debtors, and instead of seeking a remedy in *more* law, let us find it as we used to in *old* Canton, by giving less credit, and looking more sharply into the character and means of those we trust.

To-day trust companies, savings-banks, and other institutions, managed too much by salaried agents, have lent more millions upon inflated real estate, not worth now near the mortgages, than all the defaulting States owe. There is law enough; but to-day the inflationists are trying to water the currency, first with silver, and, when that fails, with rags, in the vain hope of giving a fictitious value to the pledged property, and thus making it nominally worth the mortgage, with a remainder to the speculators who led us into this muddle. Instead of too little law for the collection of debts, we depend too much on law already. For the past debt let us compromise with some before they get too callous to their disgraceful situation, and let us pursue dishonest corporations by combined action. For the future, let those who have accumulated capital find some safer uses for what they have left near home, among their own neighbors and those they know are trustworthy. Let them try to make the seaboard States more prosperous by using capital at home, even at low rates of interest, and let the more distant communities wait for their improvements until they can make them, if not wholly, more largely out of the surplus which they themselves will accumulate in those fertile regions now well supplied with means of communication. Silver bills, paper mills, and changes of the Constitution will be tried in vain to check the evil by one party or the other. Common sense based upon the immutable laws of political economy will some day (perhaps after more years of suffering under the quackery we resort to) come to the rescue.

As I should be torn to pieces by the fanatics for change of laws if I confessed my nationality, I take the friendly covering familiar to my ears forty years ago under the shadow of the Bocca Tigris, and subscribe myself

FAN-QUI (Foreign Devil).

THE POWER OF THE STATES OVER LEGAL TENDER.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The meeting of merchants held a few days ago at the Board of Trade and Transportation endorsed and strengthened the position taken by the banks and bankers, that as a matter of voluntary action they will trade and transact business on the basis of gold alone. Something more than this can, however, be done, and that something very much more effectual.

During the war we heard very much about the latent powers in the United States Constitution which from time to time manifested themselves in most surprising forms. Now, let us call forth the reserved powers of the States and localize as much as possible the consequences of cheap money and dear commodities, and so let a fluctuating currency, uncertain values, and absence of commercial and financial credit—as chickens and curses are said to do—roost at home.

The Constitution of the United States says: "No State shall make anything but gold and silver coin a tender in payment of debts." This implies that the States, not the United States, shall have control of the subject of tender, as it has of all matters of contract, subject to the limitation that such tender must be "gold and silver coin."

The extent to which either shall be a tender is not set forth. Now, pray, what is to hinder all the States not affected by the silver theory from passing a law as follows?

Section 1. On and after January 1, 1879, all debts, obligations, and contracts, express or implied, shall be discharged and dischargeable only in gold coin of the United States of America, issued under Section 3,511 of the Revised Statutes, at their nominal value; and to the extent only of twenty dollars shall such debts be dischargeable in silver coin of the United States of America, issued under Section 3,513 of the Revised Statutes of the United States (trade-dollar). And such gold coin shall be the sole legal tender in payment of all debts, public or private, at their nominal value, when not below the standard weight and limit of tolerance provided by the United States

Coinage Act, and, when reduced in weight below such standard and tolerance, shall be a legal tender at a valuation in proportion to their actual weight; and such silver coin shall be a legal tender at their nominal value for any amount not exceeding ten dollars in any one debt, if such debt exceeds such amount, and the minor coins of the United States shall be a legal tender at their nominal value for an amount not exceeding twenty-five cents in any one payment.

Section 2. All judgments, decrees, and orders of the courts of justice rendered after January 1, 1879, for the payment of money shall be payable, and the interest thereon shall be payable, in gold coin as aforesaid, except so much thereof as may be payable in silver coin, as hereinbefore provided.

Section 3. On all contracts, express or implied, or damages for wrongs to property or persons, made or committed prior to January 1, 1879, which shall come up for adjudication after said date, the courts shall reduce the currency to the value of the gold dollar as it stood when the cause of action accrued, and upon such amount compute the interest in gold.

In the case of the State of New York the following additional section would be necessary:

Section 4. Chapter 73 of the laws of 1875, entitled "An act to establish specie payments on all contracts or obligations payable in this State in dollars, and made after January 1, 1879," is hereby repealed.*

Section 5. This act shall take effect immediately.

This would be the effectual way to answer the United States Congress in advance of the passage of the Bland Bill, and shut the door to much of its evil consequences. Every intelligent physician will, when he has a case of inflammation to deal with, try to localize its effects. Since the subject has been under discussion I have been reflecting as to the means of accomplishing such a result as to the silver inflammation. In this I have been much aided by a letter received from a determined opponent of the demonetizing of silver act of 1873, in which he made quite an ingenious argument that Congress had no power over legal tender at all.

The States which send to Congress members who believe that coining silver is a good thing can try the experiment, and grow, as the speeches of their representatives promise, prosperous upon its results. We, who believe that calling ninety cents a dollar will not make it so as to future transactions or unmake the moral obligations of past ones, may be permitted by this piece of legislation to suffer alone the consequences of our notion. Hereafter we would treat with the States who think otherwise as all nations treat with those who wilfully debase their currency, and say, "You must deal with us in our currency, not in yours." Thus, England trades with Turkey in pounds, shillings, and pence. We have localized what we believe to be a financial disease, and if our friends who now differ from us are in the right as to the expediency of the Bland measure, they get all the benefits of a silver, and we all the injuries of a gold, standard.

Of course it is idle to suppose that the Bland Bill will maintain two standards. A Western politician who has not even seen a twenty-dollar gold-piece in circulation since 1862 will admit the truth of the Gresham law, that a cheaper currency will drive out the dearer of the same nominal value, as one of the few truths, if not the only truth, comprised in that "tyrannical capitalist, bondholder, and coupon-clipper" series of inventions called political economy.

Respectfully, SIMON STERNE.

614 FIFTH AVENUE, NEW YORK, Feb. 7, 1878.

PROFESSOR WALKER ON BI-METALLISM.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: "Hertzka's Translator," referring to the proposition of the bi-metallists, as he states it, "that legislation can control natural forces for definite results," adds: "Prof. Walker nowhere discusses this issue, nor does he present it to his readers." This statement, though not, I am sure, so intended, is likely to do me grave injustice if not corrected.

In fact, I start the question as to the power of a fixed legal rating to keep the metals in concurrent circulation at the foot of page 257 of my book on money; on page 258 I quote M. Cernuschi's vigorous statement of the bi-metallists' claim; on page 259 I express the opinion that "economists have been too much disposed to treat slightingly the agency of law in determining the demand for, or the supply of, articles of commerce." Mr. Mill is then quoted in admission of the practical effects of the laws prohibiting the export or melting of the coin; and the remark is added, "But while law can do something in the way of affecting values, it cannot do everything; and what it can do is rather by way of directing or diverting economic forces than of squarely opposing their current." M. Hertzka is then quoted at length in refutation of M. Cernuschi's claim that a legal rating as wide of the market rating as 1:1 could be established in the coinage, and concurrent circulation be still maintained. On pp. 262–3 the opinion is expressed that Hertzka's refutation of the 1:1 assumption is complete; but that with a legal rating near the market rating the tendency to divergence in value might be restrained through a considerable period of time, and against considerable changes in the conditions of production of the one or the other metal. "Just so soon and just so surely as silver, for instance, tended to become cheaper, from causes affecting the supply, would the desire of every debtor to pay with the cheaper metal operate upon the demand for that metal, bringing it back towards the legal rating." Whether this restraining force would prove sufficient wholly to withstand the impulse to divergence, would depend much on the volume of indebtedness from time to time maturing, and thus creating a demand by preference for the cheaper metal. The subject is further continued to page 267, closing with a quotation from the late Mr. Bagehot respecting the scheme of the Latin Union, "which made gold and silver legal tender; which established a fixed ratio between them. In consequence, whenever the values of the two metals altered, these countries acted as equalizing machines. They took the metal which fell, they sold the metal which rose, and thus the relative value of the two was kept at its old point."

Now, all this may not attain to the dignity of a "discussion," in the estimation of "Hertzka's Translator"; but I certainly have, within the limits of my capacity, "presented the issue" to my readers, and have done so, I believe, with perfect fairness and good faith. It is very hard to be posted in the *Nation* as having dodged so vital a question when I have given to it ten pages, with the results of my best study and reflection.

My critic is much disaffected at the illustration derived from the driving-in-span of horses of different rates and styles of movement. I do not see why the illustration is not appropriate and effective. The mono-metallist asserts that gold and silver cannot remain in concurrent circulation, because each has its own sources of supply, subject to peculiar conditions, and its own demand, also subject to peculiar conditions. Hence it is unreasonable to suppose that their value in relation to each other can long remain at any one ratio.

I answer, there never were two horses of precisely the same rate and style of movement; yet horses are harnessed and driven by pairs. A pair of horses are brought up to my neighbor's door. Were they to be driven separately from here to Hartford they would probably not accomplish any one mile of the thirty-six in the same time. Even when driven together they do not, however perfectly matched or well handled, take one step exactly alike. Yet they leave my neighbor's door within a fraction of a second together in the morning, and bring up in front of the hotel at Hartford within a fraction of a second together at evening. All the way each horse has been exerting by far the greater part of his force in a direction to move the carriage forward in accord with his mate. Another part of his force, very small, indeed, in the case of well-trained horses, has been exerted divergently, in a way to check his mate and rack the carriage. Yet, if the harness, the pole, the carriage, and the driver's hand are strong enough, the horses will accomplish the journey together almost as well as if God had made them mates instead of man. Now this, as I understand it, is "controlling natural forces for definite results"; and if one man in his sphere can do this, why may not the collective might of the nation do this in its sphere?

But, says my critic, "Whatever restraint the driver exerts over the horses is won at the expense of the carriage, the harness, and the driver's arm." Granted; and I thank him for so happily completing the illustration. Each horse of the pair moves with somewhat less freedom, and hence with less force, in span than singly; just as he moves in single harness with less freedom and force than when galloping over the fields without bit or rein. Yet his being harnessed is the very condition of his accomplishing any useful purpose. So the harnessing of two horses together is at the expense of a certain loss of efficiency in each, as well as of rack and strain to carriage and harness; yet men find it for their interest to drive horses together, in spite of this initial and continuing expense.

I do not think it necessary to apply the illustration, point by point, to the case of bi-metallism, the yoking together in the coinage of two metals which have, naturally, each its distinct economic course. The

* This repeal is made necessary because, by an unfortunate wording, the act is made to follow the course of national legislation, in the interim, upon the subject of tender.

success of the undertaking will depend on the strength of the impulses to divergence, compared with the restraining power of the legal-tender principle. The latter will be more effective the larger the body of indebtedness from time to time maturing.

I cannot accept the distinction, in principle, which "Hertzka's Translator" draws between the views of M. Cernuschi and those of M. Wolowski. The difference between these two authors is wholly as to the degree of efficacy which they severally attribute to the legal-tender principle. M. Wolowski asserts for law a power to restrain the tendency to divergence between the values of gold and silver, to such an extent that powerful causes operating through long periods to produce divergence may be brought within very narrow limits in their actual effects. The wider the adoption of a legal rating, the closer the approach to absolute conformity. "Add," he says, "to the natural *solidarité* which unites the two metals called to work together in the same office, the legal *solidarité* which would result from the adoption, in common by all the civilized states, of the same ratio between the two kinds of money, and the slight oscillation to which the relative value of gold and silver has been subject these sixty-four years* will become still more rare and more restricted."

M. Cernuschi, with less caution and less judgment, declares that any legal rating, no matter how wide of the market rating, will suffice to hold the two metals in concurrent circulation. But he appeals to the same principle to accomplish this as does M. Wolowski. The only difference between the two is in their estimate of the forces which tend to produce divergence and the forces which tend to secure conformity.

Respectfully yours,

Francis A. Walker.

New Haven, February 8, 1878.

SILVER MORALITY.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Your remark that there is a thread of knavery in the silver movement in all its phases I have demonstrated to be true over and over again. This is my method: In arguing with the "silver-man," my first question is: "Are you in favor of putting into the silver dollar as much silver bullion as a gold dollar will buy?" In more than ninety-nine cases out of a hundred the answer is "No." The ostensible reason why men in the West favor the remonetization of silver is that remonetization will make a return to specie payments easier, "because," say they, "it will broaden and make firmer the basis on which the Government will stand when it shall begin to call in its legal-tender." The real reason why men in the West favor remonetization is that it will give somebody an opportunity to cheat somebody, and we fondly and foolishly imagine that we in the West are the somebody who is going to do the cheating, and that you in the East are to be our victims. Right here is the trouble. If the silver movement were merely a delusion and nothing more, it would pass away under the rays of sound argument as the mists of the morning before the rising sun. The trouble is deeper. As matters now stand, you may prove to a "silver-man" by argument as relentless as a demonstration of Euclid that the silver movement is immoral and at war with the highest well-being of the nation, and he is a "silver-man" still. The silver movement has strength because there is a low morality among the people both in private matters and public matters.

During the period of inflation, men made, or thought they made, fortunes when scaling their expenses by and basing their calculations upon the greenback as a standard. When times began to change, they still continued to spend and calculate upon the old inflation basis. The result has been mountains of broken promises and myriads of defaulters. Defaulting, cheating, and the like, because of their frequency, have ceased to be reprehensible. The man who in his larger transactions habitually breaks his promises and cheats his creditors who are at a distance, retains his place in society; he is a good neighbor and a real sociable fellow. He comes to be looked upon as not a bad sort of man, though he is a "little sharp." When this is the condition of society at large in its private dealings—and certainly this is the condition of society in the West—it would be surprising if such a society were to attain to high political morality, or be in favor of honest money. Mr. Editor, how shall this condition of things be remedied?

An Old Subscriber.

Fort Dodge, Iowa, January 21, 1878.

* Written in 1868, before the demonetization of silver by Germany and the United States.

Notes.

D. APPLETON & CO. have in press a 'History of Opinions on the Scriptural Doctrine of Retribution,' by Dr. Edward Beecher.——Sheldon & Co. will shortly publish a religious novel, 'Ernest Quest, or the Search for Truth,' by Mrs. S. R. Ford.——From the publishers of *Scribner's Monthly* we have received a framed impression of the head of Lincoln engraved for the February number of the magazine. The artistic merit of this portrait is considerable; and while the last photograph of Mr. Lincoln need not therefore be the best, it was, to judge from this sympathetic copy, a more than ordinary success.——Harper & Bros. send us bound volumes of their *Monthly* (vols. 54, 55), *Weekly* (vol. 21), and *Bazar* (vol. 10), all for the year just elapsed. The permanent value of the *Monthly* is incontestable, and we cannot say that the *Bazar* is not worth the space it occupies on the shelf, in spite of the temporary duration of fashions. The *Weekly* holds a place between the two, but still asserts its utility in the household, if only as a never-failing source of amusement for the younger members. We have been struck again with its peculiar effectiveness in fixing in mind the political character of the period which it covers. This twenty-first volume, for instance, begins amid the echoes of the Presidential struggle, and then pictures successively the Electoral Commission, the inauguration of President Hayes, his untried Cabinet, his "policy" (before which Mr. Nast gracefully succumbs), his order to office-holders, the opening of the war in the East, the short and sharp conflict with the Nez-Percés, MacMahon's fruitless *coup*, the silver mania, the death of Morton. Such was 1877.——During the past week Houghton, Osgood & Co.'s Riverside edition of the British poets was enlarged by five volumes, embracing the ten which formerly contained Scott's complete poetical works. The plates seem to us to show much fewer signs of wear than some of the previous volumes of this excellent series.——The annual report of the State Geologist of New Jersey for the past year shows how wisely that small State is governed, and what practical work the Survey is doing for the development of her great and in some respects unsurpassed natural resources. This brief pamphlet has a general interest from its chapter on the glacial drift in New Jersey. The terminal moraine of the great Northern ice-cap is minutely traced from its southernmost point at Perth Amboy (40° 30') across the State on the one hand and across Staten Island and Long Island on the other. A shaded map shows its course very distinctly. The Survey has in preparation a topographical map of the country between First Mountain and the Hudson River, on the scale of three inches to a mile.——Macmillan & Co. will shortly publish a 'Life of George Combe,' one of the most philanthropic and widely-read authors in the English language, by Charles Gibbon. It will contain a fragment of an autobiography.——Prof. Ten Brink's 'History of Early English Literature' is, according to the *Academy*, about to be translated into English by H. M. Kennedy, at present in Leipsic.——Devotees of the ceramic art will learn with regret of the death of Mrs. Fanny Bury-Palliser, author of the 'China-Collector's Pocket Companion,' of a 'History of Lace,' and of other useful and agreeable works. She was a sister and a colaborer of Joseph Marryat, the well-known authority on china and porcelain, and of Captain Marryat the novelist.

—We recently called attention to a translation of Roscher's 'Political Economy,' by Mr. J. J. Lalor, to be published by Callaghan & Co., of Chicago. Mr. Lalor has just received a letter from Roscher, in which occurs the following passage, stating his views upon free trade; it will be read with interest as defining the position upon this subject of the so-called "Historical School" of Political Economy, of which Roscher is regarded as the leader: "As in other departments," he says, "so in this, I regard freedom as the rule, from which any one who asks for an exception has the burden of proof against him. Therefore, in cases of doubt freedom should always be taken for granted. But in practice there are exceptions—very few at advanced and at the same time flourishing styles of culture, but in yet undeveloped or decaying nations more numerous in proportion as they are further removed from the highest stage of development." It is proper to add that Roscher's views on this subject are not contained in the original work, but will be given in the forthcoming third volume, of which he is to furnish two chapters (on International Trade and Paper Money) as appendices to Mr. Lalor's translation.

—Cassino, of Salem, who is in the way of becoming a publisher as well as an agent for naturalists, has promptly brought out the second part of

Professor Eaton's 'Ferns of North America,' the character of which is well sustained. On the first plate the rare and ambiguous *Asplenium ebenoides* figures—rather too stiffly—by the side of the common ebony spleenwort, *A. ebeneum*. As to its conjectured hybrid origin, we doubt if it has a particle of the blood of the latter, or of the walking fern, in its free veins. The three little moonworts are well rendered, and the woolly-lip fern is best of all. Mr. J. Williamson sends us specimen-etchings (of the rare bristle fern) which are to illustrate a popular hand-book of the Ferns of Kentucky, to be published in May by J. P. Morton & Co., of Louisville. The figures are not bad.

—The *American Almanac* for 1878, edited by Mr. Ainsworth R. Spofford, the efficient Librarian of the National Library, and published by the American News Co., deserves more than a passing mention. Mr. Spofford's resources for the compilation of such a work are almost unapproachable, and in the main we can praise the judgment with which he has selected his material. The book opens with a very readable account of the history of almanacs, which is presently succeeded by an elaborate description of the national capital that would serve very well as a tourists' guide. Of the rest of the contents we shall only be able to enumerate the more novel or important features. The Constitution of course is given, and a list of the members of the 45th Congress, with the committees; also, tables of the several Presidential elections, by electoral votes and by popular vote in each State; a brief history of national political conventions, and an historical sketch of the electoral system of choosing the President, from which last it appears that the Convention disapproved almost unanimously of an election by direct vote of the people, but voted three times (once unanimously) to give the election to the two houses of Congress; once to a body of electors chosen by the State legislatures; and finally to electors chosen as these legislatures might order. The executive officers of the United States; the personnel and fees of our consular service; and foreign legations in this country, are usefully named. Commercial and financial statistics are abundantly provided. Exports and imports, internal revenue receipts for 1833-77, railroad statistics, a chapter on "Strikes, Past and Present," tables showing the price of staple commodities for the period 1825-77; commercial crises in England during the present century; the English tariff (shade of Protection even as mitigated by Fernando Wood!) printed on a single page, and not filling that with its twenty-two articles; municipal indebtedness and taxation, 1866, 1876, showing an "increase of debt, about 200 per cent. average, of annual taxation about 83 per cent., of valuation about 75 per cent., of population about 33 per cent."; the Bank of England and its discount rate from 1694 to 1877; the Bank of France and how the milliards were paid; the British debt; the price of Government loans in London, December 1, 1877; the U. S. currency-value of gold, and gold-value of currency, 1862-78—such are the chief matters in the above-mentioned departments. Among "burning questions" of the day postal savings-banks, the income-tax, and metallic currency occupy a large space. In giving a history of the income-tax Mr. Spofford betrays the only bias of which we can confidently accuse him. He unquestionably thinks the tax ought to be restored, and adduces this communistic argument: "It is evident that only about a million of the population [the 250,000 taxpayers and their families] were interested in having the tax repealed, while the remaining 39,000,000 out of 40,000,000 of people in the United States were interested in having it maintained." Mr. Spofford does not explain what he means by "interested," nor does he cite a single consideration bearing on the reasonableness of the opposition to the tax. Not so when he narrates the history of demonetization, when he gives the arguments *con.* with a voluminousness that must surprise those bi-metallists whose stock in trade is "surreptitious" and "Shylock." He also gives the arguments *pro*, and we cannot positively say what his own convictions are—as ought to be the case. In connection with this exposition, Mr. Spofford furnishes important statistics of the coinage of the U. S. mint, tables of the gold and silver product, of silver fluctuation, and national bank circulation; and other facts relating to the currency, including a history of the Latin monetary union.

—The first annual report of the Virginia Commissioner of Agriculture marks an era in the history of that State. The department over which he presides was created only last year, and the duties imposed upon him bear the usual relation to the compensation which the rural mind everywhere thinks sufficient for scientific services. The Commissioner is allowed a salary of $1,500, and is expected to edit a hand-book of the geological formation of the several counties; to superintend the analysis of fertilizers, and to try as a judge manufacturers whose compounds fall below their pretensions; to look after diseases of the crops and report remedies; to "have in charge the mining and manufacturing interests" and establish a cabinet of minerals duly "labelled and arranged" for "public inspection"; to encourage horticulture and fruit culture; to report on the dairy and on the culture of wool, and "give his attention" to irrigation and the subject of fencing; to distribute seeds, etc. He is allowed a clerk at six hundred dollars, one thousand dollars for the purchase of chemical apparatus, and the department is credited besides with $1,900 (in all $5,000 per annum) for contingent expenses, including the pay of a chemist and geologist! Dr. Pollard, whose bonds are fixed at $10,000, does not make a wry face over this adaptation of means to ends, but goes bravely to work, doing the best he can. On page 11 he remarks that he is "reliably informed that a proper geological survey of each county in the State would involve an expenditure of from thirty to forty thousand dollars," and that as Dr. Ruffner, the accomplished Superintendent of Public Instruction, has made *en amateur* a great many field notes and geological sections, and offers his material freely to the department, it would be well if he could be made an assistant without prejudice to his regular duties, and with the mere payment of his expenses. The report is a summary of the vast half-developed resources of one of the most favored States in the Union, and imperfect as it confessedly is it is one of the best hand-books for emigrants we have ever seen. But one thing is lacking, and that is a statement that Virginia intends to pay every farthing of her honest debts. Perhaps that can be prefixed to the next report.

—The chapter on labor in Virginia is perhaps the most significant in the report. Dr. Pollard says it has become too much the custom to denounce the negro as thriftless and lazy, whereas the true Southern policy is "to elevate and encourage this race in every proper manner, not to debase and abuse it." He adds from his own experience as a farmer under both régimes, of slavery and freedom, "that the negro, *if promptly paid and fairly dealt by*, is as *good a laborer as he ever was*"; and that, while some will not work, "the majority of them, and enough to till the lands," will; and he concludes with this interesting comparison:

"An argument used against negro labor is that white hands accomplish most work. This is more than doubtful. In the report of the Massachusetts Board of Agriculture, Charles L. Flint, Secretary (we forget the volume), will be found an account of the cost per acre of cultivating corn and other crops in that State, with a statement of the number of days it took to pull the fodder and cut the tops of an acre of ground, how long to plough the crop, and how long to hoe it. At the time of reading the report we made a calculation, in connection with another farmer, of how long it would take to accomplish the work here in Virginia, and came to the conclusion that our negro hands would do more work per day than the white laborers of Massachusetts."

—New York has sustained a serious, and in some ways irreparable, loss, in the death, on Saturday evening, of Mr. Theodore Roosevelt, whom the President recently nominated for the collectorship of this port. He was during the war, though then a young man—he has died at forty-six—one of the most indefatigable supporters of the Government in every way but service in the field, and, above all, a constant promoter of all schemes for the alleviation of the suffering and distress arising out of the war. He devoted himself during the greater part of it to the collection on behalf of the soldiers, and under their orders, of the sums allotted by them from their pay for their families, and saw that it reached them without loss or expense. Ever since 1865 he has been a leading aid of all the best charities in the city. The Children's Aid Society had no more liberal friend and faithful worker, and it is safe to say that there is hardly an organization for the promotion of any great public interest, philanthropic, or artistic, or scientific, for which he has not labored diligently and energetically, paying both with his purse and person without stint. His success in raising money for public purposes was very remarkable—we remember hearing one gentleman say, half jocosely, that Mr. Roosevelt's absence on a short European trip would save him $1,000—and of course it would not have been possible if he had not himself been ready to head every list handsomely. Inherited fortune, as well as his own success, enabled him to retire early from active business, and indeed gave him largely the control of his time when in business, and he brought into his service of the public a soundness of judgment and a freedom from illusions which to many enterprises were of inestimable value, but which never cooled in the least his own hope or courage. In fact, it is a rare thing for any modern city to have such a citizen, and rarer still for one with so much devotion to the public service to make so few mistakes. He was not himself a man of high culture, but nobody was more keenly alive to its value or readier to re-

spond to its demands, and we believe the mere fact that New York could even in these later evil years produce him, and hold his love and devotion, has been to hundreds of those who knew him and watched his career a reason for not despairing of the future of the city. He was, too, physically so vigorous and manly a man that there was every reason for believing as well as for wishing that he would reach old age; and his untimely end, in the midst of everything that could make life attractive, is perhaps as striking a reminder as his friends could receive what shadows we are and what shadows we pursue.

—If the historical literature of 1877 is distinguished in any department it is perhaps in that of the biography of historical characters, of which there appears to be an unusual number. Two works are devoted to Simon de Montfort—that of Prothero and the translation of Pauli. Of more modern characters there are Ewald's 'Life of Sir Robert Walpole'; Ranke's 'Memoirs of Prince Hardenberg'; Lodge's 'Life of George Cabot'; Mazade's 'Cavour'; Trollope's 'Pius IX.'; and Pierce's 'Life of Charles Sumner.' Sime's 'Life of Lessing' may also be mentioned; and Villari's 'Machiavelli e i suoi tempi' is a work of great importance—the first volume, the only one published, reaching the year 1512. In the same field as the 'Life of Cabot' is Prof. Adams's 'New England Federalism'; and the period of another of these biographies, that of Walpole, finds excellent illustration in Dr. Doran's 'London in the Jacobite Times.' Knight's (Catholic) 'Life of Columbus' is also praised as a careful and scholarly work.

—The study of primeval history has also received important contributions in McLennan's 'Studies in Ancient History' (containing his valuable papers on primitive forms of marriage) and Morgan's 'Ancient Society,' a work which stands in the first rank in this field. Squier's important work on 'Peru' may also be mentioned in connection with these. On early history we have the first volume of Brugsch's 'Aegypten unter den Pharaonen.' There is not much else of the highest value in ancient history; but Mason's 'Persecutions of Diocletian' (rehabilitating that monarch) is of great merit, and Hirschfeld's 'Untersuchungen auf dem Gebiet der römischen Verwaltungsgeschichte,' though rather in the line of antiquities than of history, is nevertheless indispensable in the history of the empire. A second volume of Kremer's valuable 'Culturgeschichte des Orients' has appeared. We will note also the third volume of the translation of Ihne's 'History of Rome,' embracing from the Second Macedonian War to the capture of Numantia (B. C. 133).

—The most important work in mediæval history is Perrens's 'Histoire de Florence,' of which the three volumes published reach the year 1300. Not history, but materials for history, is Janauscheck's 'Origines Cistercienses' (vol. i.), containing a copious collection of documents illustrating the history of this most interesting of the monastic orders. A previously unknown chronicle of Adam of Usk (1377–1404) has also been brought to light and published; it is very important for the reign of Richard II. The second volume of Skene's 'Celtic Scotland' is devoted to the Church and Culture. Mr. Froude's papers on Becket in the *Nineteenth Century* deserve also to be mentioned. For students of genealogy and chronology there are Grote's 'Stammtafeln' (408 in number), to which is appended a 'Calendarium medii ævi.' There are also two valuable republications: Finlay's 'History of Greece' since the Roman domination, in seven volumes, and the first volume of Green's 'History of the English People,' enlarged and provided with notes, etc. Wattenbach's 'Geschichte des römischen Papstthums' is also mainly confined to the Middle Ages. Hertzberg's 'Geschichte Griechenlands,' covering nearly the same ground as Finlay's, is brought down (in vol. iii.) from 1470 to 1321.

—Two companion works, somewhat opposed in their point of view, Freeman's 'Ottomans in Europe' and Creasy's 'Ottoman Turks' (a republication), belong, like two or three of those just mentioned, to both mediæval and modern history. Another republication is Dyer's 'Modern Europe,' in five volumes, brought down to the war of 1870. Of the first rank in modern history is Gardiner's 'Personal Government of Charles I.,' extending from 1628 to 1637. The second and third volumes of Kitchin's 'History of France' complete the work; it is especially good in political history. Vulliemin's 'Histoire de la Confédération suisse,' by a veteran Swiss historian, is perhaps the best brief history of that country, and would be a very good book to translate into English. For the early part of the sixteenth century we have Philippson's 'Heinrich IV. und Philip III.,' and the second volume of Gindely's 'Thirty Years' War'—especially valuable as being from a Bohemian pen. A new work of the Heeren and Ukert (and Giesebrecht) series is Hillebrand's 'Modern France,' of which the first volume was noticed by us last week. The tenth volume of Taxile Delord's 'Second Empire' completes the work (the author has died within the year). Parkman's 'Count Frontenac' is the most important work in the field of American history. Lastly, we will mention the first volume of Friedrich's 'Geschichte des vaticanischen Concils,' extending to the year 1869; and, as a companion, Cardinal Manning's 'True Story of the Vatican Council.'

SCHLIEMANN'S MYCENÆ.—II.*

WHEN we say that the treasures found at Mycenæ may safely be assigned to the heroic age, we are still far from assigning a definite date either to them or to the age itself. "The heroic age" means the indefinite period before the Dorian invasion, when the forms of government and the civilization described in Homer prevailed in Peloponnesus. At present we have no means of settling the date even of the Dorian invasion, which, indeed, was probably a long and difficult struggle rather than a triumphal march. The line between the Homeric civilization and the Dorian is nevertheless a very marked one, far more definite, indeed, than any positive date could be in so wide a field. We have now an unexpected and welcome view of the art of a most interesting age, one whose legends have played a greater part in the world's education than those of any other, but which, as an historic period, was supposed to be for ever buried in oblivion. It is too soon to begin to be dogmatic about the lessons which this discovery teaches in the history of art. It is enough for the present that Homer is now amply justified in his accounts of works of art with which the Achæans were familiar, and that we are now sure that Agamemnon could have found in his treasure-chamber at Mycenæ all the arms and ornaments with which he is said to have arrayed himself for battle. Even if nothing has been found equal in design and beauty to the shield of Achilles described in Homer, still we have enough to show that the poet was not drawing a purely ideal picture entirely beyond his own experience. The intercourse of the heroic Achæans with foreign lands, which the traditions (our only authority) constantly indicate, renders it more than probable that no small part of the best works of art found in Mycenæ may have been either directly imported from abroad or made at home by foreign workmen. The Phœnician traders doubtless brought to Greece whatever articles were likely to be bought by the Achæan princes, to whom they thus opened the rich markets of Assyria and Egypt. The first chapter in Herodotus tells of Phœnician merchants landing in Argos with Assyrian and Egyptian wares, and the well-known kidnapping and slave-trading propensities of the Phœnician race (witness Io and the two women kidnapped from Egyptian Thebes, Herod. ii. 54) may have made it as easy for the Achæans to import artisans as works of art. Nestor had in his employ a man, called both a goldsmith and a coppersmith, named Laerkes (Od. iii. 425), but we have no hint whether he was a Greek or a foreigner. That some articles of ornament were made in Mycenæ itself appears from the stone moulds there found, which were evidently made for casting gold and silver (pp. 107–109). As most of the ornamental goldwork is *repoussé*, it was easy for inferior workmen to produce good work by the use of artistic forms. The whole question of the relation of the art of Mycenæ to foreign art will gain much light from the study of the new treasures which General di Cesnola has brought home from Cyprus. This island, in which Greeks, Phœnicians, Assyrians, and Egyptians were in close intercourse at a very early period, now suddenly assumes a new importance in the history of art and in ethnology. We may pride ourselves as Americans that we now have in our country the most ample materials for studying this new subject; and we may also notice with satisfaction that Dr. Schliemann appends to his name on the title-page of 'Mycenæ' the title, "Citizen of the United States of America."

Every one will notice the rudeness and childish simplicity of the bas-reliefs on the sculptured tombstones compared with the more artistic work in gold and silver. Compared even with the sculpture of the Lions' Gate, the figures on the tombstones surprise us by their primitiveness. On the other hand, Dr. Schliemann (p. 85) calls special attention to the "marvellous accuracy and symmetry" which he finds in all the spiral ornamentation of these tombstones, which shows that they are not careless or unstudied attempts of beginners. Sculptures are more likely to be the work of native than of foreign artists, and perhaps these may

* 'Mycenæ: A Narrative of Excavations and Discoveries at Mycenæ and Tiryns. By Dr. Henry Schliemann, Citizen of the United States of America; Author of 'Troy and its Remains,' 'Ithaque, le Peloponnèse et Troie,' and 'La Chine et le Japon.' The Preface by the Right Hon. W. E. Gladstone. M. P.' Maps, plans, and other illustrations, representing more than 700 types of the objects found in the Royal Sepulchres of Mycenæ and elsewhere in the Excavations. New York: Scribner, Armstrong & Co. 1878.

prove to be the most genuine Achæan productions that have been found.

We have already described the manner of burial practised at Mycenæ, especially the partial cremation, and contrasted it with the Homeric accounts of burning the dead (see the *Nation*, No. 603). It is singular that the Greek poets after Homer sometimes call a tomb πυρά, or *funeral-pile* (*e.g.*, Soph. El. 901). This is now explained by the Achæan custom of burning the dead, so far as this was done at all, within the tomb itself, and leaving the remains undisturbed after the extinction of the fire.

We now recur to the interesting question which we postponed, whether there is good reason to believe that Schliemann has discovered the actual bodies of Agamemnon and his fellow-victims. What has been said will, we trust, do something to show how far this question admits of an answer. First, it is plain that these magnificent entombments must be placed in the heroic age, in which the names of Agamemnon and his family are conspicuous above all others. Secondly, none but royal personages of the highest dignity and of the greatest wealth could have been buried in such state. We are, therefore, compelled to believe that these remains and these treasures were buried during the most flourishing period of the Achæan monarchy of Mycenæ—that is, at about the time which tradition assigns to the Trojan wars. When we ask, further, whether this does not make it highly probable that these are the remains of Agamemnon and his friends, we have to reply that there is no evidence that can bear the test of scientific scrutiny leading us to so definite a conclusion as this. We are here dealing with a class of facts entirely different from those which establish the two conclusions stated above. In the first place, we cannot feel justified in maintaining the historic character of even the Homeric story of the murder of Agamemnon and Cassandra. We know how that story grew from the Homeric foundation, under the hands of lyric and dramatic poets, into the elaborate tale of horrors which we find in the 'Oresteia' of Æschylus; and who can tell how much it grew during the generations of epic bards which preceded the Homeric age? Again, we are by no means justified in believing that the only kings of the Pelopid race who reigned at Mycenæ were the two sons and the grandson of the founder, especially when that founder was the grandson of Zeus. The tendency of legend to concentrate upon a few famous names the history of many generations of unknown kings who died and left no name, is well known; and we may reasonably suppose that the meagre royal annals of Mycenæ are no exception to the rule. Indeed, the fifteen adults whose remains were found in the five tombs of the Agora, not to mention the three problematical children, far more than exhaust the whole list of important royal personages with which the legends of Mycenæ supply us, especially when we exclude Clytemnestra and Ægisthus. While, therefore, it is fair to conclude that these fifteen or more persons were all of the royal race and of the golden age of the monarchy, they are as likely to have been persons unknown to fame as the particular legendary personages whose names were saved from oblivion by the poets.

But it will be said that we have the express testimony of Pausanias that in the second century A.D. he was shown at least the sites of certain tombs at Mycenæ which were believed to be those of these very heroes. What now is the account of Pausanias? He says (ii. 16) that there is a tomb of Atreus, and tombs of Agamemnon and his companions. The one of Cassandra (he says) is called in question by the Lacedæmonians of Amyclæ; but there is a distinct one of Agamemnon, one of his charioteer Eurymedon, and a "single tomb" for Cassandra's twin infants, who were slain with their parents by Ægisthus. It is doubtful whether he adds that there is one of Electra, the text being very uncertain. This shows a belief among the local guides, probably from Argos, in five, or at most six, tombs. But this meagre tradition had no conception of the five tombs in which fifteen royal princes and such immense treasures are now found buried. The fact that Pausanias speaks of "the same tomb" as containing the two infants shows that he understood the others to hold single persons. Now Atreus, Agamemnon, and possibly Electra, are the only persons in his list who could possibly have been buried in such royal state. As to the twin infants, their very mention shows how utterly the local traditions had abandoned the whole story of Cassandra as it is told by both Homer and Æschylus. It is plain, therefore, that Pausanias heard at Mycenæ very much such a story as we should expect, about certain tombs which no one had seen for centuries, buried in the ruins of a city which had already been destroyed six hundred years, and containing the bodies of men who were supposed to have lived at least twelve hundred years before his time. Tombs, as well as other relics of heroes and demigods, were as common in Greece as those of saints are in modern Europe. Pausanias himself saw at Argos the tomb of Linos, son of Apollo; the finding the colossal body of Orestes filling a coffin ten feet long, and its removal to Sparta, are well known; the Theseum, now standing in Athens, is a monument erected over a huge skeleton, believed to be that of Theseus, which was found in Scyros with a spear and sword by its side, and brought to Athens in 468 B.C. by Cimon, son of Miltiades. Among the sacred relics seen at Delphi by Pausanias was the stone which Kronos had swallowed in the belief that it was the infant Zeus; and among the treasures stolen from the temple by the Phocians in the time of Demosthenes were the necklaces of Helen and of Eriphyle, the latter having been one of the wedding presents of Harmonia, wife of Cadmus and daughter of Ares and Aphrodite. Such was the value of Greek tradition attached to tombs and relics. In the case of the tombs of Mycenæ, strange to say, the truth has turned out far more wonderful than the fiction. But the fiction is none the more authentic for having erred for once in this direction.

What seems to be the strongest proof of the "Agamemnonian hypothesis" (as Mr. Gladstone terms it) is the supposed evidence that at least some of the persons buried in these tombs were murdered. When the evidence is sifted, the proof of murder will be found to rest chiefly on the statement that one, at least (perhaps all three), of the bodies in the First Tomb was buried "in strange and indecent fashion," a man more than six feet tall being squeezed into a space only five feet and a half long. The insult to the illustrious dead seems to be admitted on all hands. But let us examine this flagrant outrage. The tomb was hewn from the solid rock, 21 ft. 6 in. long, and 11 ft. 6 in. broad. This ample space was lined on all sides by a stone wall 3 ft. high and 2 ft. broad, and over this was built "a *slanting* wall of schist plates joined with clay," 6½ ft. high, projecting at the bottom a foot more than the stone wall, thus narrowing the breadth of the tomb by three feet on each side, and reducing the breadth of 11½ ft. to 5½ ft. (p. 294). Now, even if we suppose the mummy which was found squeezed into this space to have once been Agamemnon, and admit that he was murdered, are we to believe that Clytemnestra would have had these two stone walls, about 66 feet long, built around a tomb merely for the purpose of adding a last insult to her royal husband by squeezing his head between his shoulders? Could not all the horrors of that "human slaughter-house" devise some simpler means to so small an end? If, on the other hand, the murdered king was buried in a tomb in which these walls were already built, all proof of personal insult is gone. We would suggest that a simple solution of the mystery may be found if we suppose that this wall was built, not to insult the dead, but because the bodies were to be buried in a half-sitting posture, with their backs or their heads and shoulders resting against the slanting wall. We know very little about the position in which the other bodies in these tombs were buried, as they have all crumbled to dust except a few scattered bones; and what we do know does not agree with what we find in Homer about the burials of the heroic age. In the Third Tomb were found three bodies (of women, as Schliemann thinks, p. 164) "literally laden with jewels," one of which had upon its head the splendid gold crown, the gem of the collection (p. 185), and another wore a "magnificent golden diadem" (p. 186). Is it not at least within the bounds of probability that bodies thus crowned for burial would be placed in a partly erect posture? As this tomb had its walls artificially narrowed like the other, we are bound to assume the same insulting motives here also; and as all six of the tombs are thus narrowed (two, however, having perpendicular instead of slanting walls), we should carefully consider at the outset how far this outrage theory will lead us. It is now a remarkable coincidence that thirteen of the fifteen bodies in these tombs were buried with their *feet to the west;* and it may have been a reason for elevating the head in burial that thus the hero was made to turn his face towards the West, that region of romance and hope, where were the "Happy Isles," which Hesiod makes the home appointed after death for the "divine race of heroes who are called demigods," the very race whose tombs have now been opened. "These live, with minds free from cares, in the Islands of the Blest by the deep-eddying Ocean; happy heroes! for whom the fruitful earth thrice in the year bears in rich abundance its delicious fruits" (Hesiod, 'Works and Days,' 158–172). If this theory is tenable, it explains the "outraged" condition of the single body which is preserved, without any assumption of violence except that which the downward pressure of from twenty to thirty feet of earth and stones would naturally inflict in three thousand years. Such a pressure would squeeze the head of a body inclined as we have supposed between the shoulders precisely as this head now appears, and would also cause the mask which covered its face to be jammed down over the eyes like the one now found (p. 333).

Indeed, what has seemed strangest in the present condition of this mask is this appearance of having been subjected to an angular rather than a perpendicular pressure ; as Schliemann says (p. 311), "The lower part of the forehead has been so much pressed *upon the eyes and nose* that the face is disfigured." At the same time the nose and mouth and one of the eyes are perfectly visible, which could hardly be the case if the pressure upon the face had been perpendicular. It must be remembered that the body itself was reduced by the tremendous pressure "to a thickness of 1 in. to 1½ in." (p. 296). If, now, it had been lying flat on the floor of the tomb, could the mask exhibit its present appearance ?

Until further evidence is found, we are inclined to the belief that the tombs of Mycenæ contained the bodies of royal persons whose names are unknown to us; that, although possibly some of them may be among those who are mentioned in the heroic legends, there is as yet absolutely no proof of this ; that there is no evidence that any of these persons were murdered, or that any of them were buried in an insulting or ignominious manner ; that these royal tombs were closed and covered with earth at least before the Dorian invasion ; that the knowledge of the treasures buried in them, originally confined to a few trusty persons, gradually died out, and was extinct long before the Argive conquest ; that this ignorance of the true character of these tombs saved them from pillage (except, perhaps, on a single occasion) while Mycenæ was deserted ; and that Pausanias heard only the vague tradition then current in Argos, that *there were tombs* in Mycenæ attributed to Atreus and to Agamemnon and his fellow-victims. Finally, we believe that Dr. Schliemann has made the most important contribution of the present century to Greek archæology.

RECENT POETRY.

THOSE who are eager to see the muse of America produce epics lofty as her snow-clad mountains, vast as her rolling rivers, and equalling in several other ways several of her other natural features, may point with some pride, at last, to the Michigan poem entitled "Teuchsa Grondie" (Detroit : E. B. Smith & Co.) Physically measured, it fills an octavo volume of nearly five hundred pages ; it is divided into twenty-eight cantos, each dedicated to a different friend or group of friends, the last canto being inscribed to the whole citizen soldiery of the United States. It is written by Levi Bishop, Esq., of the Detroit bar ; and aims to tell the complete legendary history of that city. If epic art consists chiefly, as some critics of Milton have maintained, in the unstinted use of high-sounding proper names, then neither Milton's list of fallen angels nor Homer's catalogue of ships can be held equal to "Teuchsa Grondie." How can mere Greek or Hebrew appellatives compete with these Indian names that roll so freely from Mr. Bishop's pen ?—

> "The chiefs and sachems understand
> And soon obey the high command.
> The fiery warrior Ish-ko-dah
> Is coming with black Kah-gah-gee ;
> The spider chieftain—Sub-be-kah,
> With lordly bison—Pez-he-kee.
> Sage Ko-ko-ko-ho rolls his eyes,
> And comes with quiet Che-to-waik ;
> Loud Shan-go-dah the foe defies
> And comes with serpent Ken-na-beck,
> And Wa-be-no-ka proudly meets
> With seignior chiefs of mighty name ;
> These stately Mus-ko-do-sa greets
> With others now unknown to fame" (p. 275).

We should say, however, that if Mr. Bishop could get even this moderate number fairly established on fame's rolls, he would accomplish something. It is a tale of war that the poet tells, varied by pestilence, famine, hunting, missions, and dreams. Teuchsa Grondie is an Indian village, whose supposed history from 1565 to 1665 is here laboriously given. The village life was gay, it seems, though it had to forego some of the delights of cities :

> "No horses graced that paradise,
> For servitude or proud review ;
> And, hence, no 'Running on the ice,'
> Or racing 'On the Avenue'" (p. 74).

Indeed, the environs of the woodland village could scarcely be called attractive, as thus painted, at nightfall :

> "The owl whoops out a doleful note,
> The frighted curs in terror whine,
> No more sweet Wa-won-ais-sa sings ;
> Unnatural wolf-howls wildly float,
> The evening star forgets to shine,
> The pappoose to its mother clings" (p. 31).

The crowning battle-piece of the book opens as follows :

> "What earthly comfort can compare
> To that which comes on gilded wings
> As round us gathers black despair,
> And hope anew upon us springs ?
> Ah, listen ! On the northern plain
> Loud bursts the war-whoop from afar ;
> Ah, welcome, Kan-ne-tow, again !
> Thrice welcome, brave Tai-go-ne-ga !
> The Hurons rush upon the field—
> The friends of ruined Matchedash ;
> And with them fearless Wyandot ;
> A hero every man appears ;
> Ho-dé-no-sau-nee, die or yield !
> Now comes the final thunder-crash ;
> Now tremble, haughty O-to-quot !
> Ah, Teuchsa Grondie, quell your fears" (p. 427).

It reads like a battle of philologists—Max Müller and Fitzedward Hall pelting each other with hard words—or like Bret Harte's scientific society upon the Stanislaus. What "chunk of old red sandstone" could be a missile so fearful as this discharge of Otoquots and Matchedashes ? Yet we seem to miss here the name, previously celebrated, of Ko-ko-ko-ho, an appellation so irresistibly suggestive of Béranger's "Co-co-coquérico." Perhaps it is the self-same warrior, or he may be a myth of all nations, and may originate in the domestic barn-yard. At any rate, by turning back a few pages, we find that the hero is already sunk beneath the flood of battle, and not likely to reappear :

> "Into the flood fierce Do-ka-tee
> Is thrown by Wa-be-no-ka brave ;
> The Iroquois, with demon glee,
> Drags Ko-ko-ko-ho to the wave" (p. 424).

But we must pass to other themes, only remarking incidentally that late researches prove the Indian race not to be dying out after all, so that Mr. Bishop's epic may yet prove only the precursor of a long line of similar octavos.

'Leedle Yawcob Strauss, and other Poems,' by Charles F. Adams (Boston : Lee & Shepard), is a volume differing from Mr. Bishop's in this, that it is intended to be funny, and loses through that evident design. It is the unconscious humor that is irresistible. This book contains many short poems, mostly in German dialect ; it is copiously illustrated, and has a portrait of the author, who thus visibly disclaims identity with an eminent statesman bearing a similar name. We should predict for this book great popularity in England, where every American book that exhibits a grain of fun is caught up eagerly for some railway library of "American Humor." Since these collections already cover the whole range from 'The Autocrat of the Breakfast Table' to Josh Billings, it would seem hard if there were no place for little Jacob Strauss.

'Album Leaves,' by George Houghton (Boston : Estes & Lauriat), has the rare merit of containing not a single poem that extends to more than a single verse. Both this and 'Verses by L. B. T.' are thin volumes of quiet rhymes, printed doubtless "by request of friends," and not also inspired, let us hope, by that hunger which Pope couples with such requests as a twin motive. 'Poems of the Old South, illustrated' (Boston: W. F. Gill), is not a book to fire the tardy zeal for the preservation of that relic ; for though it contains two or three good poetic names on its title-page, yet neither poetry nor illustrations can be said to rise much above mediocrity. But when we remember how few really good lyrics were called forth by the war of the Rebellion, why should we expect more from the pending contest for the Old South ?

There is a tendency in this country to the production of long and rather ambitious poems. Mr. S. P. Putnam's 'Prometheus' (Putnam) has really something of grandeur in its conception, but is crude and unequal in execution ; and one has to turn back, every now and then, to the preliminary "argument" for the key. We there find that "in the evolution of Life Jove represents the beginning of the power of Free Will, but Free Will seeking solely self-aggrandizement. Prometheus symbolizes Moral Insight ; Venus, Asia ; Apollo, Love, Reverence, Imagination without Moral Insight." The scope of the poem suggests Horne's 'Orion,' which had, however, a single fine line in it. That would be too strong an expression to apply to this book ; but it has some fine thoughts, and that is saying something.

'Angelo,' by Stuart Sterne (Hurd & Houghton), is an effort less ambitious than the poem just mentioned, and is more successful in proportion. It is founded on the loves of Michael Angelo and Vittoria Colonna, and shows much power in conception and execution. The tone is pure and noble, though the great sculptor sometimes laments his fate in too many words, and the heroine, on one occasion, tells a lie with too great facility. The versification is commonly smooth, though too often broken by halting lines, like these :

> "From off Marietta's pretty lips, like to" (p. 63).
> "The lustre of her golden hair, shading" (p. 32).
> "Others bending their swifter steps in haste" (p 6).

The action goes clearly and resolutely on to its climax, with few conceits or ornaments by the way ; and the most graceful special passages

grow directly out of the main narrative. Thus, it is the sudden interruption of Vittoria's approach that makes Michael Angelo's hand tremble, and gives us this glimpse at the artist's work :

> "He swiftly put the quivering chisel down,
> Lest one more stroke, too hastily made, should turn
> The delicate moulding of the Cupid's lips—
> That looked as from sweet flowers they just had sipped
> Fresh dew and honey, and curved gently upward
> As with the sunny smile of happy dreams—
> Into the downward lines of drooping sadness" (p. 79).

The newspapers say that "Stuart Sterne" is really Miss Gertrude Bloede. Be this as it may, this writer has certainly given evidence of real poetic power, but is likely to suffer, like all our younger poets, from winning praise too easily.

It is impossible not to feel respect for the dramatic poems of Mr. Edwin Leighton, jr., they are so honestly and faithfully worked out, and show withal some such genuine traits of dramatic power. In 'At the Court of King Edwin' (Philadelphia : Lippincott), as in 'The Sons of Godwin,' there is a strong and well-devised plot, and we are led along, step by step, with real interest. But the interest is mainly in the plot itself ; the speeches are sometimes dull, the wit is not brilliant, there are few original images or detached thoughts, and there is, indeed, little to help us by the way. All this suggests the doubt whether it is a safe thing for even a man of ability to begin with long poems, instead of first training hand and ear by shorter ones. The name of the book naturally recalls Sir Henry Taylor's 'Edwin the Fair.' The king is a different Edwin, and there is a difference of a few centuries in the period ; yet a comparison is possible. There is really a stronger grasp in the American poem, but in all other respects it is inferior—less readable, less varied, with fewer special passages to enjoy ; while the lyrics, which in 'Edwin the Fair' are fresh and graceful, are here tame and wooden. We should be inclined to prescribe to Mr. Leighton a studious cultivation of the lighter aspects of his art, even if this involves abstinence, for the present, from long dramatic poems.

We have from England a little volume whose thoughtfulness and grace might well merit a wider fame than the author has yet attained. It is 'A Sheaf of Verse,' by Henry G. Hewlett (London : King). Among the most attractive of these poems should be named a series of twelve sonnets on the twelve months, a poetic calendar, which, being based on the English climate, may be said to make the best of extremely poor materials. In dealing with June the author has greater advantages, and we quote that sonnet :

> "JUNE.
>
> "An English wife, whose passage o'er the line
> That severs maid from matron leaves its trace
> In wiser innocence and chastened grace ;
> With queenly eyes, love-loyal, frank, benign,
> That warm unheating, and unglittering shine ;
> A touch of cool, bright color on her face,
> A shape that curves half hide and half define—
> Figures our June, the summer's resting-place.
> Promise is perfected without excess ;
> The leaf fulfilled, the bud not overblown ;
> The beams of noontide in this kindly zone
> Bless and burn not ; half-tints of pink and pearl
> Shimmer from wild-rose cluster, woodbine-whorl ;
> The wavy woods are dim for leafiness" (p. 40).

Another book to which one can turn with hearty pleasure bears the rather quaint title 'Firm Ground : Thoughts on Life and Faith,' by George McKnight (Sterling, N. Y.) There is something strange and refreshing when we receive from a quiet country village, without the aid of any city publisher, a book so rich in thought as this. The author is understood to be a young physician. The mottoes to his hundred sonnets show him as a reader of the best authors, but his thoughts are absolutely his own. In his series of sonnets he has worked out many of the hardest problems of the age, and always with a sweetness and candor that win our love ; while his bold touches often carry us to the very heart of thought, though with a perpetual tendency to the larger and more hopeful view. And sometimes, though more rarely, there are really fine imaginative touches, as in the following sonnet, which will bear much study :

> "DEATH THE RENEWER.
>
> "'Twas in far ancient days it did befall :
> The forms of Nature, filling all the space
> Of their abode, had lost their youthful grace ;
> The years were sadly withering great and small.
> And when the gods met in their council-hall
> To choose out one among their mighty race,
> Who should renew the faded earth's wan face,
> None could perform the task among them all—
> So strictly do the laws of Fate restrain
> Each to his proper work—save one alone ;
> Death felt the arduous duty was his own.
> Therefore, the sacred synod did ordain,
> And for all time was passed the high decree,
> That Death thenceforth should the Renewer be" (p. 70).

It is easy to say of Mrs. Louise Chandler Moulton's poems (Boston : Roberts) that their prevailing tone is of monotonous and tender melancholy ; but there are few ballads of the war as genuine and touching as "A Woman's Waiting" ; and among the more personal poems there is a great range of excellence. Some seem merely literary and almost artificial, while in others it is impossible to mistake the real human emotion. The lover in the poem of "Looking Back," for instance, is so painted in four lines that he becomes a real person to us ; and the sudden stab of the last couplet deals his death-blow :

> "LOOKING BACK.
>
> "I may live long, but some old days
> Of dear, deep joy akin to pain—
> Some suns that set on woodland ways
> Will never rise for me again :
> By shining sea, and glad, green shore,
> That frolic waves run home to kiss,
> Some words I heard that nevermore
> Will thrill me with their mystic bliss.
>
> "O love ! still throbs your living heart—
> You have not crossed death's sullen tide.
> A deeper deep holds us apart ;
> We were more near if you had died—
> If you had died in those old days
> When light was on the shining sea,
> And all the fragrant woodland ways
> Were paths of hope for you and me.
>
> "Dead leaves are in those woodland ways—
> Cold are the lips that used to kiss :
> 'Twere idle to recall those days,
> Or sigh for all that vanished bliss !
> Do you still wear your old-time grace,
> And charm new loves with ancient wiles ?
> Could I but watch your faithless face,
> I'd know the meaning of your smiles" (p. 73).

Mr. Stedman's new volume, 'Hawthorne, and other Poems' (Osgood), shows that careful literary execution which should always win the respect of contemporaries, even while the poet's place in the hierarchy of genius is yet undetermined. The ode on Hawthorne, especially, is a brave flight of song, and has many touches of eloquence and of careful discrimination. It labors under that slight flavor of remoteness and out-of-placeness which seems now almost inseparable from the form of the ode. Hard as it may be to say why this particular mode of literary structure should grow obsolete, there is always a vague suspicion of the fact. This mars the reader's satisfaction, as when reading a poem in hexameters. After all there is a sense of relief in turning to the minor poems, although none of them may in this case yield quite so much as the ode. The most musical lines in the volume are doubtless to be found in the "Song from a Drama," beginning

> "I know not if moonlight or starlight
> Be soft on the land and the sea,
> I catch but the near light, the far light
> Of eyes that are burning for me" (p. 86).

This gives a hint of Swinburne, but it also recalls a song of Mr. Stedman's own, which appeared in an earlier volume, and far surpassed Swinburne in delicate and tender feeling—the song called "Stanzas for Music" and beginning

> "Thou art mine, thou hast given thy word."

That song is, to our thinking, the high-water-mark of this poet up to the present time. It should be added, in respect to the volume before us, that it gives several specimens of Mr. Stedman's translations from Homer and Æschylus, and they exhibit so much talent in that direction as to increase the regret that his version of Theocritus remains unfinished.

But, after all, when we turn from the best of these other volumes to the collected poetry of Holmes (Osgood : Household Edition) we may well profess to have come back to "firm ground" once more. Here is at least a secure literary foothold : effective execution, inexhaustible wit, and tact that rarely fails. The extraordinary brilliancy that has now for a half-century kept this author's occasional poems and *vers de société* above all other American work of the kind—finding in England no rival except in the short-lived career of Praed—still holds its own unquenched, as the recent Whittier dinner showed. The only source of regret is that these delightful trifles have now so multiplied that in turning the leaves of the volume we find the more serious poems almost submerged, though it is after all on those that the solid fame of the poet rests. Lowell once wrote of Pope : "Measured by any high standard of imagination, he will be found wanting ; tried by any test of wit, he is unrivalled." This limitation can never be justly made in the case of Holmes ; but the hasty or careless reader of this book might be disposed to make it. He should, indeed, read the book carefully twice ; once for the humorous poems, and again, leaving them rigidly out of sight. He will find in the smaller series of this winnowed selection a wealth of imagination, of beauty, and

of tenderness. Among all these serious poems, we suspect, "The Chambered Nautilus" will stand out as conspicuous as Bryant's "Waterfowl" on the pages of that older poet; and had Holmes written as little as Bryant his reputation might have been as great. It seems a hard decree, but an author's fame, after all, depends hardly more on what he gives than on what he withholds.

Report of the Commissioners to Manage the Yosemite Valley and the Mariposa Big-Tree Grove (1877).—Within the limits of sixteen pages Mr. Ashburner, the Secretary of the Commission, gives a succinct and clear account of the discovery and occupation of this far-famed valley, of the establishment of the reservation, the origin of the commission, and a history of its troubles in securing possession. To these we need not now refer, possession being at length complete, and the faithful guardian from the first, Mr. Galen Clark, in charge. The Commissioners now "desire to secure the services of a competent engineer—one familiar with the laying out of parks—for the purpose of having a careful survey and plot made of the Valley, with reference to its being gradually improved according to some definite plan. On this plot roads and trails which might be necessary in the future would be laid down, and reservations made for hotels, stores, and other houses where they would least interfere with the landscape and beauty of the Valley." They also propose that the private rights in the trails, upon which heavy tolls are now charged, should be bought up; and every visitor to the Valley will agree that this is desirable.

As the Commissioners intimate that the task, which they have well fulfilled to the limit of their ability, has been a somewhat thankless one, they may not favor a proposition for the increase of their charge. But as we note that the "Mariposa Big-Tree Grove" has been managed without anxiety, we are bound to suggest the establishment of two other small reservations of a similar kind. These are: 1, of a square mile or two of *Sequoia gigantea*, or Big-Tree forest, in the King's River district, where these gigantic and unique trees, instead of occurring in detached and very limited groves, intermixed with and much outnumbered by other trees, are said to constitute whole forests. A patch of this forest ought to be sacredly preserved. Considering their situation, and the great and ever-increasing demand for lumber, it is probable that these forests will soon be attacked, and in time share the fate of their kin the Redwood. 2. Not many years ago a similar reservation of Redwood, *Sequoia sempervirens*, could have been secured, almost in the neighborhood of San Francisco, without expense or conflict with any private interest. Now, all the most available forests of this noble tree—second only to the Big Tree of the Sierra Nevada in hugeness, and superior in beauty—have been appropriated, and the process of demolition is fearfully rapid. It would be useless, and indeed senseless, to complain of this. The lumber is most valuable and is much needed. Still, by going farther north, to the interior of Mendocino Co., or even to Humboldt Co., large tracts of unappropriated and magnificent Redwood forest may be found, a square mile of which could well be spared for the purpose now, and would be an inestimable bequest to posterity. Will the Big-Tree Commissioners, or the State of California, take this matter in hand?

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Authors.—Titles.	*Publishers.—Prices*	
Census of the State of New York for 1875	(Albany)	
Clark (Dr. C. C. P.), The Commonwealth Reconstructed	(A. S. Barnes & Co.)	$1 50
Daudet (A.), The Nabob	(Estes & Lauriat)	1 50
Foster (Dr. M.), Text-book of Physiology	(Macmillan & Co.)	6 50
Gill (W. F.), Life of Edgar Allan Poe, 4th ed	(W. J. Widdleton)	1 75
Hall (H.), American Navigation, swd	(D. Appleton & Co.)	
McDaniel (H. F.), and Taylor (N. A.), The Coming Empire: Texas	(A. S. Barnes & Co.)	1 50
Manual of Nursing	(G. P. Putnam's Sons)	1 00

Fine Arts.

ELEVENTH EXHIBITION OF THE AMERICAN WATER-COLOR SOCIETY.

I.

ALREADY this young and enthusiastic society, in the dozen years of its existence, has conquered a place of note in American, and we may say in international, esteem; for its members and their works have forced the attention of certain intelligent explorers among the French and English and Italian connoisseurs, and commanded that sort of curiosity which in matters of civilization is victory. When an expert out of the earliest water-painting school in Europe declares, without a thought of flattery, that our Society is more advanced than his native Society—as a London expert readily did on the opening night—it is at least a sign that the time has come when we can invite comparative analysis. The fact is that the eclectic study which has been the habit of this generation of our artists tells much sooner on a light and rapid mode of painting than on a more solid one. The pictures which we are beginning to put in our churches, the statues and historical pieces which our Government and our States are beginning to command, and our more elaborate easel-pictures, are still very lacking in Americanism, in solidity and vigor. But in the kindly opportunity offered by water-color painting we already display very gracefully the American quickness of taking a hint; and our artists, who have long been acutely conscious of all that was best in the practice of the various foreign schools, are now able to reflect directly the lustre of the best teaching with a sincerity which the absence of any clannish *parti pris* has but helped enormously.

It is true that our water-color painters are so few in number that they are obliged to admit many contributions of a low standard in order to eke out an exhibition; but the difference in style between the handful of genuine students and the conventional workers who exhibit alongside is so great that the practised eye can treat the impertinences of the latter almost as if they were invisible, and the successes of the real artists are frequent enough to give a prevailing tone that quite dominates the exhibition.

Perhaps no contributions have had quite so much *éclat* this year as the absence of certain contributions. The always-unexpected Mr. Homer, so certain to do something that nobody could have anticipated and that no inferior artist could do, this season does nothing. He produced last year some powerful effects of the blotchy order, some abrupt eulogiums of Japanese fan-painting, some cries of irreconcilable color, that excited the liveliest attention of the public. We believe that none of those who so readily celebrated the originality of these striking works expressed their gratitude by acquisition, and the leader of the invading school has withdrawn into his tent to ponder on the bad faith of the champions of bric-à-brac. Certain foreign contributors, however, have planted the standards and the disturbed colors of the orientalists, and the Exhibition does not quite lack the peculiar and stimulating accent which it was the wont of Mr. Homer to confer on the yearly display.

We observed among the saving works of the Academy's collection the pure and healthy landscapes of R. Swain Gifford. "The Salt Vats at Dartmouth" (258), by this artist, are painted with a direct, transparent, temperate vigor that is the merit and the justification of water-color. The atmosphere, apparently represented by one uncovered sweep of the brush, is exquisitely fluid and breathable. The sense of uncontaminated open-air nature wraps the whole picture. Aquarelle here seems to resemble the photograph in its contempt of half-measures, its direct fidelity to what is in the field of vision, and its just poise of values. The color is of wholesome sweetness, and the composition, in which the tent-like sheds of the salt-works make a pyramidal series over a low sea-side plain, has a quaint charm. A similar easy sincerity distinguishes the little idyllic bit, "Early June Day on the Coast" (442); here is simply a squarish bowlder under a bush; but the sun which is warming it is the real June sun struggling with coolness, and the winnowing air is potable. Art thus understood is like those systems of philosophy in which matter does not exist in its own solidity, but in our sensations. For the painter, such a rock, such a tree, and such a cloud-sprent sky are not evident by their substance, but by their privilege of expressing the diaphanous fluidity of light and ether. A falser theory of art would have cleared away the air and arrived at their hardness. Mr. Gifford also sends a composition, a Venice scene (17), in which the intention to give pleasure is more evident, more deliberate. In this vibration of fluttering painted sails, and bubble-like cathedral domes, and soaring campaniles, and bronze lion-wings, all melting in the warm gold of a Venetian afternoon, his painting shows the deliberate voluptuousness of a true Venice collegian. The picture seems to want to suggest all it can, and to tell of the colors of Veronese and Robusti that are behind the walls of the Ducal Palace. There is a sense of apparatus; but the ambitious dash towards a more complicated satisfaction of the color-sense is well taken; the painter's strength does not fail him, nor trip itself up, in the more pompous work. In the elaborate "Venice," as in the dewy Yankee landscapes, there is perfect self-possession and singleness. In all his pictures of this year the artist seems to lay, if we may so express it, the thin peeling of painted air which defines what we see of an object in its purity upon the paper, without any linings, thickenings, or patches.

Mr. Richards, astonishing as his trained hand ever is, can hardly be said to show at his best in the large colored boards he has latterly been covering. The Conanicut coast-view (363) will serve as an instance of

what we mean. It is a surprisingly clever piece of scene-painting; it was executed in four days, though the dimension—some five feet across—would seem to demand weeks of toil when the precision of the workmanship is taken into account. There is a secure determination towards largeness of stroke, along with a studied composition and a careful focussing of the high-light. The result is a fine drawing, decidedly hard. Mr. Richards gives no evidence of succeeding in dashes at grandiose landscape in the style of a Rubens. The admiration of his spectators has never been fascinated by feats of grace, or intoxicated by feats of vigor, but rather educated by feats of microscopy. In his greater works the wrinkled hills of the middle ocean have been diagrammed and protracted and surveyed, as they are by the instantaneous photograph. This scientific method of analysis is what has made his fortune. His hand, a little cramped, or perhaps, rather, free within definite restrictions, will not soon become graceful or flowing. Enormous ability is shown, it is true, in great solid cartoons like the "Conanicut." But it is a burgher-like and commonplace prospering; the happy surprise which the spectator would get from inventiveness and fire is altogether wanting, while inventiveness and fire are just what is demanded in great feats of strength executed in four days. His little "Coast-view" (170), with a wrinkled sea perceived far beneath the feet, its crape-like surface furrowing in finer and finer corrugations, while the burnishing path of the sun obliterates their roughness in the middle portion and contrasts with the craggy rocks in front, is in the vein for which this artist has always been admired, and will please the whole of his large and faithful following of disciples.

Concerning a picture so careful, and we do not hesitate to say so fascinating, as Mrs. Stillman's "Bloom-time" (66) the critic of flesh-painting hardly knows what he had better write. This work, a life-sized figure in a certain system of surroundings, contradicts the paint-methods by which flesh is represented, with a sort of diametric opposition which shows that it is not a case of ignorance or inability but of conflicting theory. The well-known means by which the facts of anatomy are expressed, the support of bone and muscle asserted, the illusion of solidity conferred by vigor of tones, are absolutely ignored. There is no effort to get the different features on different planes, no attempt to get the embowering blossoms at different degrees of distance. It is a transparency of a head on an enamel of apple-flowers. And yet it is a painting which betrays poetry, spiritual exaltation, intellectual vigor, and the charm of cultivation. What, in fact, lends a charm to this decorative manipulation is the sense that the artificer has thoroughly saturated her fancy with the work of the early Christian fresco-painters, the "master-mosaists," the glass-stainers, and by a supreme effort, which is itself a sign of power, has cast off like a slough the erudition of art that has grown upon us since those fresh days and seized us like a possession. This study repeats the poesy of thought, as well as the complete technical innocence, of Orcagna and Gozzoli. It appeals only to travellers, to a curious élite, to a corner of cultured cognoscenti. But since it really does transfer the look of things that attracts us in the works of art's delicious infancy, the painting has a searching charm like a page of music played by one who has a right to play it because he has found it out in its organ-loft.

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, FEBRUARY 21, 1878.

The Week.

THE debate in the Senate on the Silver Bill was brought to a close on Friday afternoon, and the discussion and voting on the various amendments occupied the entire night. Towards five o'clock on Saturday morning the bill was passed by a more than two-thirds vote of 48 to 21. It provides for the coinage of 412½-grain silver dollars, to be "a legal tender at their nominal value for all debts and dues, public and private, except where otherwise expressly stipulated in the contract," and the Secretary of the Treasury is directed to purchase silver bullion at its market price, not less than two and not more than four million dollars' worth monthly, and to coin it into dollars monthly as fast as purchased, the Treasury to have the benefit of the seigniorage; but not more than $5,000,000 shall at any one time be invested in uncoined bullion, and gold certificates of deposit shall not be payable in silver. It further directs the President to invite the Latin Union and such other European countries as he may deem advisable to a conference for the adoption of a common ratio of gold and silver, and of establishing internationally the use of bi-metallic money, and to appoint three commissioners on behalf of the United States to attend such conference. Finally, provision is made for the issue of silver certificates against deposits in the Treasury or Sub-treasuries of the United States.

The principal amendments rejected were those offered by the friends of honest money. By 46 to 21 the Senate rejected Mr. Morrill's proposal that for the first year not more than 25 per cent., and for the second year not more than 50 per cent., of customs dues should be payable in silver; by 46 to 23, Mr. Edmunds's proviso that the act should not interfere with the coinage of gold and subsidiary silver coins as now authorized by law; by 44 to 20, Mr. Morrill's proposal that payments on all uncompleted contracts should be made on the basis of value represented by United States notes at the time the contracts were made; by 44 to 25, Cameron's 420-grain dollar; by 46 to 23, Blaine's 425-grain dollar; by 49 to 18, Eaton's 440-grain dollar; by 46 to 20, Mr. Whyte's proposal to limit the legal-tender of silver to $20, and, without calling the roll, Mr. Burnside's poor-man's proposal to limit it to debts and dues in excess of $500; by 45 to 18, Mr. Sargent's proposal to except customs dues and interest on the public debt from payment in silver; without a roll-call, Mr. Morrill's proposal to retire and cancel five-dollar greenbacks in equal amounts with silver issues; by 46 to 14, Mr. Christiancy's proposal that silver and gold be interconvertible on demand at the Treasury, and that the coinage of either metal for private parties be prohibited, and subsequently a similar proposal by Mr. Butler, of South Carolina; and without a roll-call, Mr. Morrill's fixing the date of June 30, 1878, as the time for the bill to take effect. Mr. Christiancy's substitute was peremptorily rejected, and Mr. Blaine withdrew his as already hopelessly condemned. The bill as amended in Committee of the Whole was then reported to the Senate, when Mr. Kernan moved to amend by providing for the redemption and cancellation of the one and two-dollar Treasury notes. On motion of Mr. Ferry, reissue was substituted for cancellation by a vote of 42 to 25—a pure demonstration on the part of the anti-resumptionists, for the amendment as amended was then defeated by 54 to 10. This ended the struggle.

Other proceedings in Congress have been of slight moment. The old and tiresome question of what bargain was made by or for the President to prevent the Southerners from filibustering against the decision of the Electoral Commission, and whether his course in withdrawing the troops from Louisiana was due to anything but his previously-formed conviction that it was his constitutional duty so to do, was sprung upon the House on Wednesday week as an incident of the debate on the Military Academy Appropriation Bill. Mr. Hewitt made dark allusions to buying and selling the Presidency, and said he had contemptuously refused a Louisiana offer to sell out to Tilden. Mr. Garfield denied any trafficking or bargaining on the part of Mr. Hayes; and Mr. Foster, the next day, denied again that the famous Wormley House interview involved any pledge on anybody's part, or any written document with signatures. On Tuesday Mr. Hale and Mr. Garfield had a good deal to say about the "persecutions" in Louisiana, and hinted that the Government might feel obliged to interfere. On Thursday there was a ludicrous episode in the House occasioned by a communication from Mr. Sherman in regard to the falling-off in the revenues, as brought to his notice by the Commissioner of Internal Revenue. He accordingly recommended a reduction in the appropriations or an increase of taxation. This constitutional proceeding was resented by Fernando Wood as an attempt to dictate to Congress, and for the hundreth time it was shown how the President and his advisers are regarded by that body as hangers-on of the Government, having neither responsibility to the people nor any representative relations to them. It is one more argument in favor of getting the Cabinet on to the floor of Congress as soon as possible.

The leading speakers in the silver debate in the Senate have been Messrs. Bayard, Eaton, Randolph, Hill, Lamar, Kernan, Blaine, Christiancy, Edmunds, and Morrill, six of them, and the strongest, being Democrats. Moreover, two of the Republicans, Messrs. Blaine and Christiancy, proposed compromises which were simply trifling improvements on the original proposition. Mr. Lamar is perhaps entitled to more credit than any of them, as his vote will probably cost him his seat. He presented to the Senate on Saturday resolutions of the Mississippi Legislature instructing the State Senators to vote for the Silver Bill, which, however, he announced his intention of disregarding, in a short speech which for manliness, dignity, and pathos has never been surpassed in Congress. Any man there might be proud of having made it, and we doubt whether there is anything in the history of Mississippi nearly so creditable as having sent such a man to Congress. We trust, however, he will, since he sets his duty so high above all other considerations, go one step farther than disregard the resolutions, and refuse also to offer his resignation, which we have heard he proposes to do. The country needs now in Congress, as it has never needed them before, men who represent the whole Union, as distinguished from particular States and districts. Senators are in a peculiar degree bound to do so. The Republic at large ought to be their main concern. Owing to the practice of office-jobbing, and the increased dependence of Senators on local wirepullers, this has been almost completely forgotten, and in a crisis like this there is hardly anybody in either House to think and speak for the nation. At such a crisis, too, a man of Mr. Lamar's courage serves his State best by thinking only of the country. But how absurd and quixotic his performance must seem to Blaine and Conkling!

When the question of the appointment of a new Collector of the New York Custom-house was before the Senate in December last Mr. Conkling bore the most prominent part in that great debate. According to his principal newspaper admirer, "he spoke for an hour and a half, and his speech was described by those who heard it as being one of the most brilliant, eloquent, and able of his life"; and "his remarks were divided into three heads." During his speech "he was surrounded by piles of documents; his desk and the chairs

in his immediate vicinity were overburdened with books, papers, and letters." "When he alluded to General Arthur and Mr. Cornell he moved up and down the aisle, and spoke at the top of his voice, and clinched every sentence with violent gestures." In short, all his powers were brought into play; the occasion was great, and the man was equal to it. The revered names of "Arthur" and "Cornell" touched the inmost recesses of a rich nature. We are sorry to say that the account of his demeanor during the debate on the silver bill is not equally interesting. It is described by Mr. Nordhoff in the *Herald* as follows:

"Mr. Conkling's course was in melancholy contrast with that of Mr. Lamar. It was not merely that he did not speak, for he had repeatedly said to his friends he did not think a speech from himself on the subject likely to be effective to change the result, but his studied attitude all day and night of indifference to the speeches and movements of the opponents of the bill, his ostentatious display of contempt for the efforts made to check and limit the bad effects of the bill, and his equally ostentatious zeal in encouraging his friend Mr. Jones, of Nevada, and other extreme silver-men, in their demonstrations, were all so marked as to be the general topic of conversation in the galleries and on the floor. Indeed, he went so far that many persons believed he had made up his mind to vote for the bill, and when he voted no it was felt that he must have gone at last against his sympathies."

The New York *Times* has been making some very sneering and unhandsome observations on him for not making "the great effort" during the silver debate, and has also mentioned very discourteously the fact that after making a "great effort" on the formation of the Electoral Commission he kept out of the way, and did not vote when the Louisiana returns came up for adoption. The *Times* is probably alluding to the cruel though widely-believed story that the Great Citizen had been privy to a little plan for throwing out the Louisiana returns and having himself made President for one year, until a new election could be held, which was abandoned at the last moment. We think we can furnish a much more charitable explanation of his silence in the silver debate, and that is that he was studying "the mechanism of government." "One thing at a time," as the *Tribune* says. Mr. Conkling is no "Dutch theorist," and, therefore, makes sure that the "mechanism" is all right before coming to the discussion of ordinary political questions. As to the Louisiana affair, we think his absence must have been due to some accident to his toilette. His hair was probably tumbled, or his collar had gone awry.

Mr. Bayard Taylor's nomination for the German mission has been received with great and justifiable satisfaction, both as being positively good and as saving us from something possibly very bad. Mr. Taylor is very familiar with the German language and literature, and has had some diplomatic experience already, and is a sensible man who has seen a great deal of life and will serve the country with the highest credit. His appointment, owing to his being one of the editors of the New York *Tribune*, raised a very puzzling problem in "the amenities of journalism." Congratulation of an editor on any honor or reward outside his profession, or commendation of any appointment bestowed on him, may of course be readily construed as a compliment to the wretched or insignificant or infamous sheet with which he is connected, and this his professional brethren are naturally apt to shrink from. The *Times* solved the difficulty in the present case very dextrously by observing that, as Mr. Taylor's appointment was "credited" to Pennsylvania, it showed that Mr. Taylor's connection with the *Tribune* was "purely accidental," and it was gratifying inasmuch as it delivered a man of great intellectual calibre "from the necessity of earning a living by the sufferance of Jay Gould." A neater mode of killing two birds with one stone it would be hard to find.

The suit of the United States against Tilden for the recovery of unpaid income-tax, which Mr. George Bliss brought in the very last days of his District-Attorneyship, and left to his successor to prosecute, has been before the court ever since. The defendant, with his accustomed wickedness, demurred, on the ground that the assessor's estimate, on which the tax was levied in the absence of a return, was final, and that the acceptance of the amount so fixed operated as a complete discharge. This plea has, however, after full argument, been overruled by the court, on the ground that the statute provided that the tax was to be levied on the income, and not on what the assessor said was the income. The case will now be tried on its merits, and we shall at last know what Tilden's income really was between 1862 and 1872. The drawback on the proceeding as a purifier of public morals is that it was begun simply as a means of annoying a political opponent in a canvass, and as his chances of again being a candidate are small, it is very doubtful whether it will ever be pushed to a conclusion.

Colonel Bob Ingersoll has lately occupied a good deal of attention in this city, and evidently furnished the theme to a great many metropolitan preachers, for an inordinate number of discourses on the Sunday following his lectures were on Hell, and one minister addressed himself to Colonel Bob directly and castigated him severely. The Colonel's first lecture on this same subject was a great success as far as numbers went, was reported in all the papers, and even reproduced in pamphlet form, and consisted of a droll stump-speech directed against the Christian religion. Encouraged by this he engaged the Hippodrome and made preparations for an audience of several thousands to hear him on Ghosts, but only about two hundred assembled for that purpose. The fact is that, looking at the matter from the business point of view, he ought to have reserved Hell for his last lecture. All other subjects will seem to his audiences who have enjoyed that, like thin claret to a man who has been regaling himself with apple-jack. There is, perhaps, nothing in recent history more curious than the Colonel's rise as a great theologian and the foe of theologians, considering that he passed middle life unknown to fame, and then made his mark by unsuccessfully proposing a doubtful candidate at a nominating convention. The lectures are a rehash of Tom Paine's, Voltaire's, and Theodore Parker's well-known arguments, with an intermixture of Western humor and the usual mushy eulogies on Love.

When it became known that the Senate had, by more than a two-thirds majority vote, passed the Silver Bill, retaining the provision for paying U. S. bonds principal and interest in 412½-grain dollars if the Government shall elect to make such payment, the price of gold in New York fell from 102⅜ to 102, and later to 101⅝; U. S. bonds advanced ¼ to ⅜ per cent., and in London ¼ to ⅜ per cent. (leaving them, however, ⅛ to ¼ below New York prices). By a looker-on in the markets it might have been inferred that the Senate had done something which was not only harmless, but of positive benefit to the credit of the Government. There is, however, such a thing as "manipulation" in the Stock Exchange markets on both sides of the ocean, and in the absence of any adverse speculation a show of sentiment favorable to the Silver Bill might have been brought about at no greater cost than a few brokers' commissions and the risk of a moderate amount of money. If the President, who has rested his opposition to silver remonetization on considerations of the public credit, could be persuaded that the bill would not only not injure the public credit, but would help it, such an outlay as we have spoken of would be a judicious investment. It is true that as the bill passed it was shorn of the free-coinage section, which would have brought silver here from all parts of the world, to be stamped as possessing a value 10 per cent. above its actual value; that an International Conference, after the act goes into operation, was authorized; and that the issue of 412½-grain dollars was restricted to $4,000,000 per month. But with all these modifications the bill contained its repudiating feature; that is, it gave force and, so far as a statute can do it, effect to the declaration that the U. S. Government will save to itself 10 per cent of what it owes. The fact that it cannot begin on this saving at once, and that possibly before the time comes when it can pay silver dollars they will be more valuable than now, does not alter the repudiating intent of the

bill. Whatever the temporary effect of the bill on the markets ought to have been, its ultimate effect on the public credit cannot be doubted. Silver in London advanced to 54½, and closed at 54⅛ to 54⅜. Here the gold value of a 412½-grain dollar advanced from $0.9010 to $0.9063; the gold value of the "paper dollar" (the promise of the Government to pay one dollar) ranged during the week between $0.9768 and $0.9840.

If the bill shall become a law, the 412½-grain silver dollars will be bought by importers to use in paying duties at the Custom-house. For this purpose they can afford to pay .99 to .99½ for them; to the extent that they can be got will they be used for this purpose, and to that extent will all the coin receipts of the Treasury be in silver. For a while the Treasury will pay its interest in gold, but a time will come when the coin it will have will be silver. Then the fact that the bonds are silver obligations will be brought home to every holder of them. If silver shall then be 59*d.* per ounce, it will be the same to the holders as if they received gold, but to the silver agitators it will be a reason for another hostile movement on the "privileged class" which has savings to invest. If silver by that time shall rule below 59*d.* per ounce, then the bondholders will be the sufferers.

The London *Times* discusses the cause of the slight rise in United States bonds on the receipt of the news of the passage of the Silver Bill, and ascribes it to the stimulus given to the market by the report of better New York prices, and by the fact that the worst was now known, and proved not to be so bad as was feared. We are inclined to think, however, that the soundest explanation is that given by the New York *Herald*, which is that as the passage of the bill will permanently stop refunding at four per cent., it raises the value of the outstanding six per cents. by making it sure that they will not be called in, inasmuch as six per cent. in silver will, doubtless, be better than four per cent. in gold. Persons proposing investment in the West cannot be too cautious. The talk of a compulsory reduction in the rate of interest on outstanding loans has already begun, and in Illinois there are the first notes of clamor for a stay law. In fact, nobody can tell in how many new forms the swindling spirit will show itself during the next year or two.

The historian Sybel has published a pamphlet on the financial and commercial situation in Germany entitled "What We May Learn of the French," in which he publishes the Paris stock-list beside that of Berlin. There appears a terrible decline in the securities quoted in the latter this year, as compared with 1872, being little if any short of $1,000,000,000, while the French have escaped almost unscathed in spite of their enormous losses through the war. One of the latest German jokes is, "What shall we do to the French if they seek revenge and attack us again? Pay them $1,000,000,000." Von Sybel ascribes all the trouble to the Chinese apathy of the Germans, their want of national feeling, their want of confidence in the future of the country, and their passionate and unbridled political divisions. He makes no mention of the demonetization of silver, being probably a "gold-bug," "goldite," "money-sharp," and "Shylock." In fact, we believe there is no doubt the unconscionable knave has a little property.

The error of the threatening and distrustful policy pursued toward Russia by the British Ministry has been brought out very clearly by the first attempt to protect "British interests" by force. The entrance of the fleet into the Dardanelles caused the greatest anxiety in London, because there was every reason to fear that if the Turks and Russians joined hands it would never get out again, and the humiliation of its loss or capture would have been incalculable. Then the attempt of a power which had no army to fight with a power that had no fleet and a very large army, fifteen hundred miles from home, began to have a very ludicrous aspect when the time for action came. That England is not ready to go to war, that she has no army, and that the recently-voted £6,000,000 will have to be used not to mobilize but to enlist and equip men for the field, is now freely acknowledged. The *Times* says that the officers are not familiar with mobilization; ambulances, transports, and medical organization are all wanting; and admits that all that Sir Stafford Northcote can do with his £6,000,000 is to shake it in the face of the Conference. By scraping together her whole available force, not over 30,000 effective men could be sent to Turkey, and there they would be reinforced by 30,000 or 40,000 more of the dregs and remnants of the Turkish army; and with this the job of chasing 300,000 Russians out of Rumelia would have to be undertaken. It is difficult to avoid the belief that when the exact nature of the situation dawns on the public in England the Ministry will find it impossible to maintain themselves.

The course of the Anglo-Turco-Russian complication is still obscure, but it seems to have re-entered on a peaceful phase, leaving England again in a somewhat worse diplomatic position than before. Her first error was in treating the Russian desire to command the Turkish line of defences at Tchadallye, twenty miles from Constantinople, as proof of an intention to occupy the city itself. Considering that Suleiman Pasha had escaped to Rodosto with thirty thousand men, and that the capital was occupied with a large body of armed refugees, and that the Turkish communications with Asia were open, there was nothing exorbitant in seeking to preclude the possibility of a renewed and desperate defence of the last Turkish line; and the march of the Russians on Gallipoli, which produced such a panic in London, is now acknowledged to have been due, and to have been directly ascribed by the Czar, to Suleiman's concentrating behind the works of that place. With a little reliance on Russian good faith, therefore, the fleet would not have been sent up to Constantinople under the pretence, at which everybody now smiles, that it was going to "protect the Christians." It was sent up, however, in defiance of the Sultan's prohibition, and this breach of the Treaty of Paris having been committed by her rival, Russia promptly withdrew her threat of occupying either the fortifications or the city. Austria, which showed some signs of irritation, was at the same time calmed down by Bismarck, who came forward at the moment for which he has probably long been waiting, and made everything between her and Russia so pleasant as to leave England once more out in the cold, and to provide for the meeting of the Conference at Baden-Baden probably, but somewhere certainly, within a few days.

Bismarck has at last appeared in the Reichstag, and, in reply to an "interpellation" about the Eastern question, spoke with a calmness and indifference which must have appeared very provoking in war-circles in London. The situation as described by him is in every way satisfactory. Russia, he says, has done nothing wrong, and means nothing wrong. He said there was no cause for anxiety about the Dardanelles or anything else. There would not be any general war. It was Russia's interest to satisfy Austria and England for the sake of future peace and quiet, and Austria and England must take the responsibility of the legacy left by Turkey. The Conference would meet early in March, and would settle everything. In any case, nothing would induce Germany to fight in this quarrel. In the Austrian Reichsrath and the Hungarian Diet Prince Auersperg and M. Tisza have made statements of somewhat similar character. Austria would not consider any arrangement between Russia and Turkey binding which had not the sanction of all the Powers, and, while willing to agree to everything which would ameliorate the condition of the Christians, must object to anything which seemed likely to alter the balance of power in the East to the detriment of Austria. But a Conference would settle everything. In the meantime the insurrection in Thessaly is spreading, and Servia is making loud claims to the benefit of the *uti possidetis* rule, by holding on to her conquests in Turkey, and says she will only surrender them to superior force.

"THE FATHERS" AND THEIR DOLLAR.

THERE has been nothing more prominent in the talk of the silver-organs during the last three months, and nothing duller or drearier in their mendacity, than their iteration that their "fathers" used the silver dollar as their standard, and that it was taken away from them in 1873 by the Coinage Act, and that what they seek now is to have it restored to them. We believe, however, that, with their too common dishonesty, they have carefully refrained from publishing any figures on the subject, being well aware that the facts of the matter, if known, would make the theory of "the fathers' dollar" as ridiculous as the theory that the Coinage Act was passed secretly. The facts are that, from the establishment of the mint and the issue of a national coinage, in 1793, down to 1836, a period of forty-three years, only $1,439,517 silver dollars were coined. At the first-mentioned date the population was, in round numbers, 4,000,000; and allowing one "Father" to each five persons, which is the usual calculation, there were in all 800,000 Fathers, so that they started with less than two silver dollars apiece—or, if we suppose them to have divided with the Mothers, they each had less than one dollar. The Fathers and Mothers, however, went on increasing, while the silver dollars did not, for, strange to say, there was no demand for them. The whole $1,439,517 had been issued before the year 1805, and from that year until 1836 not one was coined. In 1810 the population had reached (in round numbers) 7,000,000, and the supply of dollars remained the same, so that there were 1,400,000 Fathers, and only about one dollar each for them, leaving none for the Mothers. In 1820 the population was 9,000,000, and there were 1,800,000 Fathers, so that there were 300,000 Fathers who had no dollar at all, and the prospects of the Mothers were more hopeless than ever. In 1830 the population was 12,000,000 (it was nearer 13,000,000, but we are throwing off the odd figures), and there were 2,400,000 Fathers, so that there were 900,000 without a silver dollar. In 1836 relief came, and yet very slight relief; for but a few dollars were coined every year, so that only $6,606,321 were issued between 1836 and 1873, and the greater part of these after 1860. In 1860 the population was 31,000,000, and—many people who have been listening to the tuneful silver-man will scarcely credit it, but it is nevertheless true—the amount of silver dollars which had been coined up to that time (we do not say they were in circulation, or even in existence) was only $2,827,320. Supposing them, however, to have been all in circulation, there were 3,372,680 Fathers who had not one silver dollar in the world, and 2,827,320 who had only one dollar each. The Mothers had none, nor the grown-up Sons and Daughters; of course the Aunts and Uncles were equally destitute.

How, then, it will be asked, did the Fathers carry on their business? What did they settle their accounts in? If the silver dollar was the dollar of their hearts, why did they not clamor for more silver coinage? Well, the fact is they carried on business in *gold*, or in bank-bills redeemable, or supposed to be redeemable, in gold. In short, they were "goldites," "gold-bugs," and "gold-sharps." This is a sorrowful truth, but truth it is. The official records do not lie, strange as it may seem to some gentlemen out West, who have lately been lying much, and to whom it probably seems natural that everything and everybody should lie. The Mint from the very first year began coining eagles, half-eagles, and quarter-eagles. It issued eagles every year down to 1805, when it stopped until 1838. It issued half-eagles every year except 1816, 1817, down to 1873—the year of the "conspiracy"—and has issued them every year since. It issued quarter-eagles every year down to 1808, when it stopped until 1821, and then resumed; paused again until 1824, and then resumed once more, and has continued ever since. In 1850 it began coining gold dollars; in 1855, three-dollar gold pieces. We finally come upon the damning fact that before the year 1873 the Mint had coined and issued $816,422,042 in gold, against $8,045,838 in silver dollars. We take no count here of the small silver "change." Of course there was a good deal of that issued, say $150,000,000; but this does not furnish a standard of value or a means of carrying on the trade of the country, being merely used for small purchases. So that what the silver-men would have us believe, although the more intelligent and rational of them do not believe it themselves, is that while the United States were growing from a nation of four millions to thirteen millions, and increasing their trade and industry in an unprecedented ratio, they carried on business with a standard composed of one million and a half of silver dollars, and that they rose into a nation of forty millions, with a corresponding increase in wealth, on a basis of eight million silver dollars; and that the eight hundred million dollars coined in gold during this period were a mere luxury; and, finally, that when silver was demonetized in 1873, none of this eight millions being in circulation and very little of it in the country—even the small change being all gone—it helped to bring about the great decline in the value of silver which began in 1875.

This leads us to say a few words in conclusion about the "standard" of a country as distinguished from its "legal tender." This is probably the only point in the controversy on which the silver-organs, and especially the Chicago *Tribune* and the Cincinnati *Commercial*, have not been guilty of wilful falsehood, and falsehood repeated over and over with dull pertinacity. On this we do not think they have been wilfully untruthful, because we do not believe they have been able to get the distinction into their heads. When you find a silver-editor talking of "standard" and "legal tender" as if they were synonymous terms, and you stop him and point out the important difference between them, he gazes at you for a moment in a dazed, bovine way, and then begins repeating in the same sing-song, "Standard and legal tender, legal tender and standard, all the same." No one, however, who has not got a firm hold of this distinction, and cannot keep his hold of it, ought to open his mouth in public about currency, any more than offer to repair a watch or navigate a ship, never having learnt watchmaking and never having been at sea. The standard of value is a measure, created by popular consensus, which people use—*i.e.*, have in their minds—in buying and selling, and contracting or settling their current accounts. It may be legal tender also, and generally is; but it may not be the *only* legal tender, and sometimes is not. Legal tender, on the other hand, is the money or other commodity in which it is *lawful* for a man to pay or offer to pay his debts, if he pleases; it *may* be also the standard of value in general use, and generally is, but it sometimes is not. For example, in California gold has always been the standard of value. In buying and selling, and contracting and settling accounts, Californians have had gold and gold only in their minds when making their bargains, and have meant gold in their figures. Nevertheless, greenbacks have since 1862 been a legal tender—that is, a currency in which a man owing money to another *might* pay his debts. So strong, however, has been the popular consensus in favor of gold, that any man who attempted to use paper as the standard by availing himself of its legal-tender quality would have been disgraced. So also most or a great many of the foreign merchants in this city have for many years used gold as the standard in all their sales and purchases and contracts, even if they actually squared their accounts in greenbacks. That is, if they paid in greenbacks they did so with gold in their mind, giving greenbacks at their value in gold.

The history of American coinage since 1793 is another illustration of the distinction. Silver was down to 1862 a legal tender as well as gold, but it was not the standard. Nobody had it in his mind in buying or selling except in very small amounts, or in keeping his accounts or making contracts *de futuro*. What every one meant and thought of in talking of prices was prices in gold. He may have paid in bank-bills or checks, but they were checks or bank-bills redeemable in gold. He did not think of silver, or call for it; had he done so, of course it would have been coined and brought into use in large quantities. All this time silver was a legal tender; that is, a man might, if he pleased, have paid any debt in it, just as during the last fifteen years he might in California have paid his debts in paper; or just as here he might dur-

ing the same period have paid it in gold. So that the truth is, as we have said, the Fathers were "goldites." They used no silver except in small change; they had none to use, and did not call for it. They did all their business for sixty-seven years on a gold basis, and thought only of gold in making their contracts. The standard of the United States, in short, was from the foundation of the Government to the outbreak of the war the gold standard, and there was only *one* standard, although there were *two* legal tenders. Every child ought to have this distinction worked into his head, no matter what time or trouble it may take, and all the grown-up people whose minds are still flexible enough to entertain new ideas, ought to work at it until they grasp it; and until they have done so, especially if editors, keep dead silence about currency questions.

SOME MEMORANDA ABOUT LOUISIANA AFFAIRS.

THE fresh outbreak of excitement about the Louisiana Returning Board seems to show that a good many well-meaning people have forgotten several important things, to which we shall take the liberty of recalling their attention.

1. That it was widely believed, and with good reason, before the meeting of the Electoral Commission, that the Louisiana Returning Board had been guilty of fraud, and that no one could take the Presidential chair with a satisfactory title who owed it to the discretionary counting of persons in whom so little confidence was felt as the members of that body. The great reason for rejoicing over the appointment of the Commission, and its decision that it could not go behind the face of the returns, was, therefore, not simply that it put an end to strife and turmoil, but that it relieved President Hayes from all dependence on and obligation to the disreputable Republican politicians of Louisiana, and enabled him to repudiate all connection with them and responsibility for them.

2. That it was much to be regretted that he should have unnecessarily renewed or prolonged this connection by giving the two principal members of the Board high offices in the Custom-house, thus giving color to the charge that he was indebted to them, and perpetuating the irritation which their connection with local politics had caused, and, as it were, snubbing the whole body of New Orleans merchants who have dealings with the Custom-house, and who believed both Wells and Anderson to be dishonest. It was rendered the more objectionable by the fact that the Custom-house in that city had long been sunk in far deeper corruption than that of New York City, and stood in far greater need of a reformatory break with old practices and management.

3. That the charge that the prosecution of Wells and Anderson is "a breach of faith" implies that President Hayes withdrew the troops in consequence of some pledge from Governor Nicholls and the Legislature. If, however, they are the lawful Governor and Legislature, they were entitled to the control of the State without any pledge, President Hayes not being an armed invader, but the chief officer of a Constitutional Government, and bound to act in all things according to law. If they were not the lawful Governor and Legislature, no pledge could have justified his surrender of the State to them; so that no matter in what light we regard them, it is very impolitic of the Administration or any of its members to talk of any pledge as having influenced the President's action. To do him justice, he has again and again averred that he did in Louisiana only what it was his constitutional duty to do; and General Garfield, who was one of the "visiting statesmen," has within a week repeated this statement in the House. Consequently, his doing it can have bound no one to follow or avoid any course of conduct.

4. That, in point of fact, no pledge or promise not to prosecute anybody for past "political offences" was, as has been alleged, made either by Governor Nicholls or the Legislature. The resolution of the Legislature promises not "to persecute any one for past political conduct." But legal prosecution is not and ought not to be held to be "persecution," and criminal offences are not "political conduct." The offence with which Wells and Anderson are charged is the offence described in the Louisiana Revised Statutes, "of publishing as true any false, altered, forged, or counterfeited public record, knowing the same, etc., with intent to injure or defraud any person or any body, politic or corporate," and is punishable by imprisonment at hard labor for not less than two or more than fourteen years. By the same statutes, having knowledge of such a crime without communicating it to some committing magistrate or district-attorney is punishable by a fine and imprisonment with hard labor. To cite these statutes is to show the extreme impropriety—to use a very mild word—of the President's claiming any immunity for anybody from their operation.

5. That under the American system of jurisprudence, the proper defence against wrongful or false charge is a trial in open court by a jury under the procedure fixed by the common and statute law; and the only remedy for defects in such procedure, or the misconduct of the judge or jury, is an application for a new trial or an appeal to a higher court. The notion that such protection or remedy is to be found in appeal to the sympathy or gratitude of the President of the United States, or to any other great man, is as novel as it is mischievous, and seems to be borrowed from the practices of the various Oriental monarchies and khanates. It becomes more absurd when the court complained of is a State court, and when the prisoner for whom this extraordinary privilege is claimed is simply a member of a Southern Returning Board. The degree to which the public mind has been bemuddled on this subject is shown by the following passage, which we extract not, as might be supposed, from *Blackwood's Magazine* or the *Kreuz-Zeitung*, but from a leading American newspaper published in the city of Boston:

"It is not believed at Washington that either Anderson or Wells was criminally connected with the alteration of the Vernon parish returns. They will both be found guilty of the deed which they did not commit. If the general Government cannot legally or constitutionally interfere to prevent such a travesty of justice from being executed as the imprisonment of these two men, there is a gap in the practical working of our institutions which should be filled. Probably some way will be found to head off the plots of those who would thus revive old sectional feelings."

It is here forgotten that the belief of persons in distant cities about the value of evidence which they have not heard is of no consequence under American law, and that "the gap in the practical working of our institutions" which prevents the President from revising the decisions of State courts was left there purposely by the founders of the Government, the excellence of which is, indeed, largely due to the number and magnitude of similar "gaps." If the President has had to consult the Attorney-General as to whether he can interfere when he dislikes the result of trials in State courts for breaches of State law, it furnishes a new and strange illustration of the degeneration of our political thought wrought by the carpet-bag régime.

6. That the fact that the State judge who tries an offence was a defaulter before he went on the bench is a proof of great laxity of public morals on the part of the community which elects or tolerates him, and is an evil to be remedied by State opinion; but that the judge's character gives a prisoner tried before him a right of appeal to Washington is a grotesque idea, which has some of the marks of convivial origin. So also is the idea that, though the President or Cabinet would have no right to protest against such a judge trying cases in which they felt no interest, they may lawfully protest or interfere when he tries somebody whom they esteem and believe innocent; the fact being that, if entitled on this ground to interfere with State courts at all, the poor and helpless defendants whom they do not know, have a far better claim to such interference than the rich and conspicuous ones whom they do know. Every man in Louisiana deserves as good a judge as Anderson, and whatever is done to protect one person against such an officer ought to be done for all.

7. That so long ago as 1867 General Sheridan made a report to his superiors in Washington on the state of things in New Orleans, in which he described J. Madison Wells, after prolonged observa-

tion, as "notoriously corrupt," as "a political trickster and dishonest man," and declared "that he had not one honest man among his friends," and he therefore removed him from the State governorship. He also charged him with lobbying an appropriation of $4,000,000 through the Legislature for the repairs of the levees, "in order to finger some of the money himself." That in 1872 the Congressional Committee, after examination on the spot, pronounced the action of this same Wells and Anderson on the Returning Board "arbitrary, unjust, and illegal," and that there is no good reason for believing that either of them has since then grown in grace or improved morally in any department of human activity. That though this may not prove, or help to prove, that they committed the offence for which they are now on trial, it does furnish strong evidence of the impropriety of any attempt to raise the proceedings against them into the rank of a national concern, or plunge the President and his Cabinet into attempts to save them either by means of unlawful acts or unseemly language. Finally, that the practice of telegraphing or writing from great distances that trials which cause you annoyance, or in which a person whom you like or trust is the defendant, are "outrages" or "travesties of justice," is not only un-American but would in any country or under any system of jurisprudence be considered somewhat silly.

PARTY DISSOLUTION AT WASHINGTON.

WASHINGTON, February 18.

THE general impression with regard to the Silver Bill and the veto is that the President has not sufficient influence left in the Senate to secure the one or two votes necessary to prevent the passage of the bill. I do not believe, however, that this is by any means certain. If a determined effort should be made during the next ten days to obtain votes by the President directly, or by Mr. Sherman, there is no saying what might be the result, and many hitherto thoughtful civil-service reformers will probably within that period begin to doubt whether on the whole it is not better to have the effort made to influence the Senate, even at the expense of a little principle, than to trust the credit and honor of the country entirely to the mercy of Congress uninfluenced by the Executive. There is little doubt that a successful veto would be a death-blow to the silver agitators; the process of getting any measure of importance through Congress is so tedious and cumbrous that once blocked it is difficult to begin over again; and the Bland Bill would probably share the fate of the inflation measure vetoed by General Grant, if only the necessary votes to support the President could be found. It is all wrong, of course, to bribe Senators with offers of patronage, and civil-service reform does not lie that way. But then, cynical persons will say, Are we getting civil-service reform? Is it civil-service reform to keep Wells and Anderson in office at New Orleans, and to send McLin to New Mexico, and to offer Arthur a consulship to get him out of New York? Is it worth while, in order to get such reform as this, for the Executive to throw away its control over legislation, and so let Congress ruin the credit of the country? These are questions which just now are passing through the heads of a good many supporters of the President, who sincerely believe in his civil-service policy—as announced. It is a curious illustration of the contradictory impressions the President produces upon people with whom he comes in contact, that there are intelligent men here who will assure you that he will never veto the bill; that he is at heart in favor of remonetization; that the Stanley Matthews resolutions declaring the bonds payable in silver were introduced in order to give him an easy way out of his difficulties, by enabling him to shelter his approval of the Bland Bill behind a recorded declaration of the two Houses on the subject. All doubts of this kind will be very soon set at rest; but they are interesting as showing that the great mystery of the campaign of 1876, as to the exact nature of Mr. Hayes's real convictions and beliefs on political subjects, is still unsolved. One thing, however, the silver debate has made very clear, and that is that the general policy of the Administration during the past year has reduced it almost to a position of isolation. It has not pleased the civil-service reformers, it has disgusted the Radical Republicans, and it has not detached a single Democrat from his party allegiance.

Indeed, the present condition of the political atmosphere at Washington is more remarkable, to any one who takes a philosophical interest in government, than at any time since the close of the war. Every negative sign points in one direction—to the disruption of the old parties and the creation of new ones. There is nothing on which either organization is united or has the slightest conviction. Democrats will tell you this as well as Republicans. The vote on the Silver Bill shows a very even division of parties on the currency question; there are no party lines any longer on the tariff. Mr. Wood's bill was concocted precisely as General Schenck would have concocted one ten years ago—not as a measure of civilized and enlightened taxation, but as a compromise of interests, combined with what you have recently called the "happy-thought" system. For instance: "Free-traders want Free-trade; Protectionists want protection; happy thought—have both. Increase free list, tax raw materials, please everybody." But nobody is pleased. So with regard to internal taxation: there are no party lines, and a Democratic House proposes to re-enact the income tax, which was the subject of the universal execration of the Democratic party through the war. As to civil-service reform, neither party can be said to be in favor of it, and, what is more, neither party believes that the other has any real intention of carrying into effect its professed intentions with regard to it. As to the South, the total impossibility of doing anything to reverse the action of the Executive prevents it from being really a question of moment. All these negative indications point to a disintegration of parties; are there no signs pointing to the appearance of a new one? Everybody disagrees with everybody else about the old questions; are there no new subjects upon which there is an agreement? If there were any body of men, however small, in either house of Congress who acted readily together in opposition to both parties, in favor of some distinct policy, there would be reason to look for the rise of a new organization. So far as measures of reform are concerned, there is certainly no sign of anything of the kind. Such members of the House as Messrs. Hewitt, J. D. Cox, and Randall Gibson, to mention three of the best representatives of that body, who probably think alike at bottom on most political questions, have no positive platform to stand upon. Messrs. Lamar, Hill, Randolph, and Bayard in the Senate are in the same plight. What sort of a position have these gentlemen been put in during the past four months? Simply that of opposing an iniquitous scheme of spoliation supported by two-thirds of their colleagues. There are no men in Washington who are better qualified by training and experience than those I have mentioned to be foremost in a new party movement—in favor of some rational policy in the interest of the whole country; but instead of that, they are reduced to wage a losing fight against Communists and Repudiators.

But while there are no indications at Washington of a formation of a new party such as reformers have been dreaming of, there are certainly signs enough of a movement such as reformers never contemplated. During the past five years we know very well that in the South large bodies of men have become accustomed to act together in the interest of a "reduction of the burdens of taxation," by means variously known as "readjustment," "scaling," and repudiation. In almost all the leading Southern States long-continued commercial and industrial depression has resulted in the formation of a party pledged openly and firmly to cut down State debts. A national party of the same sort has undoubtedly shown its head at Washington, and unless it is killed now will gather force. The sort of talk lately indulged in by Senator Voorhees and Mr. Bland, and their followers, is precisely like that of the Southern repudiators; and, I may add, closely resembles the harangues sometimes heard in that metropolitan cradle of liberty—Tompkins Square—from Mr. Justus Schwab and Citizen Maddox. This party has an organization, a treasury, energetic leaders; it knows what it wants. In short, we cannot any longer say that we are without a new party, and an active and powerful party; one made up of defections from the old parties; but it is not a party of reform, but of national dishonor and humiliation.

Meanwhile, what is Congress doing in its numerous other fields of activity? It is, of course, busily engaged in preparing the appropriation bills in committee; but beyond this there does not seem much probability of any general legislation at this session. Subsidies have been killed, or at any rate scotched, by a resolution of the House; and on no other subject is there any agreement. With regard to the appropriations, the Democrats in the House deserve great credit for their honest efforts at reduction of expenses in every direction. But it is evident that their efforts are also frequently misguided. They have an ideal in mind which is not an ideal fit for the adoption of a government of the size and complexity of ours. The majority in the House is, it should be remembered, a rural majority; it comes from parts of the country in which the "simplicity and economy of our forefathers" are kept in view as the best attainable standard in the conduct of life. In the zeal with which these members endeavor to restore a state of things which never

existed, there is something even more touching than in the attempts of certain municipal reformers to purify and reorganize the primaries in cities. Grave doubts exist in their minds as to whether anybody, under any circumstances, ought to spend more than $2,000 a year; and whether Government expenditures on anything above the grade of absolute necessities is not immoral. Every legislator brings to Washington with him a certain standard of living, a scale of expense, which he involuntarily applies to the Government; it is obvious that the scale brought up from the impoverished South must be a very different standard from that which used to be applied in the palmy days of the Republican régime, when legislation was in the hands of a part of the country where luxury and wealth were common, and where money was easily made and lightly spent. The new spirit of economy has come just in time, and if we are to have no choice between corruption and waste on the one hand, and misguided economy on the other, the latter is unquestionably the least of the two evils. The worst effect of the new spirit is shown in connection with appropriations for national objects of an important character, which have no active lobby in their favor, and which may therefore be attacked with impunity. Government surveys, Government expenditures for professional or technical objects, are scrutinized with a more jealous but less instructed eye than in the old days before the panic and the Democratic "tidal wave." Persons connected with branches of the public service in which expenditures of this sort are needed complain bitterly of the restrictions under which they are placed, and sigh for the good old times when money could be got for the asking, and deficiency bills were looked upon as a matter of course.

Possession of one branch of Congress, however, combined with the prospect of the speedy possession of the other, has already begun to sap the reforming zeal of the Democrats to a great extent, and the passion for investigation which, on the eve of an important Presidential campaign, possessed the party, shows signs of waning. The general investigation of all the departments set on foot a month or so since has thus far resulted in nothing, and it is not supposed that much will come of it.

A very important measure has been introduced in the House, which seems to have a good deal of support from the Southern members—to refer all claims against the Government for settlement to the courts. The history of the Court of Claims shows, as might be expected, that the Government interests are far better protected by judges than by irresponsible committees of Congress, and that Court has exhibited no dangerous inclination to extend its jurisdiction unduly. Claimants, of course, fare better in any court than before Congress, because their rights are defined by decisions and statutes, and there is some possibility of ascertaining beforehand what claims should be pressed and what stand no chance. On these and a great many other accounts there is every reason to hope that sooner or later the whole jurisdiction of Congress over claims, the history of which contains so long a record of injustice and spoliation, will be abandoned to the courts. With an inferior court, such as the Court of Claims, and an appeal to the Supreme Court, the Government being represented by counsel in both, there would be a speedy end to the greater part of the scandals which now grow out of the prosecution of claims.

Before this is done there will have to be some reorganization of the Supreme Court, which is now three years in arrears with its business, and is entirely unable to cope with the constantly-increasing volume of it. This matter has been taken up, I believe, by the Bar Association of this city. Some legislation on the subject will no doubt be attempted. It is much to be hoped that the crude method of keeping the amount of business down by a pecuniary limit will not be pushed any further than it has been already. It is safe to say that no more undemocratic or unjust feature can possibly exist in a judicial system. There is no connection whatever between the amount of money involved in a suit and the right of appeal. The right to obtain the opinion of the Supreme Court on a question of law ought to depend solely upon the importance or the federal character of the matter in issue. The idea that a suitor should be enabled to appeal to the Supreme Court because his case involves a large amount of money, when another whose pecuniary interests at stake are small cannot, is an idea which would seem, were we not familiar with it, essentially the product of a government of caste and privileges, and not of equal rights.

Of the claims now before Congress, the most interesting, from a public point of view, are still those growing out of the Geneva Award. To the old dispute between the insurance companies, the war-premium and the "exculpated"-cruiser claimants, there is now likely to be added a new one growing out of the Canadian Fishery Award. In accordance with the Treaty of Washington and this award under it, we are called upon to pay $5,000,000 to England for the right of fishing granted to American fishermen in Canadian waters. The recent visit of Lord Dufferin to this city was supposed to be connected with this matter. He was anxious, it was understood, to find out whether we proposed to pay or not. If he got any definite assurances on the subject he was very lucky, and those who made them were very rash. There will, without question, be a good deal of opposition to the payment of the award in Congress. General Butler has stated that he is opposed to the whole thing—not on account of the money, but as a matter of principle. It is said that Mr. Ensign H. Kellogg, the American Commissioner, had an opportunity to reduce the amount of the award, as it was intimated to him by his colleagues that if he would sign it they would take off a million or so. But he, too, refused—perhaps also on principle.

What is to be the fate of the Geneva Award will probably be settled at this session of Congress. The fund still undistributed is a large one—not far from $10,000,000. A number of hearings have been had before the House Judiciary Committee, and still others before a sub-committee of that body which has been appointed to draft a bill. So far as can be inferred from the indications at the hearings, the Committee is in favor of some sort of distribution, and several of the members are known to be disposed to recognize the insurance claims. The great promoter of the war-premium and "exculpated"-cruiser claims, General Butler, is very active in behalf of that interest, and it is difficult to say what the result will be. There is no doubt that the insurance companies have a better chance than they had last year, though that is not saying a great deal, and there is equally little doubt that, if the present session goes by without any distribution of the fund, the money will remain for ever in the Treasury.

FOOD-ADULTERATIONS IN GERMANY.

GERMANY, January 15, 1878.

AT a meeting of apothecaries some weeks ago one of the learned gentlemen stated that Schiller's study had been recently discovered to have been formerly papered with a green paper-hanging. Upon examination this had been found to contain a quantity of arsenic great enough to explain the sufferings and the early death of the poet. I cannot vouch for the correctness of these assertions; but if they be true, our literature, for aught we know, might have had half a dozen other tragedies like "Wallenstein" to boast of, if Schiller's landlord had chanced to select a blue instead of a green paper for this particular room. Perhaps the poet was inhaling the deadly poison when, in his 'Geschichte des Abfalls der vereinigten Niederlande,' he penned the following lines: "The whole earthly happiness, even the life, of the honest man was now given into the hands of every rascal. . . . The truth of social intercourse was gone. . . . Social life was poisoned by a contagious distrust. . . . No honest man was trusted by the people, and nobody was believed to be honest." He, however, assuredly would not have deemed it possible that another age should be in store for mankind of which some misanthrope might be tempted to say the very same things, and that the secret causes by which he himself was hurried to his premature grave were the forerunners of this age. The Spanish Inquisition certainly, and grand but dark political plots and schemes like those of Philip II., have nothing to do with the fact that "the whole earthly happiness, even the life, of the honest man is *now* given into the hands of every rascal." Not the Dominicans, but a great number of manufacturers and trades-people, are after us, and these are not seeking souls *ad majorem Dei gloriam*, but merely pennies. Some of these gentry are satisfied with betraying thousands of the hope of regaining their health; they only substitute some worthless stuff for the valuable and costly things they pretend to sell; others gradually, but directly, systematically, and surely ruin the health of thousands by adultering their wares with some more or less strong poison, or using poisonous ingredients to make them "show off" better; and still others suffer themselves to be betrayed by their lust of gain into a wholesale slaughter. One need not be a sentimentalist to be, in all soberness, deeply convinced that here too is a "social question" of really awful import.

Allow me to make good this assertion by mentioning a few of the numberless cases which, in the last nine or ten months, have come to my knowledge just in reading my daily paper. I shall take care not to give the whole list, in order not to tempt any Pharisee to construct the whole bird out of one feather and to ask whether the proverbial virtue of the Germans, sterling honesty, is to be found anywhere except in the readers of our school-boys. Not very long ago the Society of Housewives in one of the larger cities—if I remember right it was Leipzig—got a lot of sau-

sages from some other place renowned for its fabrication of this favorite dish of all Germans. The law forbids any pork to be sold without having been examined under the microscope. In spite of that these sausages were so filled with trichina that about a hundred persons are said to have become, in a greater or less degree, the victims of this dreadful disease. In the summer two butchers of a smaller town in Saxony bought a cow so sick that they had to transport her on a wagon, and barely got her alive into the slaughter-house. Over a hundred persons who ate of the meat fell dangerously sick, and nearly a dozen died.

These are the worst cases as to the immediate results, but the guilty parties can, perhaps, only be accused of criminal negligence and dereliction of duty. From a certain point of view, therefore, the following examples represent a higher grade of the evil. A gentleman on whom the physicians had for many years tried in vain their skill and their wit, was at last found to be poisoned by lead; every time he opened his snuff-box he took some particles of lead with the weed. It would be interesting to know how many persons, in the course of years, the manufacturer had subjected to the same process of slow poisoning by using, against the law, lead-paper wrappings in order to save as much as, perhaps, this one man had spent on his physicians and in watering-places. Last summer the public were officially warned to beware of baby-carriages with a roofing of a certain white oil-cloth containing a great amount of lead; in some places all these carriages were confiscated. Quite recently the wall-paper manufacturers have been reminded of the law forbidding them to use the poisonous aniline colors. These same aniline colors are used to a great extent for "freshing up" old sausages and poor meat, and for "making" wine. I remember to have read last year three times of enormous amounts of "wine" having been emptied into the gutters by the authorities because they contained *Fuchsin*. A large wine business of good repute in Berlin, whose specialty was the purest and dearest wines for sick people, has been closed because, as the papers report, there was not a single drop of real wine in the bottles. One-half of the twenty different kinds of beer brewed or sold in Berlin are officially declared not to consist of malt and hops. It is the more satisfactory to know this, inasmuch as the authorities have had the kind consideration for the poor adulterators not to tell which beers *are* beers. The honest brewers are likely to have the same experience as the German chocolate manufacturers. During the last four or five years a Dutch firm, Van Houten, sold enormous quantities of its cacao in Germany, although it was considerably dearer than the best offered by the German manufacturers. The physicians recommended it very highly because it was warranted to be absolutely pure. Now, upon examination, it is found to be, if not directly adulterated, yet prepared in such a way with different chemicals as to have the effect of a bad adulteration. The thousands who have indulged in this luxury in order to improve their digestive organs have now the satisfaction of knowing that these were not weakened to such a degree as to be unable to stand even this "baby's delight," but that it requires a very strong stomach to partake of it for any length of time without harm. Van Houten's proceedings, however, compare very favorably with those of a number of his German competitors. Stollwerck Brothers, in Cologne, have had seventeen kinds of German chocolate analyzed. "The results were incredible: nine of them contained no cacao at all; only ground cacao-pulps, common browned flour, and bad sugar were the ingredients. In two cases there were, besides, found—not to speak of the addition of vegetable dyes—5 and 10 per cent. respectively of cauk. Of this the manufacturers themselves had no knowledge; upon further examination, it was traced to the adulterated flour from Bucholz, in Hanover, which they had used."

The last sentence points to the worst feature of the evil. It seems almost impossible to protect the public effectually against these modern harpies, as they themselves are often the victims of their own kith and kin. It is already almost difficult to name half a dozen kinds of food which are never adulterated. If one wants to be absolutely sure that it is food he has on the table, and not a wonderful mixture of minerals, dyes, and nameless liquids, he has to send everything to be examined beforehand. Perhaps it would come to that if the analyzing did not take so much time and if the pleasure were not so very costly. Some people, however, can hardly afford to avoid the trouble and the expense. Our farmers have been repeatedly warned not to buy clover-seeds or artificial manure without having it examined at a "landwirthschaftliche Versuchsstation" (agricultural experiment station). It is bad enough to cheat people into sowing pebbles instead of seeds, or into ploughing poison instead of manure into the ground; but it is much worse to make them eat chaff, pebbles, and poison, and to make them give poisonous playthings to their children. Our lawgivers do not overlook this. Bismarck personally takes a lively interest in these questions, and the *Reichs-Gesundheitsamt* has commenced a most determined crusade against these *hostes generis humani*. A commission, presided over by the President of the *Reichs-justizamt*, Dr. Friedberg, is now in Berlin at work draughting a bill to prevent the adulteration of eatables and drinkables and the use of materials detrimental to health in the manufacture of wall-papers, wearing apparel, toys, etc. As the basis for their deliberations the commission have adopted the proposals of a committee of experts which, under the auspices of the *Reichs-Gesundheitsamt*, has had the subject in consideration from the technical point of view. The Reichstag is expected to meet in February, and this bill will probably be introduced in the course of the session. The statesmen of other countries may find it worth while to bestow some attention on the debates that are likely to arise over it. With us nobody expects to see the great problem at once successfully solved, and nobody thinks that the law alone can bring about a satisfactory solution. Public opinion, which hitherto has been criminally lenient towards this worst class of thieves, must fix an ineffaceable brand on their foreheads, and the honest manufacturers must firmly stand together against these birds of prey, who, indirectly but often none the less effectually, deprive them not only of the fruits of their industry but also of their good name. In both respects a promising beginning has been made. In the former the press is doing good service; and in the latter, interest proves to be a still better teacher. An association of wine-growers and merchants has been formed, which, supported by the good crops of the last years, has already done considerable damage to the wine-manufacturers. The brewers are also stirring; they demand penal laws to stop the competition of beers made of dye-woods, molasses, quassia, etc.; and the public are already discussing the question whether they could not imitate the example of the Bavarians—*i. e.*, get their beer only where they have reason to believe that they really do get beer. In January, 1877, a great number of the principal chocolate manufacturers entered into a formal and binding agreement not to use substitutions of any kind whatever. The members of the association have adopted a common trade-mark, and their business has not declined, though they have had to increase their prices, while some of the other manufacturers have even lowered theirs. This may, in the end, prove to be the only efficient method of driving the rascals out of the market.

Correspondence.

POLITICAL OFFENCES.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Will you, for the benefit of your readers, be so good as to define a "political offence," as you understand the term?

Do not the words "political offence," as commonly used, signify an offence committed for the purpose of affecting the distribution of political power, as distinguished from an offence committed for some other purpose, as that of pecuniary gain or of revenge?

I infer from remarks in your paper that the Democratic leaders in Louisiana agreed to condone political offences. If the offences which they thus agreed to condone were not those committed by the Returning Board, what were they?

Very respectfully, E. J. L.

Boston, February 16, 1878.

[We can recall no case in which the term "political offence" has been made to cover anything but armed resistance, or combinations with a view to armed resistance, to a government on the part of persons owing it allegiance, or riotous or disorderly conduct arising out of hostility to the government or its legislation. We believe the present effort to make it cover the forgery and falsification of legal records by government officers is absolutely novel. This use of it would indeed make Tweed simply a political offender, and put him in the same category with the Carbonari, the Hungarian rebels, the Fenians, and the Cubans, for he stole and forged partly no doubt for purposes of pecuniary gain, but mainly "for the purpose of affecting the distribution of political power." As we point out elsewhere, the Louisiana Legislature said nothing about "political offences." If any one will furnish us with a precedent for the use of the term to cover the offence described in the Louisiana statute, or anything similar, we shall be much obliged to him.—Ed. Nation.]

THE WOODRUFF EXPEDITION.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: I see by the *Nation* of February 14 that my reference to officers of naval practice-ships as the best authorities for the dangers to which youth would be exposed on the Woodruff Expedition has been slightly misconstrued. I did not mean to intimate that a school or training-ship was an exceptionally bad place for young men, but only that naval officers best understood the dangers which might arise from suddenly setting several hundred young men free in a foreign port after months of the *ennui* of ship life, and the difficulty of keeping them under proper restraint when they went as passengers paying their own way.

Navy.

REPUDIATION AND THE SPOILS SYSTEM.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Two diseases of singular virulence and persistency afflict our body politic—one, the craving to evade the payment of public and private debts; the other, the passion for obtaining a living at the public expense by the work of controlling votes at popular elections. The long co-existence of the two maladies, for they began their ravages at about the same time, suggests an enquiry into their connection with each other. The struggle for office through politics, which was the first to show itself, broke out immediately upon the inauguration of President Jackson. His policy of removing his opponents and rewarding his friends, continued by his successor, was confirmed as the leading rule of practical politics upon its adoption by the Whig party in 1841. The practice, as yet unshaken, increased in extent and influence with the vast increase of offices which followed the breaking out of the civil war.

The date at which repudiation began is less definitely fixed, and the disease itself is of a varying and intermittent nature. In our business affairs, prosperity, speculative mania, prostration, and slow recovery follow each other with periodic regularity. During the hot fits of speculative activity, when borrowing is easy, repudiation is never heard of. It makes its appearance only with the chill of depression, when payment is hard. The greater part of President Jackson's Administration was a time of apparent prosperity; but when the crash of 1837 burst the bubble, open repudiation of debts by State governments and the suspension of specie payments made it clear that the disease had taken hold. The shorter and less important crisis of 1857 was followed by some similar but less serious symptoms; while the great break-down of 1873 has given rise to the widest and deepest manifestation of financial immorality which the country has yet seen, culminating in the scheme of a general reduction of debts by substituting a coin worth ninety cents for a coin worth a hundred.

If the experience of one country for half a century in showing the growth (in the main co-extensive) of these two evils is not enough to prove their necessary connection, let us bring into view the experience of Europe during the same period. In England, in France, in Germany, in all those free countries where no form of repudiation has within fifty years even received the countenance of any political party, the tenure of the great body of civil officers has been independent of changes of government. But when we turn to countries where faith with creditors has not been kept there we inevitably find a partisan civil service. In Spain, for instance, where partial and progressive repudiation is a national policy, we need only read the trustworthy pages of Mr. Wallis's work to learn how dependent all public offices are upon the favor of the supporters of the ministry in the Cortes. And in Greece, where there is no pretence of paying the national debt and public credit is a byword, it is notorious that subordinates in the departments are changed with every change of administration, and that local officials hold their places only on condition that they shall control elections. I do not care to dwell on the fact that the dark lines in our recent history are paralleled only under the worst of the Christian governments of Europe, and it would obviously be unfair to draw Turkey into the comparison, because in Turkey finance and administration have the same object—namely, the plunder of Christians—and the problem is complicated by religious motives, fortunately lacking elsewhere.

A thorough analysis of the two evils would require more space than you could give, but no long process of reasoning is needed to trace both to a common source. What is the spoils system? It is the system which treats politics as a great national game of mingled skill and chance, in which votes are the pawns to be moved, and popular impulses and public needs the accidents to be taken advantage of; in which place and power, honors and profits, are the prizes of the successful players, to be distributed according to the importance of each player's service. The monopoly of executive government is their reward. But alongside the game of politics runs the game of speculation, and here the players know too well how the legislative powers of the government can be used to load the dice. When times are prosperous grants and subsidies are their aim. And when the game is up it is again to the legislature that the losers turn for a diminution of the forfeit. Whatever the cause of the pressure, whether it be the wasteful use of public or of private credit; whatever the relief sought for, whether it be debasement of the currency, easy bankrupt laws, or open repudiation, it is always legislation which is expected to furnish the remedy.

The two-fold affliction is in truth one and the same disease, manifesting itself in different organs; it is the deep-seated idea that government exists only for the acquirement of power or money by those who know how to grasp and use one of its active powers, the executive or the legislative, as the case may require.

How then shall we treat it? Has it come to this that we are reduced to consider how far this idea may be put in practice and still allow us to retain under its gradual advance, made slower by resistance, some measure of public credit, some endurable administration of laws? Or may we look higher, may we reasonably strive for a restoration of government to its legitimate purposes; for the use of its legislative power to maintain individual rights and to protect public interests; for the administration of its executive duty by officers selected and promoted solely for fidelity and capacity? The example of other nations teaches us to what level we may fall if we yield to this great moral disease. The history of our own country shows what singular recuperative power we have. Clear brains, skilful hands, patient resolution are needed to lay the knife at the root of the evil; but, above all, a true and wide-spread understanding of its nature and its danger before it has done its fatal work. B.

Boston, February 16, 1878.

HOW TO MAKE STATES PAY THEIR DEBTS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In your issue of the 31st ult. you ask, "Can States be Made to Pay their Debts?" to which the answer given is, Not as matters stand; but this ought to be changed by the repeal of the Eleventh Amendment, and the consequent restoration of the suability of the States.

I undertake to point out an easier mode: Citizens of New York own millions of dollars of bonds of the State of Tennessee, which are being repudiated. If New York and Tennessee were distinct nations, this injury by the latter to citizens of the former would be a just cause of war. Then New York would owe it to her aggrieved citizens to give them redress by flogging Tennessee into payment of what was due, *plus* the expenses of the war for its collection. Being, however, fellow-members of the United States, New York cannot make war on Tennessee. But none the less does she owe it to her aggrieved citizens to wield her Statehood in their behalf if this can be done. Now it *can* be done, and that effectually.

New York can sue Tennessee in the Supreme Court of the United States. Let her take the Tennessee bonds of her citizens, giving her own in exchange for them, having a longer time to run, the transaction being upon such terms that she cannot in any event lose thereby. Perhaps it would answer for her merely to undertake to collect the Tennessee bonds for a commission. An agent to whom commercial paper is transferred for purposes of collection may sue thereon in his own name. But some arrangement by which New York should sue on the bonds in her own name could easily be made. There would then be no difficulty in New York's obtaining a judgment in the Supreme Court of the United States against Tennessee.

The question remains, How could this judgment be collected? A judgment against a county or a municipality is collectible by a *mandamus* commanding the corporate authorities to assess and collect a tax to pay off the judgment. In some States—Iowa, for instance—if they neglect to do so the court may compel them by proceedings for contempt, or may constitute the sheriff a special commissioner to assess and collect the tax. By analogy, it is held that, in this state of the law, the Federal courts may, under similar circumstances, constitute the marshal a special commissioner to assess and collect the tax. Now, this mode of proceeding may be made applicable in the case of a judgment against a State.

As the law now stands, the Supreme Court, having rendered the judgment, may compel its payment by a *mandamus* commanding the

Legislature of the State to assess and collect the necessary tax. The States, as to each other and with reference to the jurisdiction over them of the Supreme Court in favor of each other, are simply municipal corporations. Had it not been understood that the jurisdiction of the court involved compulsion to enforce the judgment it was empowered to render against a State in favor of an individual, the resistance thereto which produced the Eleventh Amendment would not have been made. There would have been little objection to a judgment against the State which should stand merely on the footing of a judgment of the Court of Claims, requiring a voluntary appropriation for its payment.

The Legislature of the debtor State could be compelled by *mandamus* to pay off the judgment against it as the law now stands. But Congress might provide that if they did not then the Supreme Court might appoint as many special commissioners as might be needed, not exceeding a given number, to assess and collect a tax throughout the State to pay off the judgment. The law might empower the commissioners to resort to the books of the revenue officers of the State for the basis of the assessment, which would make easy the task of preparing their own books. The tax being assessed, each individual's part of it would be a debt due from him to the creditor State, payment of which might be made enforceable by the process of the court or by suit in the local Federal Court. The details could be easily arranged.

That such legislation would be constitutional there can be no serious doubt. The Constitution vests in the Supreme Court jurisdiction of causes of States against States, and Section 8 of Article I. confers power "To make all laws which shall be necessary and proper for carrying into execution the foregoing powers and all other powers vested by this Constitution in the Government of the United States or in any department or officer thereof." A law providing for carrying into execution the judgment which the Supreme Court is empowered to render would, of course, be clearly within the residuary power conferred by the clause just quoted.

If New York would but do her duty to her aggrieved citizens, creditors of Tennessee, the latter State might, without any change in, or addition to, the law as it now stands, be compelled to pay her indebtedness now due these citizens. But with the aid of such a law of Congress as has been suggested the process of collection might be made very plain and effectual.

R. McP. Smith.

Nashville, Tenn.

HOW THE PRESENT DUTIES ON WOOL WERE FIXED.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In an article in your last issue entitled "Some Observations on the Proposed New Tariff" you—unintentionally, I have no doubt—do great injustice to the memory of an eminent merchant and manufacturer.

Under the head "Schedule L—Wool and Woollens," you state that

"The classifications of the present tariff are nominally retained, but the existing distinction between clothing and long combing wool is effectually abolished, and both classes, when unwashed, are made subject to a simple duty of 8 cents per pound on wool costing 32 cents and under, and of 10 cents on wool costing over 32 cents per pound. Why this useless distinction should be maintained and allowed to mar the undoubted improvement here proposed it is difficult to explain. The bill also maintains the existing discrimination in favor of English long wools (Class II.), which are allowed to come in *washed* at the single rate of duty, while washed clothing wool has to pay double the rate of unwashed. This discrimination, it is well understood among the trade, was introduced into the tariff of 1867 at the instigation of a prominent New England manufacturer, to whose special benefit it has inured, and who will rub his hands in the grave that now covers him if he learns that his heirs are to continue enjoying the benefit under a reformed tariff."

I was personally conversant with all the circumstances incident to the inception, construction, and enactment of the present wool and woollen tariff, and can assure you that the "New England manufacturer" whose memory you so ruthlessly desecrate had no part in establishing the "discrimination in favor of English long wools" of which you complain. The duties on wools of all classes were determined by the wool-growers, and not by the wool-manufacturers.

You say that it is difficult to explain why a distinction is maintained between clothing wools and long combing wools. It is justified by several practical reasons. I will state one of them: In applying duties to these classes of wools, reference must necessarily be had to the condition in which the wools are usually imported. Wools of the first class are usually imported *unwashed*, and wools of the second class *washed*. In regard to the first class of wools, therefore, it was necessary to make a provision against an evasion of the duty by washing the wools abroad. The "discrimination" of which you speak is more nominal than real, and was introduced to prevent frauds on the revenue, and not, as you suppose, to favor any class of manufacturers.

Respectfully yours, E. B. Bigelow.

Boston, February 9, 1878.

[To make the merits of the above-quoted stricture apparent to those of our readers who are not conversant with the origin and operation of our present wool duties, we must enlarge further upon this complicated subject than we were able to do in our late observations on the proposed new tariff.

The Act of March 2, 1867, which remains in force as far as wool is concerned, subjects fine clothing and fine combing wool nominally to the same duties; in reality, however, it establishes a wide distinction between these two classes, by a provision which allows washed combing wool to come in at the simple rate of duty imposed on unwashed wool, while washed clothing wool is made to pay double that rate, and is thereby effectually excluded from our markets. In order to estimate the actual duty on any kind of wool we have to find out what one pound of wool, when cleaned of all impurities, is made to pay. Reduced to this standard the two classes of wool in question now pay the following rates, viz.:

Clothing, from 27 to 46 cts. per lb., equal to about 52 to 100 per cent. ad val.
Combing, from 16 to 17 cts. " " " 43 to 45 " "

To say that such a discrimination is more nominal than real appears to us simply absurd. When Mr. Bigelow says that clothing wools are usually imported unwashed, and combing wools washed, he states a well-known fact; but he mistakes as the cause of the above distinction in our tariff what is in reality its effect. He is not ignorant of the fact that Europe imports a very large proportion of its supply of clothing wool washed and even scoured, while we are prohibited from doing so by the provisions of our tariff; and he will not deny that some of the most useful classes of clothing wool are effectually excluded from our markets, even in the unwashed condition, by those provisions and by those only. What the distinction between clothing and combing wool has to do with the prevention of frauds on the revenue, we are unable to comprehend. Instead of defending it on such untenable grounds Mr. Bigelow might indeed have stated one reason, and the only valid one we can find, for levying a lower *specific* duty on combing than on clothing wool, namely, the lower value of the clean pound of combing when compared with most kinds of clothing wool. Such moderate distinction would result from a uniform ad-valorem duty on all wool, and so far would be just and equitable.

Mr. Bigelow's assertion that the present duties on wool were determined by the wool-growers and not by the manufacturers will find few believers outside of the small circle of specially-favored establishments and among the heavily handicapped consumers of clothing wool. Such may have been the impression when the Act of 1867 was passed, but since then it has long become generally understood that in getting the tariff of 1867 fixed the manufacturers had the lead, and the wool-growers were in tow. What inducement, we ask, could the wool-growers have for asking less protection on combing than on clothing wool, when it is a well-known fact that on this side of the Rocky Mountains long-wool sheep pay the farmer a better interest on his investment than merino sheep? Says an experienced farmer in our State, when reporting to a Boston paper (see *American Cultivator*, January 19, 1878) the discussions of a delegation from the National Association of Wool Manufacturers and of Wool-Growers:

"I do not think it is just and right to give the grower of merino wool an average protection duty of 31½ cents on every pound of scoured wool that he raises, while the growers of Cotswold, Leicester, and other long wools have a protection duty of only 16½ cents on scoured wool."

And further on:

"Our duties discriminate against the very class of sheep and wool which improved agriculture, the demands of trade, and the

wants of meat-eaters alike demand that we should raise and increase as rapidly as possible."

When we are charged with "desecrating the memory" of a deceased manufacturer who undoubtedly profited largely by this unjust discrimination, we admit that it might have been more useful to accuse the living rather than the dead instigators of that transaction; but knowing what we do of his share in it we must decline to acknowledge the injustice of our charge, though the person referred to may not have taken as active a part in the framing of the tariff of 1867 as some others. Here is, in conclusion, what an experienced Massachusetts manufacturer (Mr. Slater) said touching this matter before a meeting of woollen-manufacturers recently held in Boston, as reported in the Boston *Journal of Commerce* of January 12:

"When I hear those who represent second and third-class wool (laughter) I hardly dare trust my lips to reply to them. I do not regard them as honest. They are selfish; they ought to be ashamed to advocate the duty on the raw material which they do. It gives them a protection which is exorbitant, which makes them bloated, and they are completely crushed under its weight."—Ed. Nation.]

HARVARD EXAMINATIONS FOR WOMEN.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: At the request of the Philadelphia local committee on Harvard examinations for women, I published a short article on that subject in the *Penn Monthly Magazine* for December, 1877. It has called forth replies from Col. T. W. Higginson in the *Woman's Journal* of January 12, and from Charles J. Stillé, Esq., in the *Press* of January 30, to which it seems well to say a few words in return. It is the position of these gentlemen rather than their arguments which call for an answer; Col. Higginson, besides his general reputation, enjoying great credit in certain female circles, and Mr. Stillé being provost of the University of Pennsylvania. Much of what they say I must pass over in silence, as it deals with matters of opinion, not of fact. But as they have questioned some of my statements I am bound for the sake of the subject of discussion, and for those for whom I undertook it, to make good what I have asserted.

Most of Col. Higginson's objections arise from careless misinterpretation of what I said. Being limited for space I may have written in too general a manner, and trusted too much to the understanding of all my readers; but it seems to me that the "encouraging response" of which I spoke in the beginning evidently referred to the particular point of university examinations for women, in which it cannot be denied that England set the example. Probably few people in America knew so well as I—even before "the visit of the Amberleys"—how much we were in advance of Englishwomen in our eagerness for education, the degree and variety of our information, the keenness and range of our intellectual interests. I say *were*, for a dozen years have made a great change—for the better with them, for the worse with us. In this direction, as in some others in which we had the start of them, they have gone much further than we. For instance, in the "woman's rights" movement (to use a term which avoids details) the concessions and privileges which have been obtained by our sex in England are at once broader and more solid than those which have been gained in this country. The more rational and enlightened mode of setting to work of the English could not be better exemplified, to my mind, than by the one fact that, while we have covered the face of the country with rival institutions for female education which the whole civilized world could hardly supply with first-rate instruction, they have placed their experiment of Girton under the wing of their great foster-mother of learning, where the daughters really share the advantages of the sons.

Neither was I ignorant that the absence in England of our public-school system, whatever may be thought of its results, and of institutions similar to Vassar, Cornell, etc., was one reason why their female candidates for university certificates so greatly outnumber ours; there are other reasons which I might have given if I had been writing on both sides of the question, but they do not alter my opinion that our paucity is discreditable. Granting that Harvard is surpassed by Vassar in mathematics, Cornell in Greek, Michigan in chemistry, are women to go to Vassar, Cornell, Michigan, all three, to get an education? At Vassar, according to my latest advices, a year ago they could get no Greek at all, and very little geometry. But I supposed that the superiority of Harvard to all other schools in the country, even upon the whole to Yale, was admitted. In speaking of its long record I naturally meant the record of its fame, not of its age. If this superiority be not admitted, I refer those who dispute it to the sources whence I drew my own information, which are open to everybody, viz.—the circulars of the different universities and colleges, with the courses of study and lists of professors, and the catalogues of their graduates (to prevent further mistake, let me say that I allude not merely to their numbers but their standing), and to the papers of the Harvard female preliminary examinations for 1877. There is not room in ordinary magazine and newspaper articles for these tabular and statistical comparisons.

Mr. Stillé begins his "careful and candid examination of the scheme" of Harvard female examinations by saying: "The preliminary course need not detain us. At the advanced examination the candidate is permitted to choose subjects from one of five great divisions, viz.: First, languages; second, physical science; third, mathematics; fourth, history; fifth, philosophy; and, if she satisfies the examiners by her answers on *any one of these subjects*, she is entitled to a certificate." Now, it will be shown that the preliminary examination, which is dismissed as of no moment, is but little below the standard of a complete education at the University of Pennsylvania, carrying the candidate in some directions as far as the Junior class, in others as far as the Senior. It is not possible to give parallel tables of the courses, because, for instance, English at our University covers history and literature, while in the Harvard examinations for women they are separate studies—the latter necessitating a thorough and philosophical knowledge of history, ancient and modern, European and American, religious and secular, while the English required of the Junior class is only Green's 'History of the English People.' International law and social science do not form part of the female course, as they do in the Senior class of the University of Pennsylvania; but Shakspere does not appear in the curriculum of the latter, and Taine's 'English Literature,' which is the manual of the Seniors, does not enable a student to answer the questions of the Harvard examinations. To take another branch, physic, the Senior course requires no more acquaintance with the subject than the Harvard female examination papers, except where it enters the region of astronomy, which is fully compensated by the severe course of physical geography in the Harvard preliminary examinations—a study not belonging to the college course of the University of Pennsylvania. Latin, German, and French were included in the Harvard preliminary work last year. In 1878 Greek is added, and is elective with Latin or German. The Greek course consists of four books of Xenophon's 'Anabasis' and the first book of the 'Iliad,' which is more advanced than the Greek required at the University of Pennsylvania, and about equal to what is taken as an elective study in the Senior year. Latin becomes elective with French in the Junior year. Their highest course of French is far behind that of the Harvard preliminary examinations. The German of the Junior class (also elective) is on a par with it. Let us see what Latin is actually required by our University: of the Freshmen, "Selections from Livy and Horace's Satires, with Professor's Syllabus"; of the Sophomores, one of Tacitus's histories, one of Cicero's orations, a selection from Horace's odes, with syllabus of metres! After this it becomes elective. The female candidates for the Harvard preliminary examinations last June passed a thorough exercise in Latin grammar, translated from Latin into English and *vice versâ*, and were questioned on Virgil ('Æneid'), Phædrus, Justin, Cornelius Nepos, Roman history, and geography. The seven branches of the preliminary examination must be passed before the candidate can take any one of the five divisions of the advanced examinations; therefore everybody can perceive the want of candor in omitting it from a discussion of the subject. A young woman who has passed satisfactorily in history, English literature, physical geography, botany or physics (which are in future to be elective with each other), arithmetic, algebra through quadratic equations, plane geometry, and French, German, Greek, or Latin, is in all those branches, except the classics and mathematics, much beyond the point at which the student of the University of Pennsylvania begins his elective studies. The advanced examination in any of its divisions is above the level of the Senior course, required or elective.

To return to the standing of Harvard, to which Mr. Stillé frequently recurs; it certainly settles the question, at least between her claims and those of the University of Pennsylvania, that the Senior course of the latter, including the elective branches, with the sole exception of German, must be completed to take the student over the ground covered by the Freshman year of the former, which in addition includes chemistry, a study not forming part of the academic course of our University. Philosophy and English are Senior studies of the latter not taken by the Harvard Fresh-

man, as they belong to his later courses; but the inexorable fact remains that in the classics, modern languages, and mathematics the Harvard student enters the Sophomore class at the point the graduate of the University of Pennsylvania takes his diploma—"the test of culture" of this institution. Those who doubt can verify for themselves by consulting the catalogues of the two colleges. The reputation of Harvard, however undeserved or contested, is to be gauged by comparing the number of her undergraduates last year with those of some sister universities: Harvard, 813; Yale, 582; Princeton, 451; University of Pennsylvania, 131.

Just a year before the publication of my article in the *Penn Monthly* for December, an appeal was made to our University, through the provost, to confer certificates on women by the same plan as that of Harvard, which was refused. Those interested in promoting female education then applied to Harvard to extend her examinations to Philadelphia, which was granted. There are now classes in history, chemistry, and physics open to women at the University of Pennsylvania. This is a wise and generous step which we hope will meet with recognition on the part of our women. But it is absurd to claim that even all three branches constitute a course approaching that of the Harvard *preliminary* examinations, not to speak of the advanced ones. There are, moreover, serious obstacles to the usefulness of this measure; the distance of our University from the main city of Philadelphia and from its most important suburbs is a difficulty in the attendance even of male students; and many persons, especially the parents of girls, object to a system of co-education. Mr. Stillé's statement that chemistry, physics, and botany cannot be studied accurately and thoroughly at home will be denied by many men who have distinguished themselves in those sciences; his assertion, that only "the most elementary part" of a language can be acquired by private tuition, is absolutely contradicted by the experience of the most intelligent tutors and students of languages. He claims to have proved that preparation for the examinations by private instruction is impossible; this can neither be proved nor disproved with regard to the advanced examinations until next June, as hitherto nobody has taken that course, although a number of candidates are now preparing for it in that manner; at the preliminary examinations held in New York last year one of the three who passed in the entire course without conditions had been prepared exclusively at home and alone.

In conclusion, I wish to say that it would ill become me, as a woman, to discourage the experiment of female colleges or co-education, and as a Philadelphian to decry the University of Pennsylvania, and I have not meant to do either. But as my statements were attacked, it was incumbent upon me to confirm them; having done so, should my articles be honored with further notice, there will be no rejoinder.

SARAH B. WISTER.

PHILADELPHIA, February 4, 1878.

Notes.

THE war correspondent of the *Times* in Asia Minor, Mr. C. B. Norman, gives his observations of the obscure military events in that quarter in a volume, 'Armenia and the Campaign of 1877,' to be published next month by Cassell, Petter & Galpin.——G. P. Putnam's Sons will shortly begin a series of volumes called 'Current Discussions,' made up of "essays of special note and permanent importance upon the questions of the time that have been recently contributed to leading English periodicals." The essays will be grouped by subjects, each volume being devoted to a single one. Mr. Edward C. Burlingame will be the editor.——A new work on the successful American Communities, with all the information needed by those who wish to join them, is in preparation at the Oneida Community. The author is Mr. Wm. Alfred Hinds.——A. S. Barnes & Co. announce that the first volume of the *Magazine of American History* is very scarce, but that they will endeavor to procure it for subscribers to the succeeding issues.——The March number of the *Popular Science Monthly* will contain an article by Mr. E. R. Leland, on the "Debasement of Coinages," that promises to have a timely interest.——The Philadelphia *Ledger* calls attention to the pending offer by M. Rochambeau to sell our National Library, for a moderate price, the important collection of papers left by his ancestor, our Revolutionary ally, Count Rochambeau. Like other urgent subjects for legislation by the present Congress, its consideration has been postponed by the silver controversy. We hope its ultimate acceptance is not doubtful.——Porter & Coates, Philadelphia, will soon issue Macaulay's 'History of England,' in five volumes 12mo, from new electrotype plates from the last English edition.——Mr. Frederick Martin's 'Statesman's Year-book' for 1878 comes to us with its usual punctuality from Macmillan & Co. This unrivalled manual is designed to represent the normal constitution and condition of civilized countries, and hence does not generally take account of political complications or reflect passing events. In the case of Turkey, however, the section on the military forces has been entirely rewritten, and there are several allusions to the war now in progress, as, *e.g.*, p. 467: "It was reported at the commencement of the Russian war that 'the printing of "caimés" [paper money] is going on uninterruptedly, and new presses are put to work, to issue them in larger numbers than before.' According to reliable estimates, more than twenty millions sterling of paper money had been issued by the end of November, 1877." Considerable additions have been made also to the bibliography of Turkey, but here, as in the case of the United States and of other countries, the editor does not show either as much knowledge or discrimination as would be desirable.——Dr. Paul Topinard's excellent compendium of Anthropology, which first appeared in the Reinwald series called "Bibliothèque des Sciences Contemporaines," has been translated, like the other volumes in the same series, for the benefit of English readers, and is now published in this country by J. B. Lippincott & Co. It has a good index.——The new American Art Association will open an exhibition at the Kurtz Gallery on the 3d prox.; this society represents the younger artists who have been studying under European masters. At an inaugural dinner on the 16th inst., expressions of sympathy for the new movement were elicited from Judge Noah Davis, Mr. August Belmont, the Rev. Doctors Alger and Bellows, Mr. Clark Bell, and others.

—The *Galaxy's* legacy to the *Atlantic* for March is a (now posthumous) paper by ex-Secretary Welles on "The Opposition to Lincoln in 1864." It is but a disjointed production, which only half fulfils the promise of the title. Mr. Welles once more holds up to public scorn the Radicals who opposed Mr. Lincoln's initiation of reconstruction, on the basis of the proclamation of December 8, 1863, and once more fails to perceive the logical outgrowth of the carpet-bag régime from that identical basis. If this régime was an attempt to keep society standing on its apex, Mr. Lincoln seems to us first to have placed it there by recognizing one-tenth of the Presidential voters in 1860 as the government of any given State in process of restoration. The rest of the paper is an attack on Grant's military capacity. Mr. Longfellow contributes to this number a poem called "The White Czar," and "Another Rosary of Sonnets," among which those dedicated to the Two Rivers show a noticeable reminiscence of Wordsworth. In calling midnight

> "The Watershed of Time, from which the streams
> Of Yesterday and To-morrow take their way,"

the poet disregards the scientific distinction between "watershed" and "divide," with some loss of sharpness in the image. Mr. Bishop's story of "Detmold," which opened in a fresh and taking manner, already appeared to us to drag in its third instalment; and now, in its fourth, with the conclusion only dimly and distantly foreshadowed, certainly calls for a change of title. "Verona, an architectural romance," suggests itself. We fear that Mr. Bishop's mission to deliver himself on the subject of art weighs upon him much more powerfully than the secret of Alice's and Detmold's fate, locked up as yet in his bosom alone. Like George Eliot, too, he prefers philosophizing to action, and this makes one prepared for indefinite protraction of a drama whose unity of time and place is so rigorously maintained.

—Mr. Edward King's second paper on the Russians in Bulgaria, in the March *Lippincott's*, is less interesting than the first, because it consists to a much larger extent of hearsay and less of personal observation. It is, however, worth reading; and so, among the other articles, is an eyewitness's account of the taking of Fort Fisher. The writer was on board the new *Ironsides* throughout the bombardment, overlooked from the maintop the assault by our land forces, and visited the fort after its capture. His descriptions are clear and graphic, and ought to make recruits for the peace society. In *Harper's*, Mrs. Lamb's "State and Society in Washington" conveys a good deal of curious information about the State Department building, and asserts that "our capital is the seat of the most refined and polished society in America." This will doubtless be contested by other capitals; and, with the most perfect agreement as to the definition of terms, there would still be an obvious need of wide and intimate experience to justify disputants in espousing either one side or the other. Mr. C. F. Thwing's article on "Summer Schools" is valuable for reference as to the origin and present number and variety

of these praiseworthy institutions, of recent growth. It even contains announcements for the coming summer. Both the foregoing papers are liberally illustrated, and this is the case also with Mr. Edward Abbott's "Grand Manan and 'Quoddy Bay," which, so far as our experience goes, does rather less than justice to the peculiar and fantastic charm of the waters which wash our easternmost limits. The constant mirage which robs the outlines of mainland and islands of all fixity, and dissolves them into a thousand unrecognizable and unsubstantial shapes, is barely suggested. But Mr. Abbott is wholly right in recommending summer tourists to seek these almost virgin resorts. He might, by the way, in quoting from Longfellow's "Evangeline," have mentioned the supposed identity of *Quoddy* and *Acadie*.

—The *Portfolio* (J. W. Bouton) has lately been gratifying its subscribers with numbers almost exclusively written by the editor, for whose easy, "self-reading" articles no acceptable substitute has ever been found. Some of these, anonymous or incognito, are distinguished by the frank editorial "I," whose presence in an unsigned paper can have but one intent. We observe Mr. Hamerton in error, however, with a statement (sifted by us before, we think) that no exhibited pictures of Meissonier's with woman for a subject are known. The example in the gallery of the late A. T. Stewart, representing a beggar-woman asking alms of a chasseur, may not have been exhibited within the *Portfolio's* ken; but the portrait of Mme. Henri Thénard attracted much attention in the Salon of 1861 and at the Universal Exposition. A welcome present to the January purchasers was Whistler's wholly admirable etching of "Billingsgate." In the same number, apropos of some woodcuts which are really taken from Mr. Clarence Cook's 'House Beautiful,' the writer observes that "protest must really be entered against the mode of placing ornaments upon the mantel and shelves which, as here depicted, may be considered to be held up as a model; in four out of five illustrations plates, fans, Venice glass, vases, candlesticks, are scattered in hopeless confusion and mutual enmity." The February number is as richly illustrated as that for January, with two extremely interesting etchings, several cuts, and a Durand heliograph. The Turner papers are continued in both, but these are now becoming too indicial—if there be such a word—giving us the page of the catalogue or index, when what we want is the thought which plays around the lines of the catalogue when Mr. Hamerton reads them.

—The most striking paper in the sixty-ninth number of the Proceedings of the American Antiquarian Society is that entitled "Dr. Le Plongeon in Yucatan." The sum and substance of it seems to be that Dr. Aug. Le Plongeon unearthed while at Chichen-Itza, in Yucatan, a big statue representing a reclining person, which was "admirably worked" and a "gem of art." On this "find" Dr. Le Plongeon unsuccessfully endeavored to base a title to appointment as Mexican Commissioner to the Philadelphia Exhibition of 1876. He now attaches to it a host of speculations and scientifically-worded reasonings, taking a number of things for granted which are as yet far from being so. Of course the alphabet of Landa is to him a sacred truth, but he goes still further and establishes a chronology exceeding in length that of China or Japan. He also shows himself much more proficient than any of his predecessors in the "reading" of didactic pictures. His interpretations of long files of these (done *after restoration by himself*) are achieved with the greatest ease and rapidity. How far his results are reliable we leave archæologists to decide. The Society itself discreetly remains non-committal on the question, and thus, while avoiding the disagreeable responsibility of supporting the outbursts of extravagant enthusiasm, secures the credit of introducing to the scientific world archæological discoveries important enough in themselves without the encumbrance of fantastical views.

—The members of the U. S. Entomological Commission have had a protracted meeting in Washington, preparing their first report for the printer. This commission consists of Professors C. V. Riley, of St. Louis, Mo.; A. S. Packard, jr., of Salem, Mass., and Cyrus Thomas, of Carbondale, Ill., and was created primarily to investigate and report on the Rocky Mountain locust or grasshopper, with a view of counteracting its injuries and preventing its disastrous invasions. A review of their field labors during the past season and a synopsis of the report have been submitted to the Secretary of the Interior, and show that the work has been thorough and satisfactory. The report will contain between four and five hundred pages, and will be amply illustrated with plates, maps, and wood-cuts. The principal chapters are devoted to the practical phase of the subject, and it is clearly shown how to manage successfully the young insects as they hatch out in the more fertile country beyond the Mississippi, while the way is pointed out to prevent the invasions of the mature insects into the same country. The commission appeared before the Appropriation Committee of the House and asked for an appropriation of $25,000 to complete the investigation, admitting frankly that there were yet some important questions which, for want of sufficient time and funds, it had been impossible fully to settle. With the sum asked for they pledge themselves to complete the special investigation, so as to obviate in future the necessity of appointing a similar commission, and, in addition, to study and report on the cotton-worm of the South, with a view of saving the loss it inflicts. As might have been expected from the standing of the commissioners, their labors have been conscientious and fruitful beyond the most sanguine expectations, and when we consider the vast importance of the grasshopper and cotton-worm problem the appropriation asked for seems reasonable.

—All scholars who have investigated the vocalism of the earliest literary period of the French language recognize the importance of the assonances or vocal rhymes of the poems of this period and employ them in their linguistic researches. The most extensive assonant poem of this period, the "Chanson de Roland," as it is preserved in the Oxford MS., exhibits the greatest faults in its assonances. This is quite natural, as it is only an Anglo-Norman copy of the original poem written in the eleventh century in continental France. Mr. Adolf Rambeau, in a dissertation for his doctor's degree ('Ueber die als echt nachweisbaren Assonanzen des Oxforder Textes der Chanson de Roland,' Marburg, 1877), has compared the Oxford text with all the other numerous MSS. and redactions of the "Chanson de Roland," and has shown that they all, directly or indirectly, rest upon one common original, which must be, for the most part, the work of the poet himself. He gives a sure principle by which the genuine assonance may be known. These reveal the state of vocalism in the eleventh century, and prove that the medley of contradictory dialectic forms which appear in the MSS. is due to the ignorance of the copyists. The comparison of the genuine assonances of the "Chanson de Roland" with the "Cantilène de Ste. Eulalie" and the poems of St. Leger and St. Alexis proves that the vocalism of these poems does not present any dialectical difference from that of the "Chanson de Roland," but only shows a different state of development as regards the time, while the vocalism of the poem in the Oxford text is the same as that of other Anglo-Norman poems of the same date, as, *e.g.*, those of Philip de Thaun. The importance of the principles elucidated in the dissertation for the correct reconstruction of the original text is very great, and so the dissertation (which is only the introduction to a larger work soon to be published) has a literary as well as a philological value.

—The last numbers of the *Romania* and *Zeitschrift für romanische Philologie* complete the sixth year of the former and the first of the latter, and afford an opportunity to compare these friendly rivals. The present number of the *Romania* contains a miscellaneous contribution from P. Meyer: "Mélanges de poésie française." Among the four poems mentioned is a fragment of one on the first Crusade recently discovered in the binding of a book bought in London. A fac-simile shows that the writing is French of the thirteenth century, and reveals the nationality of the hitherto unknown author. A. Morel-Fatio notices a MS. of the fourteenth century containing a fragment of the original Old-Catalan version of Raymond Lully's celebrated "Roman de Blaquerna," and E. Cosquin continues his "Contes populaires lorrains." These stories have reached the number of thirty-one and are doubly valuable to students of folk-lore from the extensive notes of the learned editor, who shows himself a worthy follower of Liebrecht and Köhler. The remainder of the number is made up of philological miscellanies and book reviews. In the *Zeitschrift für romanische Philologie* A. Stimming concludes his study of the syntax of Commines, and remarks that so far as phonetics and inflexion are concerned Commines is substantially modern; but in his syntax he follows the Old-French usage. U. A. Canello furnishes an article on the Italian tonic vocalism, in which he only treats of the long accented E, reserving the remainder of his study for another occasion. A. Weber communicates two inedited versions of the Theophilus legend. The first is a Latin poem (in accented iambic trimeter) of the fourteenth century from the Paris National Library, the second is an Old-French metrical version from the Egerton MS. 612 of the British Museum. Both are of interest for this wide-spread legend of the forerunner of Dr. Faust. In the department of *Miscellen* H. Varnhagen notices the MS. acquisitions of the British Museum, from 1865–1877; in the field of Old-Romance literature. The number of MSS. mentioned is fourteen for Old-French and thirteen for Old-Italian, among the latter a prose

version of the Seven Wise Masters differing somewhat from those already known. There are, besides, the usual number of text-criticisms and etymological studies. The bibliography which formed so important a feature of the *Jahrbuch für romanische Literatur* is to be issued separately, owing to the lack of space in the *Zeitschrift*. We must not omit mention of an important feature of this number, and one which deserves to be imitated in all similar journals, we mean the three indexes of the volume —one of subjects, one of passages cited, and one of words. The latter facilitates reference to the important department of etymologies. Both journals deserve the highest praise; the *Zeitschrift* is a worthy successor of the *Jahrbuch*, and the *Romania* is worthy of a country that has produced a Sainte-Pelaye and a Raynouard.

GENERAL LEE AND HIS ARMY.*

THIS book is a disappointment. To say so is to say the worst that can fairly be said of it, but it is unfortunately true. General Lee is one of the prominent characters of American history. The story of his life and the question of the place which he should occupy on the steps of fame are matters of interest to all Americans, on whichever side they may have ranged themselves in our civil war. The South regards him as the greatest commander in our war, and Colonel Taylor calls him the first man of his day and generation. Colonel Chesney says that his campaigns "placed the name of Lee in the very foremost rank of the world's great commanders." We at the North, knowing some of us more about the nature of the struggle than any Englishman can, and viewing the question naturally from a different point from our brethren at the South, hesitate to admit so much. We remember his failure to attack after our repulse at Fredericksburg; we doubt the wisdom of his action at Chancellorsville, glorious to him and disgraceful to Hooker as was the result of that bold enterprise; and we cannot forget how he wrecked his army at Gettysburg. But, all deductions made, enough remains to leave us proud of him as an American soldier, and, but for the doubts which linger as to his responsibility for the treatment of our prisoners, we incline to be equally proud of him as a man. We would gladly know more of him, as a soldier and as a man, and Colonel Taylor's book raised expectation to a high point. He had a right to call his book 'Four Years with General Lee,' for it was his "peculiar privilege to occupy the position of a confidential staff-officer with General Lee during the entire period of the War for Southern Independence." He led us to expect a book that should be at the same time most valuable and most interesting. If it be true, as a clever Frenchman has said, that "interest is the lowest of literary pleasures," an exception may surely be made in favor of biographies, and especially of the biographies of very conspicuous persons. We expect such books to be interesting, and when they fail to be so we are disappointed, and we think we have a right to be so. It is hard to believe that a confidential staff-officer of General Lee should have put together two hundred large and closely-printed pages, covering the whole period of the war, and yet have told us so little of General Lee. If the author has erred, as we think he has, it has been not from carelessness or want of industry, but, as it seems to us, from an error of judgment, or a want of perception of the true use to make of the material which he must have possessed. There are scraps of information which we believe to be quite new and which are full of interest, but there are only enough of them to make us long for more. Painstaking, candid, and straightforward as Colonel Taylor appears to have been, he has left unsaid much which he ought to have said. In the latter half of the book he introduces extracts from his diary, beginning in October, 1863, and these we read with delighted interest, and only wish that he had begun to do so earlier and had done so more.

In so far as the book is "a summary of the more important events touching the career of General Robert E. Lee," it does not add materially to our previous stock of knowledge, and does not seem to show that Colonel Taylor's experiences had developed in him a very sound military judgment. He thinks that if Stuart had not prematurely, before the infantry was up, opened fire from a few guns posted on high ground on our forces assembled near Harrison's Landing, at the end of the Seven Days, and so called our attention to the importance of the position, General Lee would have "made sure of this naturally strong line, fortified it well, maintained it against assault, and dictated to General McClellan terms of surrender." General McClellan was sluggish in posting his army on its arrival at Harrison's Landing, and there was a good deal of confusion on that day of dismal rain and mud; but not even Stuart's guns arrived that day, and the next day the weather was perfect and the army was in very fair order, and to those who remember the "lay of the land" about the Evelinton hills, the heights of which Colonel Taylor speaks, and how much easier it was for us to seize and hold them than for Lee; who remember how powerful our army was and how elated by the result of Malvern Hill, fought two days before, and, above all, who bear in mind what was the condition of Lee's army on the morning after Malvern Hill ("the whole army," General Trimble says, in his official report, "in the utmost disorder, thousands of straggling men asking every passer-by for their regiments—presenting a scene of the most woful and disheartening confusion"), the suggestion that Lee, twenty-four hours after, could have taken such action as would have enabled him to dictate terms of surrender to McClellan, who had reached his supplies and had the guns afloat to help him, is one that can only provoke a smile. The idea is seen to be the more preposterous when we read Colonel Taylor's estimate, on p. 56, that Lee, with sixty-two thousand men, was pursuing McClellan, with eighty-five or ninety thousand.

We are surprised, too, to find Colonel Taylor declaring, at this late day, that "considerable delay was occasioned in the pursuit from the fact that the ground was unknown to the Confederate commanders." Lee's army was full of Virginians; the operations of the Seven Days were conducted, as it were, within sight of Richmond. One of the great places of Virginia, the Selden place, if we remember rightly, was within the ground occupied by McClellan in his encampment on the James, and, finally, there was with Lee's army a company of the Fifteenth Virginia Regiment, called the Henrico Light Guards, made up presumably altogether and certainly in part of men who lived near Malvern Hill and knew the country intimately. Under these circumstances, if the Confederate commanders were ignorant of the ground, it was their fault and not their misfortune.

It does not raise one's respect for a military writer to find him ready to endorse, so far as citation endorses, an absurdly exaggerated statement. He quotes from A. P. Hill's report of his repulse of a Union force sent across the Potomac to harass the Confederate rear-guard after the battle of the Antietam: "By their own account, they lost three thousand men killed and drowned from one brigade alone." Who gave that account? What Union brigade ever went into action three thousand strong? Was every man in a force of three thousand men ever destroyed in a day?

Colonel Taylor seems to think that Pickett's magnificent charge at Gettysburg actually carried the position, and that the Confederates failed to win a complete victory only because Pickett was not properly supported. Such an illusion might have been pardonable a dozen years ago, but time and the full information it has brought should have taught him better. He speaks of "entering the works of the enemy," of "leaping the breastworks," of "gathering the fruits of a victory so nobly won," and of "resisting all efforts of the enemy to dislodge them." This is certainly visionary so far as it relates to what was done, and almost certainly visionary so far as it relates to what might have been done if Lee had ordered and his men had obeyed otherwise than as they did. It is as nearly as possible true that we had no "works" and no "breastworks" at Gettysburg on the part of the line which Pickett attempted to carry. Space does not suffice here for a full description of the exceedingly slight turning of earth which some of our men had accomplished, loosening the earth with bayonets, and throwing it up with a broken canteen. As little foundation is there for the pretence that a victory was won. In our opinion Pickett's advance was one of the most magnificent feats of arms recorded in history, but it failed. No "organized body" entered our works. There were no works there to enter, and only a very few gallant men succeeded in piercing the line and getting in among the guns which were placed behind an opening in the fence or wall which ran along the front of our position. We believe it to be reasonably certain, too, that if, as Colonel Taylor suggests, "the veteran divisions of Hood and McLaws had been moved forward, as was planned, in support of those of Pickett and Pettigrew," the result he pictures would not have followed: "Not only would the latter division, in all probability, have gained the enemy's works, as did that of Pickett, but these two would have been enabled, with the aid of Hood and McLaws, to resist all efforts of the enemy to dislodge them." But this is not the place for fighting the battle of Gettysburg over again, and we must pass to a brief consideration of what is really the most important part of Colonel Taylor's book—to wit: his

* 'Four Years with General Lee: Being a Summary of the More Important Events touching the Career of General Robert E. Lee, in the War between the States; together with an Authoritative Statement of the Strength of the Army which he Commanded in the Field. By Walter H. Taylor, of his Staff, and late Adjutant-General of the Army of Northern Virginia.' New York: D. Appleton & Co. 1877.

"authoritative statement" of the strength of the army which Lee commanded in the field.

We believe Colonel Taylor to be a thoroughly honest man, and that he has not only meant to tell the truth, but that he has taken great pains to ascertain the truth, and that he believes he has succeeded. We believe that he is mistaken. We believe that he is, quite unconsciously to himself, too ardent a partisan to deal successfully with his difficult subject, and we believe that what we have written about his book gives color, at least, to this belief. There is a great deal of minute detail as to numbers given by him, and his results have an air of authenticity, and yet we are confident that he has made many and grave mistakes. To criticise this portion of his book as it must be criticised to do it full justice would be a work of great labor, and one for which we have no special fitness. We never served in the Adjutant-General's department, and never had to do personally with any larger return of men than a brigade morning report; but when we are told that the Confederates at the Antietam "had from first to last less than fourteen thousand men" on their left flank, we simply say we do not believe it. There is a mistake somewhere. The corps of Hooker, Mansfield, and Sumner attacked this force, the ground was reasonably open, the engagement was short, and yet these three corps lost (including the few lost by Hooker in his movements of the preceding evening) nearly nine thousand men in killed and wounded, not counting the missing. These men did not run away. They gained a little ground from the enemy. They were not raw troops. They had learned to shoot as well as stand up and be shot at. However it may seem to others, the statement that this force, numbering some forty thousand men, not storming entrenchments nor much exposed to artillery fire, not routed and pursued, but upon the whole gaining ground from the enemy, had some nine thousand of its number killed and wounded by an opposing force of fourteen thousand, seems to us simply incredible.

Another reason for dissatisfaction with Colonel Taylor's statement of numbers is that he frequently takes them from published reports of general officers, and that he seems to have preserved no memoranda of the morning reports of Lee's army, which he probably received nearly every day. How far the "informal return" of the strength of the Southern army near Richmond May 31, 1862, or the "field and monthly reports of the Department of Northern Virginia," which he found in the archive-office of the War Department at Washington, take the place of morning reports, we are not competent to judge.

This question of the comparative strength of the Army of the Potomac and of the Army of Northern Virginia in their various engagements is one of great interest, and it is not answered yet. The man who answers it must be not only a diligent student and a careful and candid man, but he must have much knowledge that can only be gained in service. We incline to the opinion that when the truth comes to be fully known, it will appear that the Confederates far exceeded the Federals in the percentage of the number reported present which they habitually took into action. What with our sick in quarters and in regimental and field hospitals, and our lavish details for extra duty, our orderlies and company cooks, our wagoners and hospital nurses, and our large gangs about the quartermaster's and commissary's depots, our number reported present was apt to be far in excess of the numbers which went into action. Few colonels ever saw a line formed for dress-parade which corresponded to their morning report. The Army of Northern Virginia fought wonderfully, whether it was the excellence of the leaders, or of the men, or of both; and few know it so well as the members of the Army of the Potomac. We did require largely superior numbers to beat them, and we know it; but we are not ready to admit that fourteen of them were a match for forty of us. On the contrary, we think we have proved, over and over again, that when we were even tolerably managed we could meet them on very even terms. It has been well said that the general result of the fighting between these two armies was that the assailant was repulsed. Their merit was so equal that the advantage of position could not be overcome by the enthusiasm of attack. At Fair Oaks, their whole army, so far as they chose to use it, attacked four divisions of ours, with no advantage of position on our side, and we beat them off with the aid of a fifth small division at the finish. At Gaines's Mill, McClellan allowed Porter to be overwhelmed by largely superior forces of the enemy, while the bulk of his army listened to the firing from behind the fortified lines which he had kept them building for a month, to make no use of them when the day came for using them. At Malvern Hill, a small part of our army handled very roughly as many men as they saw fit to send against us. At Nelson's Farm, according to the best information attainable, a superior force of Confederates failed to drive an inferior force of Federals from a position that had no strength of its own. At Fredericksburg, we attacked them just as they wished to have us, and they repulsed us easily. Chancellorsville was a great victory of Lee over Hooker, and not of his army over ours. At Gettysburg they attacked in several places for three days, and were obliged to draw off at the last. After Gettysburg the warfare became one of constant attack and defence of positions, and they had practically always the interior line. Antietam was a drawn battle, except that for an invader not to succeed is to fail.

Our remarks upon this book have extended to very considerable length, for the reason that its subject is most interesting, and its author a man of character and one whose position entitles his work to respectful attention. We believe that he has not exhausted the subject which furnishes the most important part of his book, but that he has done much to aid the future enquirer.

FREEMAN'S ARCHITECTURAL SKETCHES.*

To no subject can Schiller's well-known distich be more truly applied than to Architecture:

"Einem ist sie die hohe, die himmlische Göttin, dem Andern
Eine tüchtige Kuh, die ihn mit Butter versorgt"

But Mr. Freeman holds her in a middle place. To him she is the handmaid of history, and one of the most trustworthy. He, indeed, began his historical labors with a 'History of Architecture,' which his present volume leads us to believe he has done wisely in not republishing since he became famous. The little book of Sketches, coming from so eminent a hand, might be expected to show a competent knowledge of the subject to which it is mainly devoted. But we do not always find what we have a right to expect, and Mr. Freeman's Sketches, so far as they are architectural, might tempt one to believe that he had perpetrated an elaborate and somewhat pedantic hoax, and that he desired to ridicule the musings of a learned though desultory mind on a professional subject of which it had but a comparatively superficial knowledge. The wandering of the attention from the theme under consideration, the rarity of original thought upon the monuments discussed, and, when it is put forth, the exaggerated importance attributed to minor points, finally the author's drawings—all appear a characteristic parody of the dilettante; perhaps, indeed, somewhat caricatured by the so-called "illustrations."

The rambling remarks suggested by the historic associations of the cities visited are serious enough, however; we are newly astonished at Mr. Freeman's enormous capacity for facts, and at his confident insight into the significance of political events and transmutations. He truly says: "The man who tries to fix the dates of buildings without knowing what the dates mean—that is, without knowing what the state of things was when the buildings were set up—can never reach to an accurate understanding of his own special walk." To speak of the historical elements of the book is not our present object; that but few exceptions can be taken to Mr. Freeman's accuracy when on his own ground all will understand who are familiar with his previous writings, but there is a tendency to repetition and to exaggeration which betrays the haste with which these essays were originally written, and the want of adequate remodelling before their present republication. It is evident that Mr. Freeman has given considerable attention to architecture, considerable study to the great stone book in which some nations have written their only chronicles now remaining to the historian, but it cannot be said that his reflections thereon are to be accepted without reserve. He supposes himself to have made one discovery to which he frequently calls attention; it is the ground-tone of the book, and must be admitted to differ from any opinion of the history of architectural development hitherto proposed or received. "The age of Diocletian," he maintains, "the age which reared the court of Spalato, though its bricks may be wider apart than bricks were in the golden age of Nero, is seen to be the age of the greatest architectural development the world ever saw." That is to say, the years A.D. 305–310, a period one would least expect to find chosen for such an honor, a date midway between the building of the Pantheon and of the St. Sophia, the longest and dreariest blank in the history of architecture. He has coined a new name for the Roman manner before its decadence, viz.: "pre-Spalatine," and he asserts that, "next to the introduction of the arch itself, the greatest invention in the history of architecture was the improvement by which the architect of Diocletian's palace at Spalato ventured to make an arch spring at once from the capitals of a pair of columns." (By "pair of

* 'Historical and Architectural Sketches, chiefly Italian.' By Edward A. Freeman, D.C.L., LL.D. etc.' With twenty-two illustrations from drawings by the Author. London and New York: Macmillan & Co. 12mo, pp. vii.–315.

columns" Mr. Freeman does not mean coupled columns, as the term usually implies; his exact purport must often be read between the lines.) This invention, if such it is to be called, was certainly no sudden or isolated venture. It is adopted in many structures of that period, and instances of its previous appearance are known. Arches had sprung directly from the capitals of antæ and pilasters since the time of their first introduction, and the substitution of pillar for pilaster lies near at hand. Nor was it, indeed, an immediate advance. Diocletian's architect himself does not seem to have considered it a betterment, for in this upper arcade he replaced the representative entablature, probably not imagining that the omission of it below would be pronounced the greatest improvement the world ever saw. The fact is, arch and column are not well agreed; an archivolt upon Ionic or Corinthian capitals is a weakly-curved architrave. An arch demands of columns functions for which they are not adapted, they being by their nature prepared to resist vertical pressure only. The delicate abacus cannot ideally withstand a side thrust; the interlocation of the stilt, as an impost, mediates, and, far from being cast off in post-Spalatine architecture, continually appears in the best examples where these dissonant features are combined. It is only when the imposed mass is very light, as at Spalato, that the arch can securely spring from the classical abacus. Yet, however distorted by our writer, an element of truth remains. It is true that in the beginning of the fourth century the lintel, the horizontal line of the Greeks, began to lose somewhat of its evil influence over the Roman arch. The entablature was shuffled off, rather by time than by the ability of Diocletian's architect, and the weary groping after the proper support for the arch began.

Mr. Freeman rightly insists upon the continuity of architecture as parallel to the continuity of history inculcated by his former writings, but often chooses examples unfitted for his purpose, and overrates features which he considers proofs. He terms the Carlovingian minster of Aix-la-Chapelle "a direct copy of the greatest building of Ravenna," and says that "for more than one building in Aachen Ravenna actually supplied the materials." These are misleading statements, which were better modified. The further exemplification of the polygonal choir of the minster, as showing the development of the basilican apse, is without point; the peculiar form was due to its erection on foundations intended for another purpose. The praise bestowed on the proportions of Milan cathedral will surprise alike the architect and the man of taste. The cathedral of Trient is well known as one of the most markedly transitional churches of its style; the arrangement is entirely German, the execution and details for the greater part Northern; yet it is here considered as unmixed Italian Romanesque, and on this view hinges one of the historian's essays.

A further examination into such points would lead too far. The thoroughness of Mr. Freeman's appreciation of his subject may be questioned from the text, yet it is by the illustrations (photographic reproductions of his pen-sketches) that the imperfect comprehension of architectural forms is most clearly seen. It would seem that no one with even rudimentary knowledge could publish such misrepresentations. They are one and all beneath criticism.

Mr. Freeman's literary style, never graceful, is here at its worst. He speaks repeatedly of columns or capitals as "used up again," refers to a cycle as "played out," etc. Many sentences are well-nigh pointless, while the repetition of words is carried to such an excess as to become ludicrous. The reader's attention is distracted by such consecutive passages as these: "Looking to the *building* distinctly as a work of architecture, the Veronese amphitheatre, like all other *buildings* of the same class, brings out in its full perfection the massive grandeur of the *true Roman style of building*. It is the arch, the *true Roman feature*, which gives the *building* its character. The Greek *features* in the more enriched *Roman buildings* act as a mask." And so on down the page. Or again: "Ravenna is a city in which we find ourselves among the *memorials of an age* which has left but few *memorials* elsewhere. The sea which once gave Ravenna its greatness has fallen back, and left the imperial city like a wreck in the wilderness. In like sort the *memory of an age*, strange if not glorious, full of great changes if not of strange deeds, has passed away from other spots without leaving any visible *memorial*; at Ravenna the *memorials of that age* are well-nigh all that is left," etc. A fondness for the ancient or foreign names of cities, in preference to the terms in present English usage, is made very noticeable; thus, we read Ariminum, Faesole, Cumae, and so on, while German towns are called Trier, Aachen, Köln, with an affectation that ill accords with the repeated misspelling of Innsbruck, and the use of the noun Dom with a small letter.

Mr. Freeman is a great historian, his writings may be said to have created an epoch in English history; in one of them, a former volume of essays, he expresses his contempt for "loose and inaccurate writers, who theorize about facts they imperfectly know" or understand. Our criticism is not incompatible with profound respect for Mr. Freeman's services in his chosen province, but he should recognize its limits. As far as this aggressive little volume concerns itself with architecture it is unreliable, almost illiterate, and its illustrations are an affront to the reader and to art.

On English Adjectives in -able, with special reference to *Reliable*. By Fitzedward Hall, C.E., M.A., Hon. D.C.L. Oxon., etc., etc. (London: Trübner & Co. 1877.)—We despair of giving any concise account of the contents of this work. The author himself did not foresee them, and in fact supposed that he was writing a chapter of a paper on '*Reliable, Dilation*, and their Respective Congeners,' when presently he found that he had a book on his hands. Moreover, he was taking up the cudgels on behalf of a word for which he professes no particular affection, and which, as he tells us on p. 172, he has used but once "in the course of some eight thousand printed pages, mostly quite unknown and altogether likely to remain so." And on this single occasion, to show that the use of it was not a lapse, he stepped aside to discuss, "at some length, the disputed legitimacy of the expression." Digressions of this sort are still in order, now that *reliable* has become the subject not of a foot-note but of a book. "On no small number of interesting topics here discussed," says the preface, "one will fruitlessly explore, in quest of information, any and all of our grammars and dictionaries, including both the latest and the most copious." This is pre-eminently the merit of Dr. Hall's philological writings, and it has some very remarkable illustrations in the volume before us—so many, in fact, that his apologetic *sed hoc extra callem* on p. 67 almost excites a smile.

For example, who would expect to find, and who will not prize highly when it is thrown in, a discussion of the derivation of the word *recover* filling nearly twenty pages of fine print, and running off into an excursus about the use of *recover* in such phrases as "to recover our surprise." Similarly, and more appropriately, *rely* is discussed in three solid pages. The etymology of *topsy-turvy* calls for nine, and very intricate it is, being subject to amendment even in the appendix. Incidentally, the former use of the word *party* for *person*, which has now become vulgar, is illustrated by five pages of select passages, including some which now "look scarcely reverent," as "He that is here meant by 'the horne of salvation' is Jesus Christ. . . . If he, then, be the *party* whom all the prophets pointed at, as the alone restorer of mankinde," etc. Most welcome and most valuable are the rules for spelling with *-able* or *-ible*, and curious are the long lists of disused adjectives in *-able* that good writers have hazarded in times past. Among the well-established "neuter rhematic adjectives" (*i.e.*, adjectives having a verb for the base) with this ending, the mention of *agreeable* reminds Dr. Hall that the familiar meaning of "consenting," "willing," is by no means an innovation. "Sir John Paston wrote, in 1465: 'I kannot in no wyse fynde hyr *a greable* that ye scholde have her dowter [daughter].'" On p. 28 an old controversy is touched on by the citing of still earlier examples of the use of *is being* and *was being* (1769 and 1779); while Henry More (1653) furnishes an instance of the present passive participle ("acting and being acted upon") which naturally led up to the constructions just exemplified. Finally, let us notice the side-remark on the irregularity of the Latin *meridionalis*. "Was it suggested by *septentrionalis*, on a false analogy?"

But it is time that we should ourselves have something to say about *reliable*. Dr. Hall approaches it by selecting a type of the class "who talk and write as if they thought that a knowledge of philology comes by inspiration, and has inspired themselves in particular," and his victim is no other than Mr. Fitzjames Stephen, who had had the hardihood to denounce as nicknames the words *necessist* and *phenomenist*. It is not long before Mr. Edward A. Freeman's scalp is made to dangle from the same girdle, for having declared *reliable* an "American corruption"; and the average Briton's soon forms a third trophy, without which Dr. Hall cannot comfortably settle down to his task. A popular London journal is credited with the assertion that no scholar and no gentleman would ever think of enduring so unnecessary, monstrous, and plebeian an expression. "And here," breaks in, or breaks out, Dr. Hall (p. 40)—

"And here, not unseasonably, I would make a remark on the spell which, it seems, may be cast on almost any Briton by the term *gentleman*. Whoever it may be that takes upon himself to pronounce that this thing, or that, or the other is 'unbecoming a gentleman,' an Englishman who, on hearing such a judgment passed, is not immediately subdued into ac-

quiescence, may be accounted a man of unusual boldness and independence. Whatever is condemned by this potent formula, no matter who the condemner may be, the effect upon it is, very commonly, regarded as much the same with that which, in ancient times, was, in some parts of the globe, supposed to be supernaturally wrought on a person who had been cursed. The character of the curser was nothing; but the curse was everything, and, by its own intrinsic efficacy, entailed, it was thought, inevitable fulfilment."

The earliest occurrence of *reliable* in our literature that Dr. Hall has discovered is in a "speech by William Pitt as manipulated by Coleridge," that appeared in the *Morning Post* of February 18, 1800. That Pitt himself used the word is not confirmed by the contemporary reports. Coleridge used it frequently afterwards, and introduced also *reliability* and *unreliableness*. In the first instance he coupled *reliable* with "pledge," thus indicating what Dr. Hall considers its proper employment: to qualify things, as *trustworthy* qualifies persons. The two words are not strictly synonymous, and *reliable*, if not indispensable, is very convenient and has been adopted by the best circles. There is a sufficient number of adjectives in *-able* whose formation is strictly analogous to that of *reliable*, and which yet pass current unopposed; there are still other cases, like the word *laughable*, that offer some doubt, since the base appears to be the noun rather than the verb, though the objector may fairly be challenged to prove this. Any Shaksperian commentator who interprets Hamlet's "*questionable* shape" by "easy and willing to be conversed with," assumes as the base "the rhematic phrase *question with*," and furnishes an exact match for *reliable*. Dr. Hall sums up by saying that *reliable* expresses what cannot be expressed by any other one word, conveys an idea of constant recurrence, and can only be avoided by the exact by a periphrasis; it is far from being dissonant, and has been recognized as acceptable by the popular instinct. "That it fails to comport with an analogy of other than narrow scope, is the single point where, philologically considered, it is weak." Regarding it as a prisoner at the bar arraigned for wilful murder, our learned judge directs an acquittal on the ground of justifiable homicide; and the popular verdict is that "though, as all impartial observers admit, it was very irregular for X to slay Y, still it is felt to be for the public good that the troublesome creature [periphrasis] is no longer in the way"—a verdict not unlike what we may suppose posterity's to be on the Russo-Turkish war.

This small but pregnant book deserves the admiration not only of those who have been annoyed by purists and disgusted by philological charlatans, but by all who desire an accurate knowledge of the development of their mother-tongue.

Field Paths and Green Lanes; Being Country Walks chiefly in Surrey and Sussex. By Louis J. Jennings. Illustrated with sketches by J. W. Whymper. (New York: D. Appleton & Co. 1878.)—The mere title of this book will win the love of Americans, for whom the descriptions of English lanes are apt to be the best part of English novels. Pedestrian travels, too, are always good reading; these alone can give the real details of a landscape, and it is only the pedestrian in these days who has time to chat with anybody. Mr. Jennings, moreover, gives us some really charming sketches of places that can never be too often described, such as Penshurst and the Deepdene; and he also gives some racy conversations with rustics, in which he himself sustains the unusual part of a travelled Conservative and a half-Americanized Tory. He is frank and honest, too, and does not shrink from showing when his way-side friends have parried his thrusts promptly. Thus, one of them says longingly, of a son who has emigrated: "He's a doin' well—they say you can have your own cottage out there. *If you pay for it?* Ah, but here you can't have it, whether you pay for it or not" (p. 165). This is the precise point—the hopeless pre-occupation of every foot of land—which so often depresses the heart of an American amid the loveliest scenery of England. Mr. Jennings's stereotyped answer, "Why not?" though it may exculpate the individual landholder, does not evade the evil.

There is not, however, much political philosophy in the book, but the author's residence in the United States supplies him with some other materials, quotations from Emerson and Thoreau, backwoods jokes, and a habit of looking for the English origin of alleged Americanisms. He finds in Sussex "mad" used for "angry"; "fall" for "autumn"; "reckon" for "think"; and "gives out" for "fails." All these are usually cited as Americanisms; and it is, indeed, rather a source of regret that the pretty word "fall" is not indigenous. On the other hand, Mr. Jennings himself uses what is often mentioned as an undeniable Americanism, the word "opened up" (p. 289). In general, he is stanchly English, even in vindicating the charms of his native climate; but he heaps contempt on English fishing-boats, saying of those about Hastings:

"No improvement can have been made for two hundred years. To see one of these big, hulking, unwieldy craft, and then think of the American fishing-boat, with its graceful lines and its white sails, easily managed and capable of great speed, excites one's astonishment afresh at the obstinacy with which our countrymen cling to whatever they may have been in the habit of using, no matter at what loss or inconvenience" (p. 22).

Nothing in the book has more flavor than the few glimpses of the local reputation, or want of reputation, of Mr. Tennyson at his summer retreat of Blackdown. Even at the Isle of Wight, only a few years ago, an American traveller found that the intelligent young fellow who drove a fly from Newport to Farringford had never heard the poet's name; and it is not strange that Mr. Jennings was answered at Haslemere: "Tennyson? Tennyson? I never heerd of that name." However, when it came to a choice of a coachman, the English tourist was more fortunate, for his driver told him, when in view of the laureate's house:

"The old gentleman doesn't like to see strangers about his place, but he won't say anything to you. In fact, he seldom speaks to anybody, but goes walking about with his head down. Writes books, I believe—not that I've read 'em. Something about poetry, an't they, sir?" (p. 130).

Let us not, however, indulge in premature exultations. The innocent stranger in New York still has his attention called, in public places, to that eminent New York alderman who pointed out to an English nobleman the bust of Alexander von Humboldt, in Central Park, with the remark that he did not see what Dr. Helmbold had done to deserve that position, being nothing at best but an apothecary.

The Bride of the Rhine: Two Hundred Miles in a Mosel Row-boat. By George E. Waring, jr. Reprinted (with additions) from *Scribner's Monthly*. (Boston: J. R. Osgood & Co.)—Colonel Waring is, on the whole, the best of that band of travellers who report themselves in *Scribner's Monthly*. His 'Farmer's Vacation' won just praise and popularity, though it dealt with regions comparatively familiar. It might also be charged with the defect of being too literary for farmers and too agricultural for all others. But we have here a trip undertaken for pure enjoyment—it is not even called a vacation, though it is one; whereas the other trip, though a vacation nominally, yet brought out a good deal of hard work. "The Bride of the Rhine," as the German poet Otto terms the river Mosel, is the subject of a book quite as attractive as its predecessor.

A summer holiday, indeed, was this boating on the beautiful river—"the blue Moselle" of songs, the "Mosella" of the Latin poet Ausonius. The stream is simply an unspoiled Rhine, with heights as picturesque, vineyards as continuous, ruins as picturesque, and villages far more unchanged and mediæval. Brick and timber architecture, quaintly carved, is to be seen on every side, and those picturesque fronts at which the American visitor stares so eagerly in the half-modernized Chester are the ordinary style of village houses on the Mosel banks. These delights culminate in the wonderful Schloss Eltz, a building without its peer in the world, having remained for eight centuries in the uninterrupted possession of the same family, and preserving unchanged their accumulated relics—portraits, arms, furniture, and traditions. It stands on a hill, in the centre of a wooded valley; it is accessible only by a high and narrow drawbridge, and had the drawbridge fallen to give passage to a cuirassed robber-knight and his retainers, going out for plunder, our travellers would scarcely have been astonished. A capital engraving of this unique castle forms the frontispiece to the book, and a multiplicity of other woodcuts enables us to justify for ourselves the enthusiastic descriptions of the author. In the rapid disappearance of old-time beauty from the more travelled routes of Europe a debt of gratitude is due to one who thus pursues the picturesque into its delightful by-ways.

Geschichte des Vatikanischen Koncils. Von J. Friedrich. Vol. I. (Bonn, 1877; New York: B. Westermann & Co.)—In this volume, the beginning of a more extended work, Dr. Friedrich presents the *Vorgeschichte*—the preliminary events that led to the Great Council and paved the way for the dogma of Infallibility. In the table of contents, which covers thirty-two pages, a summary view is presented of the subjects treated in the work. It is a history of Ultramontanism, which starts with the period antecedent to the French Revolution; describes the movement of Lamennais, De Maistre, and their successors in France; traces to its origin the corresponding movement in Germany and Switzerland, and reviews the administration of Pius IX. prior to the assembling of the Coun-

cil. It embodies much interesting information. Friedrich was in attendance at the Vatican Council as a theologian attached to Cardinal Hohenlohe. He is a pupil, colleague, and friend of Döllinger. His hostility to "Vaticanism" is too strong to render it possible for him to give an entirely impartial delineation of its rise and characteristics. In truth, he founds his claim to be considered impartial on his low opinion of his adversaries, whom he pronounces incapable of improvement from any polemical treatment of their doctrines and conduct. Apart from the ardor of feeling, Dr. Friedrich is an instructive guide.

Two Years behind the Plough; or, The Experience of a Pennsylvania Farm-boy. Giving a true and faithful account of life on a Bucks County farm as he found it during an apprenticeship of two years. (Philadelphia: Claxton, Remsen & Haffelfinger. 1878. 12mo, pp. 224.)—The "two years behind the plough" were passed by a Philadelphia boy who had a longing for a country life, upon the farm of a Bucks County Quaker. The merit of the story is in being a well-told and apparently truthful picture of a particular phase of American life a generation ago; and this gives real value to a story which is itself commonplace, with little incident and no effort at elaborately-drawn characters. Nevertheless, the characters are vividly presented, and are good types of their class—the hard-working, close-fisted small farmer and his wife, who had little thought of anything but money-making, who were saving to the degree of meanness, with a temper which was at times harsh and unjust, and nevertheless with human virtues; so that the boy who had spent under their roof two years of hard work and shabby fare had a kindly enough feeling towards them to come back when he was a man, and visit his old master as a welcome and not unwilling guest.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Authors.—Titles.	*Publishers—Prices*
Davis (Mrs. R. H.), A Law unto Herself.....(J. B. Lippincott & Co.)	$1 00
Encyclopædia Britannica, Vol. VII.....(Little, Brown & Co.)	
Ford (Mrs. S. R.), Ernest Quest: a Tale.....(Sheldon & Co.)	1 50
Gardner (E. C.), Home Interiors.....(J. R. Osgood & Co.)	
Grove (G.), Dictionary of Music and Musicians, Part I., swd.....(Macmillan & Co.)	1 25
Hammond (Dr. W. A.), Cerebral Hyperæmia.....(G. P. Putnam's Sons)	1 00
Harper's *Weekly*, Vol. XXI.....(Harper & Bros.)	
" *Bazar*, Vol. X..... " "	
Monthly, Vols. LIV., LV..... " "	
Huxley (Prof. T. H.), Manual of the Anatomy of Invertebrated Animals..... (D. Appleton & Co.)	
Keary (C. F.), The Dawn of History.....(Mozley & Smith)	
Keats (J.), Letters to Fanny Brawne.....(Scribner, Armstrong & Co.)	1 50
Kingsley (Rev. C.), All-Saints' Day, and Other Sermons..... " "	1 50
Koolman (J. ten D.), Wörterbuch der Ostfriesischen Sprache, Part III., swd..... (B. Westermann & Co.)	
Lecky (W. E. H.), History of England in the Eighteenth Century, 2 vols..... (D. Appleton & Co.)	
Leighton (R. F.), Harvard Examination Papers..... (Ginn & Heath)	
Lindsey (C.) Rome in Canada.....(Lovell Brothers)	
Littré (E.), Supplement au Dictionnaire de la Langue française, Parts 9, 10, 11, 12, swd.. (F. W. Christern)	
Martin (F.), Statesman's Year-book for 1878.....(Macmillan & Co.)	3 50
Newcomb (Prof. S.), Popular Astronomy.....(Harper & Bros.)	4 00
Nicholson (Prof. H. A.), Manual of the Earth..... (D. Appleton & Co.)	
Scott (Sir W.), Poetical Works, 5 vols.....(Houghton, Osgood & Co.)	8 75
Spofford (A. R.), An American Almanac for 1878.....(American News Co.)	
Stevens (H.), The Bibles in the Caxton Exhibition, 1877.(Scribner, Welford & Armstrong)	
Story (W. W.), A Roman Lawyer in Jerusalem: Poetry, swd.....(A. K. Loring)	25
Stretton (Hesba), Through a Needle's Eye.....(Dodd, Mead & Co.)	1 50
Taylor (R. W.), Short Greek Syntax.....(Rivingtons)	
Taylor (W. H.), Four Years with General Lee.....(D. Appleton & Co.)	
Toner (Dr. J. M.), On the Geological Age of the World.....(Washington)	
Topinard (Dr. P.), Anthropology.....(J. B. Lippincott & Co.)	2 00
Trollope (T. A.), Life of Pius IX.....(Craig & Taylor)	1 50
Walker (Prof. F. A.), International Exhibition, 1876, Reports and Awards, swd..... (J. B. Lippincott & Co.)	
The World's Fair, 1876.....(A. S. Barnes & Co.)	75
Watson (G.), The Universe of Language.....(Authors' Pub. Co.)	1 50
Webber (C. H.), and Nevins (W. S.), Old Naumkeag..... (Lee & Shepard)	

The Hon. Miss Ferrard,

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Mr. Snider's work on Shakespeare has NOT received the unqualified approval of the press East and West, as previously stated. The New York papers have demolished it: the "World" in two columns, the "Times" in three columns, and other papers in less space. The Boston press commend it highly. The "Advertiser," "Globe," "Courier," "Transcript," "Times," and others pronounce it able, scholarly, interesting, valuable, showing deep study, having (what was not considered possible in a work on Shakespeare) great "originality." The Western press generally coincide in the views held in Boston. Individual critics are, as far as heard from, less divided in opinion. Dr. Wm. T. Harris gives general expression to their opinions in saying: "It is one of the most daring labors ever undertaken by a critic; and, if Mr. Snider had signally failed in every point named, still he would deserve admiration for his courage." Dr. Harris goes on to show that Mr. Snider has been signally successful. "When doctors disagree who shall decide?" The 'System of Shakespeare's Dramas' has been most extravagantly praised, and has been pronounced the most unmitigated bosh. What next?

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, FEBRUARY 28, 1878.

The Week.

THE observance of Washington's birthday so shortened the Congressional week that there is little to report from the Capitol. On Wednesday, the 20th of February, the Senate passed a bill to regulate the compensation of postmasters, and, on the motion of Mr. Hamlin, amended it into a bill to increase the perquisites of Congressmen, by restoring to them the franking privilege. This was not quite a unanimous proceeding, but mustered 32 votes in its favor out of a total of 53. On Thursday, in the House, Mr. Stephens, of Georgia, called up the Senate Silver Bill, and moved to concur in its amendments. The original bill, it will be remembered, was passed in the House without debate, under the previous question—a thing which, under the circumstances, could not have happened in any other parliamentary body in the civilized world. The amended measure was allowed to be debated in five-minute speeches precisely one hour, and a motion to lay it on the table (made by Mr. Hewitt, of New York) received only 72 votes, while 204 were recorded against it. The amendments were then concurred in seriatim, and both houses adjourned with a good conscience to meditate on the virtues of the Father of his Country.

The Cincinnati *Commercial*, now that the mischief for which it has been laboring for the past six months has been accomplished, is trying to get its dupes to become suddenly sensible and carry the silver craze no further. It warns them—which will greatly surprise them—that they "must not expect an instantaneous revival of business and abounding prosperity"; but why not? If even half what the *Commercial* has been telling them since October last be true, they have every right to expect them, and to commit acts of violence on somebody if they do not get them. "The country," it coolly adds, "needs repose on all sorts of dollar questions, and presently the people will be very impatient with the agitators." They will; but they will not make the distinction between agitators which the *Commercial* seems to look for. We have shown elsewhere that all the arguments the *Commercial* and its confederates have been using in favor of the dollar of 412½ grains will justify the people, if they do not get "abounding prosperity" through it, to try a cheaper dollar still, and to agitate for it till they get it; and more than this, if cheap silver does not bring prosperity, to try cheaper money of some other kind, and, in fact, resort to any legal means to despoil persons who possess accumulated property, and lend or invest it in production. The *Commercial* has done its best to rouse the most hateful and anti-social passions in aid of gross economic delusions, and everybody who has watched its performances and those of its Chicago colleague must regret that the Ohio law which makes the liquor-dealer responsible for the damage done by the drunkard who has bought of him, cannot in some manner be made applicable to their case.

The first meeting of the "National" Party was held at Toledo last Friday, and a platform was adopted on which the new organization proposes to run a ticket in 1880. Twenty-eight States are said to have been represented, and these mostly by gentlemen with whose names the public at large is not familiar; the Convention was presided over by Judge Francis W. Hughes, of Pennsylvania, a magistrate unknown to us. The platform adopted declares that the wide-spread financial distress and suffering and crime now prevailing throughout the country are due to "legislation in the interest of and dictated by money-lenders, bankers, and bondholders"; points out that the existing party organizations afford no relief; and announces the formation of the new "National" party to secure "financial reform and industrial emancipation." It goes on to insist that "all bank issues designed to circulate as money should be suppressed," and all money be issued by the Government; that there should be no privileged class of creditors, but that all obligations of every kind, public or private, should be discharged in lawful money; that the coinage of silver ought to be placed on the same footing with gold; that Congress should provide an amount of money "adequate to the full employment of labor, the equitable distribution of its products, and the requirements of business," fixing a minimum *per capita* of the population and "otherwise regulating its value by wise and equitable provisions of law, so that the rate of interest will secure to labor its just reward." Further, it demands the taxation of Government bonds and money, and the imposition of a "graduated income-tax"; declares that Government should encourage industry of all kinds, "to the end that labor may be fully and profitably employed"; that no monopolies should be legalized; that useless offices should be abolished, rigid economy practised, and breach of public trust severely punished; that the "hours of daily toil" should be reduced, and bureaus of labor and industrial statistics established by the State and National Governments; that the prison-contract labor system ought to be abolished, and the "importation of servile labor" from China be suppressed. The new party not only demands all this, but predicts, if its demands are agreed to, a blissful future for the country, in which the producer will enjoy the products of his labor and skill, and the "vast army of idlers who, under the existing system grow rich upon the earnings of others," will disappear from the face of the earth.

It is curious to observe the connection between the declarations of this new party and those of the Indiana Democrats, who also had their convention last week. The latter want the National Bank notes retired and Treasury notes issued instead; are in favor of making greenbacks a full legal tender for everything, except where the original contract made them expressly payable in coin; insist that money ought to be issued in such amounts "as the sound business interests of the country may from time to time require"; that Treasury notes ought to be taxed by the States; that further legislation for the funding of the national debt abroad is unwise; that what ought to be done is "to distribute said debt among our people at home"; that six per cent. should be the legal rate of interest; that the silver dollar of 412½ grains (unlimited) ought to be restored, the Resumption Act repealed, rigid economy instituted and fees and salaries reduced, the bankrupt law repealed; that wages of employees should be a first lien upon the earnings of corporations; that laws should be passed for the ventilation of coal-mines; and that the jurisdiction of the Circuit Courts of the United States ought to be limited and restricted. The Indiana Democrats are also opposed to "class legislation," and they protest against subsidies of any sort. They refer to the Presidential "fraud" in scathing terms, denounce the President for giving offices to members of returning boards, and condemn "the acts of Federal officers in attempting to interfere with the rights and powers of the State Courts in the prosecution of these criminals." They further call for pensions for the soldiers of the Mexican war. There is not, it will be seen, a great deal of difference between the aspirations of the Indiana Democrats and those of the "National" Party. On financial questions they are nearly at one, and even on pensions a compromise could probably be effected. The Indiana Convention was noticeable for a financial speech by Mr. Hendricks, who presided over the deliberations. He came out as bold as a lion for a "non-interest-bearing currency, based upon the credit of the country."

Anderson's application for a new trial in New Orleans has been refused, and he has been sentenced to two years' imprisonment with

hard labor, but the execution is suspended to allow of an appeal. Wells has filed an extraordinary affidavit in support of an application for the removal of his case to the United States Court, averring that his prosecution is the result of a "conspiracy," and that the "conspiracy" will prevent his having a fair trial in the State courts. He wrote an extraordinary and amusing letter to the New York *Times* a week ago, bringing divers charges against everybody connected with the prosecution in Anderson's case. The judge, he says, was in a state of "beastly intoxication" during the whole trial, and the State counsel had committed murder and other offences. The excitement about the pair has quieted down in Washington, where it is becoming clearer that what the country demands is that they shall somehow retire into obscurity. Governor Nicholls would do well to pardon them if they would agree to go out of office. Nothing appears in the reports to warrant the assertion that Anderson's trial was not fair and decorous.

They have got a "Committee on Frauds" at work in the South Carolina Assembly, which is unearthing the rascalities of the Ring in that State at a rapid rate. The Committee profess to be much astonished at the facts discovered, though why there should be any surprise at such matters we are at a loss to understand. The frauds seem to have been perpetrated, as usual, under the guise of "supplies." In the language of Senator C. P. Leslie, it was felt that "the State had no right to be a State unless she could pay and take care of her statesmen." The student of history will be interested to know that one form of fraud was the issue of "gratification" certificates. At one session there was spent for "sundries," "supplies," and "incidental expenses" $350,000, of which $125,000 went for "refreshments." The frauds, strange to say, do not appear to have been confined, as we had been led to expect, to any particular party, but were practised by "Cavalier," "Puritan," and the simple-minded African indiscriminately. It appears from the testimony that the bar-room of the State-House was, during the carpet-bag régime, the only bureau of government that was kept in efficient operation, the "hours" being from 8 A.M. till 2 or 4 next morning, and besides this large quantities of wines, liquors, and cigars were sent to members of the Legislature at their homes. The prices paid for these supplies were in most cases high and the amount consumed large, the evidence tending to show that every member of the House and Senate drank a gallon per day, with a few extra bottles of ale and wine thrown in, and smoked not less than one dozen cigars in the same time. There is at present only $17,715 worth of furniture in the State-House, although within four years over $200,000 was expended on that account; a state of affairs accounted for by the fact that most of the furniture was put into the "private residences of the statesmen who ordered it, instead of into the State-House." The "furniture" account, too, was a somewhat elastic one, as under it we find bills for mules, horses, buggies, carriage-hire, and horse-feed. Musical instruments seem to have been purchased by the State also, of one Jones, the melodeon being the favorite instrument, and carpeting, to an enormous extent, put down; the practice being to furnish all the committee-rooms at every session with carpets which were, toward spring, carried home by the committee-men, unless, as sometimes happened, they were "shipped to Massachusetts." Some members displayed a great deal of opposition to the bills, and insisted on receiving a percentage if they were to be paid by the State, and all disputes over the amounts of the bills seem to have been settled amicably in this way. There is a vast amount of evidence of this sort, all of the most unquestionable character; and the committee wind up their report with a roll of rascals, thirty or forty in all, who habitually shared in the spoils. Among them are Lieutenant-Governors Ransier and Gleaves; Robert Smalls, the member of Congress; Whittemore, the cadet-broker, and F. J. Moses. In the language of Governor Chamberlain, the spoils seem to have "footed up pretty well."

Governor Robinson's message to the Senate, on Thursday, accompanied by specific charges of official misconduct on the part of Mr. John F. Smyth, Superintendent of the Insurance Department, is creating considerable anxiety among the holders of life-insurance policies, and justly so, as to a certain extent the whole system of State supervision is placed on trial in the person of Mr. Smyth. The charges are made by the Comptroller and relate to violations by the Superintendent of the Act of 1873 in regard to payments for the examination of insurance companies, which provides that all bills for such examinations shall first be certified by the Superintendent, audited by the Comptroller, and paid out of the Treasury, the sums so paid to be subsequently collected from the companies examined. The Comptroller charges that bills amounting to more than $55,000 have been paid by the companies without his audit. His statement is very complete, giving the items paid, from information furnished by the companies themselves at his request. The Act of 1873 was drafted by Superintendent Chapman, whose integrity has never been questioned, and was designed to prevent just what has now occurred. Almost the first thing Mr. Smyth did, after entering upon the duties of his office a year ago, was to procure the passage of an act repealing the very wholesome provisions of 1873. Governor Robinson refused to sign the bill, and the Legislature having adjourned when his veto was given, the Superintendent, fortified by the advice of one of the legal firms which had a large share of the substantial results of their advice, proceeded with his expensive examinations, collected his bills from the companies (modifying them in some instances where they demurred), and ignored and defied the Comptroller. The bills which the Superintendent has seen fit to present to the Comptroller for his audit amount to less than $10,000, and cover the personal expenses of the Superintendent, his deputy, and a considerable number of clerks and examiners during about one year, while examining perhaps twenty companies. As far as appears, no complaint is made of the sums so paid. The objectionable bills, which the Comptroller had no opportunity of passing upon, and which in the case of one company exceeded $32,000, cover the cost of appraising the value of real estate owned by or mortgaged to the companies and of examining the titles to the same.

The simple theory of State supervision is sound enough in itself, but its practice has been so encumbered with abuses that we may well question whether the public would not be better protected without than with it. The system has now been in operation in this State for eighteen years. For more than half that period it was administered with undoubted integrity, with dogmatic precision, and with mediocre ability. Then followed the Miller régime, which began by summarily closing two rotten concerns, and would probably have closed others had not the arguments to the contrary been too substantial to resist. Then came the full term of Superintendent Chapman, against whom nothing more serious than indolence could be charged; then an interval of a year in which Deputy McCall was the active though not "acting" superintendent, and he has the reputation of being thoroughly competent to fulfil the duties of his office. Now for a year we have had Mr. Smyth, who, taken from the postmastership at Albany for political reasons best known to Mr. Conkling, without a pretence of his special fitness for the duties of his office, will have an opportunity of explaining to the Senate why it was necessary to put into the hands of his political associates the examinations of so many titles which had already been passed, it must be presumed, by competent lawyers, and why the bills of expenses so incurred were not referred to the Comptroller for his audit. We trust that he can satisfactorily answer the charges brought against him; if he cannot, policy-holders will feel that State supervision, instead of being the protecting ægis that it purports to be, is in reality a screen behind which all sorts of rascalities are carried on to their detriment, and they will exclaim in desperation, *Quis custodiet ipsos custodes?*

The feature of the week in financial circles was the return of United States bonds from Europe. The amount sent back since the amended Bland Bill received the approval of both branches of Congress is estimated by bankers in the business to be not less than $10,000,000, and they calculate that bonds will continue to come at the rate of $6,000,000 per week, even if there is no panic among foreign holders. Prices in London fell during the week 1 to 1¼ per cent., while here the fall was only ¼ to ⅜. As there was no advance in gold, it resulted that during the whole week there was a handsome profit in importing bonds. The New York buying was partly for speculative account and partly for real holders, who reason that whatever taints the paper of the Government affects alike that which bears interest and that which does not, and therefore it is better to hold that which pays interest than that which does not, and that in due time the return of bonds will advance the price of gold, and then the currency prices of bonds will advance. This reasoning may be specious, but it governs many. At the close of the week there was a fractional recovery in prices on the strength of reports that the Senate would probably sustain the President's veto. As the result of bond importations, bills on London were in such demand through the week that drawers advanced their rates from 4.82¼ to 4.83¼ for 60 days, and from 4.84¼ to 4.85¼ for demand drafts. The working of the markets has demonstrated that they were at first manipulated so as to convey the impression that the Bland Bill was harmless to the public credit. The London *Times* also says that the advance in silver to 55¼*d.* per ounce was caused by speculative buying, first shown in bidding up India Council bills at the last weekly sale. The New York silver market did not keep pace with London, and at the close of the week the gold value of a 412½-grain silver dollar would have been only $0.9242. The gold value of a "paper dollar" at the close of the week was $0.9815.

Every time the Russian demands on Turkey are revealed they seem to have risen in amount, and the wonder is not that the Turks should hesitate to sign the treaty, as they are said to do, but that they think it worth while to sign a treaty at all. The latest version of the terms makes the new principality of Bulgaria include not only the region north of the Balkans, but nearly the whole of Rumelia east of the Maritza, leaving only a narrow strip of territory on the Black Sea directly subject to the Sultan. It is to pay a tribute equal to the present "net revenue" of the province—an ambiguous phrase, because it may either mean all that the Porte now carries away from the province, which is a good round sum, or all that it ought to carry away after having provided a good administration, which would be a very small sum. This latter is probably the interpretation which Russia will adopt. The prince is to be chosen by an assembly of notables and approved by the Porte and the Powers, which of course means by the Powers. Montenegro is to get Podgoritza and Antivari, and doubtless also Niksitch. How much increase of territory Servia is to get does not already appear, but the plan of giving the Dobrudja to Rumania in exchange for the piece of Bessarabia which was taken from Russia in the last war, is adhered to. Turkey is to surrender Batum, Kars, Bayazid, Ardahan, and the adjoining territory, by way of war indemnity, and also to give $200,000,000 in bonds, the interest of which is to be secured by the Bulgarian and Egyptian tributes, and the Anatolian revenue. Besides all this, it would appear that the greater part of the ironclad fleet is to be surrendered.

These tremendous exactions, as a fair result of overwhelming defeat, the Conference will probably have to agree to with but small, if any, modification; but the proposal to occupy Bulgaria with 50,000 Russians for two years, and to supervise the reforms by a Russian commission, is hardly likely to be carried out without energetic opposition from Austria, which will probably also have her say about the annexations to Servia and Montenegro. The Ministry has decided to follow the example of England and ask for a credit of 60,000,000 florins to support the Government at the Conference. But no matter what either England or Austria may say or do, the treaty necessarily amounts to the extinction of the Turkish Power in Europe. The Sultan may cling to Constantinople a few years longer, but the difficulties and humiliation of staying there will increase steadily and make his early retirement to Brusa a necessary condition of his retention of the Asiatic portion of the empire with any prestige. The peace party in England seems to be for the moment overthrown, and the Ministry might have its fill of war, if it had any army, or if the Russians had none. The military operations are thus far confined to keeping Gallipoli under strict guard with the fleet, and singing patriotic songs in the London music-halls. The want of an army bids fair to make the demonstrations against Russia fruitless, even if the Ministry were a united and determined body and had any policy.

Much of the war fever in England, which in some of its manifestations has an unpleasant resemblance to the war fever in Paris before the German invasion, is due to the ignorance or forgetfulness of the British public of the change which has occurred in the conditions of warfare since England last took part in Continental conflicts. In the days of Wellington, the 30,000 or 40,000 men which is all that she can send into the field, and which can be conveniently carried out in a fleet, were a very respectable force, which could maintain itself finely wherever it was put ashore. Wellington had only about this number of British troops at Talavera and Waterloo, and England had an immense advantage in being able to supply her forces by sea when her enemies had to drag everything by horse over ordinary roads. Moreover, all wars were then necessarily long, owing to the inability of the belligerents to bring their resources rapidly into play, and the tediousness of the operations gave the staying power of wealth a great importance. This is now all changed. Continental powers put every man they have in the field in the first campaign, or forward them by train in masses, to which the traditional British "expeditionary force" of 30,000 is but a single mouthful. The fact is, therefore, that to give any real formidableness to the breaking of Gladstone's windows and the singing of "We Don't Want to Fight" the conscription is absolutely necessary, and there is no doubt that this would make the patriots of the London music-halls as unwarlike as Quakers, and utterly indifferent to the sufferings of "the weaker party."

As was generally expected, the new Pope is an Italian, Cardinal Pecci, the late Pope's Chamberlain, having been elected on the second ballot. He is a moderate, and will not make things any worse; whether he will improve the relations of the Papacy with the Italian Government remains to be seen. Cardinal Simeoni issued a protest, which Pio Nono is said to have dictated, against the assumption of the title of King of Italy by Humbert, recalling all the previous protests of a similar character, and reciting the various ills and griefs which have overtaken the Pope in consequence of the loss of his estates. The new Pope, who styles himself Leo XIII., was, it was at first reported, ready to give up the prison theory, and leave the Vatican to drive and get change of air; but this, again, has within a few days been denied. If he does so, it will be a virtual admission that he is not impeded in the discharge of his spiritual functions, and thus a virtual abandonment of the doctrine that the temporal power is necessary to the Pope's freedom. The foreign cardinals, and particularly the Englishmen, were, if report speaks truly, desirous of having the Conclave held on foreign soil—at Malta, for instance—by way of proving that there could not be a free election at Rome; but the Italians, who compose 26 out of the 62 existing members of the college, were too knowing to agree to anything of the kind. The Cardinal Archbishop of Malines has written to the *Catholic Review* of this city a solemn denial of the story that Belgian priests had been exhibiting to the faithful wisps of the straw on which Pius IX. slept in his dungeon.

THE FIRST STEP TOWARDS REPUDIATION.

WE publish this week an interesting letter explaining the process by which the repudiation of town and county debts is planned and carried out in certain portions of the West. What is most worthy of attention in it is, that it is generally begun by an effort to work on the fears of the creditor in such a manner that he shall himself consent to surrender a portion of his claim in advance of any action on the part of the debtor. This consent is procured by representing the people of the indebted community as an excitable animal, without moral responsibility or any regard for the future, and as bent on any course, however violent, that may be necessary to get rid of its obligations. The person who opens the negotiations with the creditor is sometimes the ordinary demagogue, in or out of Congress; and sometimes, as in the case described by our correspondent, a lawyer acts as a sort of go-between, and professes to have the interest of the creditor truly at heart, and to share his view of the morality of the affair—that is, he acknowledges in the fullest manner the legal and moral right of the creditor to get the full amount promised him, and he does not deny the ability of the debtor to pay it. Having thus secured his position as a moralist, he suddenly assumes the rôle of a practical man dealing with a wicked world as he finds it, and not as he would wish to have it. Nobody can deplore more than he does the determination of the people of Bosh-posh County not to pay their debts; he sees no excuse for it; he knows they got the money, and are enjoying the benefit of it, but the question is not how they *ought* to feel about it, but how they *do* feel. He has the best reasons for knowing that they are at this moment on this subject indifferent to all moral and religious considerations, and have decided, with deplorable unanimity and determination, to pay at most only a part of what they owe. By delicate handling and prompt expression of readiness to accept it this part may now be secured; any hesitation about accepting it, however, will probably increase their irritation, and cause them to refuse payment of anything whatever. All through the exposition the agent deals with the popular feeling as a law of nature which may seem cruel or unjust or capricious, but which there is no gainsaying or resisting. He argues with the creditor, in short, as one would argue with the owner of a pleasant home at the foot of a volcanic mountain, in order to induce him to pack up his goods and get out of the way of an eruption.

The creditor who allows himself to be frightened into an offer to compromise, however, too frequently finds that not only are "the people" no readier to pay part than to pay the whole, but the very offer to receive part suggests the idea of paying nothing at all. If the compromise were the result of an examination of the debtor's means, and what he proposed to pay and the creditor agreed to accept was what proved to be all he was likely to be able to pay when acting with honest intentions, of course there would be no danger in making it. The moral and legal guarantees which supported the original loan would support the "readjustment." But when it is simply the result of the debtor's unwillingness to inconvenience himself or to part with money in his possession, and has no sort of reference to his pecuniary resources, the reasons for paying only part will support in the fullest manner total repudiation. "The people," in fact, on learning that the creditors will submit to a reduction of ten or twenty or forty per cent., very naturally say: "Our argument, simple as it was, has evidently made a deep impression on these men. He acknowledges that he has no rights in the matter, except such as we please to allow him, and that if we allow him sixty per cent. of his original claim it will not be an unfair settlement. In other words, he refers the whole matter to our discretion. This being the case, and the question having become one of comparative inconvenience—whether, in short, it is better for several hundred thousand persons, mostly poor, to submit to a tax, or for a few hundreds, who are mostly well off, wholly to forego expectations which they themselves acknowledge were in great part unreasonable—we have no hesitation in deciding that the interests of this community will be best promoted by letting them lie out of their money altogether. The fact is, they ought never to have lent it; they must have foreseen that there would be difficulty about getting it back. They bought the bonds as a speculation, and they are no worse off than other speculators who went into railroads and other stock companies that have failed. They will be wiser next time."

Accordingly, when the bondholder steps up to draw his sixty per cent. of his claim, he is apt to find, as in Tennessee, that the propriety of giving him even fifty per cent. has begun to seem doubtful, and that in any case he will only receive half or two-thirds interest on what is allowed him, and he has the further mortification of finding that the arguments which induced him to surrender his coat have proved sufficient to warrant his being stripped to the skin.

This view of the irrationality and irresponsibility of the people has been as fully avowed in the silver movement as in any of the minor schemes of municipal repudiation, but with this difference: that the leaders of the silver movement never profess, like the town or county attorney, to separate themselves morally from the debtor. They never pretend to be of the same mind as the creditor as to the abstract justice of the proposed attack on him. Being politicians, they usually profess entire sympathy of all kinds with the popular reluctance to pay, and utter the usual threat of total spoliation, not as something wicked yet inevitable, but as something both justifiable and inevitable. They have the advantage, too, over the town and county repudiators, of having a bigger and more ferocious People behind them, and one far more difficult to control if once enraged. The town or county agent is never able at most to predict anything more dreadful than a total repudiation of public and private debts, while the silver demagogue goes so far as to predict bloodshed, anarchy, and indeed a practical dissolution of the social bond as the probable consequence of a refusal to let him circulate a 412½-grain dollar as a full legal tender.

What we wish to point out here is the extreme improbability that he will be content with the victory he has just won. He has secured at this writing the passage of the Silver Bill, but, be it well remembered, he has not secured it in the character of a bi-metallist, but of a repudiating debtor. That the ranks of the silver-men contain a considerable body of honest but, as we conceive, mistaken bi-metallists we do not deny, but these men have played no prominent part in the agitation. They have been carried along by it, and have now and then made efforts to divert its course, some of which have produced good results, such as the changes made in the Bland bill in the Senate. But the preponderating influence in it, the one which has given it all its life, has been the repudiating influence. The silver dollar has had little or no attraction for the bulk of the silver-men, either as a means of enlarging the coin basis of paper circulation or as providing a more extended market for a leading product of American mines, as was shown by their steady opposition in Congress to any dollar except one of 412½ grains; and their attachment to this has been due to the fact that it is worth ten per cent. less than gold; that is, if at 412½ grains it was at par with gold, it would have no attractions for them.

The arguments and rhetorical devices by which the measure has been supported in the West are almost wholly those of repudiating debtors, and have been directed, and with the usual fierceness and bitterness, against the gold-men, not as mono-metallists but as creditors or representatives of the creditor interest. Bland's threat, that if the bill were not carried Congress would next year "wipe out" the national debt, was a sort of agglomeration of the minor threats of the Western press, and would of course have been ridiculous if the movement were simply that of a particular school of financiers in favor of a particular metallic standard, because the national creditors could not be held responsible for the mono-metallists as scientific men any more than for the evolutionists. In fact it has been all along, and from the very beginning, treated by the Western press as a measure of relief for debtors against extortionate creditors. Within a few weeks one of the most conservative and sensible of the Western papers, the Indianapolis *Journal*, put the

case with a frankness that had something humorous about it, when it suggested that if Eastern men did not like the remonetization of silver, they should offer something in its place—such as a reduction of the rate of interest on loans made at the West. It then proceeded to inveigh against the rate now paid in a manner which showed clearly that both it and its constituents either did not consider, or affected not to consider, the rate of interest as in any degree dependent on the quality of the security, but simply on the creditor's greed and the debtor's necessity.

We may add that we have ourselves received numerous remonstrances from correspondents at the West, who agreed with our view of the silver question, warning us of the error of denouncing the remonetization scheme on moral grounds, and urging us to confine ourselves to showing its unprofitableness, as by far the most effective argument. We have declined to follow this advice, however, for the simple reason that we do not think the unprofitableness of cheating can ever be made entirely clear to a man bent on cheating or in a cheating state of mind, because if, as in this case, attended with no risk of legal penalty, its profitableness within that short space of time for which his calculations are always made is undeniable. The unprofitabless of cheating a creditor who has no legal remedy is unprofitableness in the long run, and about "the long run" a cheat, as a general rule, cares nothing. Moreover, for a journalist to confess either tacitly or in terms that he is addressing a political community with which moral considerations have little or no weight, is, in a certain sense, to cut the ground from under his own feet, because the whole business of discussion in civilized political communities rests on the assumption that there is behind the political machinery and political sovereignty a moral rule from which they, in great part, draw their efficacy and their authority. A community which lived wholly by its own passing inclinations would have no need of newspapers, any more than a band of brigands or a tribe of Bushmen. What we have now to bear in mind, therefore, is that the arguments—which must be distinguished carefully from their false statements and prophecies—by which the silver-men have triumphed will be just as strong, in case the present measure does not give them the relief they look for, in favor of a 400, or 350, or 300-grain dollar, as in favor of one of 412½ grains, and in favor of reducing the value of the legal-tender dollar indefinitely until the point is reached at which everybody will be able, without sacrifice or inconvenience, to procure as many dollars as will be sufficient to pay his debts. There is no magic in 412½ grains any more than in 420. The thing sought is a dollar of such weight and fineness that debtors will have no difficulty in getting hold of them, as those who have gone into this movement with the foolish fancy that they were helping the cause of a stable standard may possibly yet discover to their cost, when they learn that the "Money Power" is as potent with the present silver standard as with the old gold one.

THE CANADIAN FISHERIES AWARD.

THE Commission on the Fisheries, created by the Treaty of Washington, met at Halifax on the 15th of last June, four years after the time originally intended. The Commission was composed of its president, M. Maurice Del Fosse, then Belgian Minister at Washington, named by the Austrian Minister at London; Sir Alexander T. Galt, named by Her Britannic Majesty; and Mr. Ensign H. Kellogg, of Massachusetts, by the President of the United States, in place of Mr. John H. Clifford, of Massachusetts, the original appointee, who had died. Mr. Francis Clare Ford, of the Foreign Office, London, formerly Secretary of Legation at Washington, attended the Conference as the agent of Great Britain, and Mr. Dwight Foster, of Boston, as the agent of the United States. Great Britain was also represented by five counsel, one from each of the maritime provinces of British North America, and the United States by Mr. Richard H. Dana, jr., of Boston, and Mr. William H. Trescot, of South Carolina. Final arguments were made by Judge Foster, Mr. Dana, and Mr. Trescot on behalf of the United States, and on behalf of Great Britain by Mr. Whiteway of Newfoundland, M. Doutre of Montreal, and Mr. Thomson of New Brunswick. On the 23d of November, at the seventy-eighth session of the Conference, an award was made by two of the Commissioners, Mr. Kellogg dissenting, of five millions five hundred thousand dollars in gold to be paid by the United States.

Article I. of the Treaty of 1818, which the United States admitted to have been revived by the abrogation of the Reciprocity Treaty in 1866, gave to the inhabitants of the United States liberty to take fish of every kind on the southern coast of Newfoundland, from Cape Ray to the Ramea Islands, and on the western and northern coasts from Cape Ray to Quirpon Island, on the shores of the Magdalen Islands, and on the south shore of Labrador from Mt. Joly easterly and northerly indefinitely, with the right to dry and cure fish in any of the unsettled bays, harbors, and creeks of those parts of the coast of Newfoundland and Labrador. And the United States renounced for ever any liberty to "take, dry, or cure fish on or within three marine miles of any of the coasts, bays, creeks, or harbors of His Britannic Majesty's dominions in America not included within the above-mentioned limits." The Treaty of Washington gave the inhabitants of the United States the right to take fish of every kind, except shell-fish, on all parts of the coast of British North America; gave the same right to British subjects in the waters of the United States north of the 39th parallel of north latitude, it being expressed, however, that this did not apply to fisheries in rivers and mouths of rivers, but only to the sea-fishery; and gave reciprocity in trade between British North America and the United States in fish and fish-oil, being the produce of the fisheries of the United States or of the Dominion of Canada or of Newfoundland.

The question which the Commissioners were empowered by the treaty to decide was briefly this: What, if anything, is the money value to the inhabitants of the United States of the right gained by the Treaty of Washington of free fishing in British-American waters beyond what was enjoyed by the Treaty of 1818, for a period of twelve years certain, over and above the value to British subjects of the right of free fishing in the waters of the United States north of the 39th parallel of north latitude, and the certainty of no duty whatever being imposed on fish and fish-oil for the same period of time? The Commissioners were not authorized to consider any benefit to the inhabitants of the United States from reciprocity. The value of the privilege, on both sides, to land for the purpose of drying nets and curing fish was also to be considered; but the evidence tended to show that this is of little or no practical value now. Nor did the evidence show that the British subjects used, or are likely to use, to any considerable extent the right to fish in the waters of the United States.

When the British evidence was nearly all in, the Commission were asked to rule, and, after full argument, did rule unanimously, that it was not competent for it to award any compensation for commercial intercourse between the two countries, and that the advantages resulting from the practice of purchasing bait, ice, supplies, etc., etc., and from being allowed to tranship cargoes in British waters, could not be considered, on the ground that an award which should include these claims would be *ultra vires*. This was admitted to be a severe blow to the claim of Great Britain, and seemed practically to exclude that of Newfoundland. An effort was afterwards made to show that American fishermen caught bait inshore at Newfoundland, but it had been previously testified by British witnesses that the universal practice, aside from occasionally "jigging" a few squid, was to buy bait, and that Americans who tried to catch for themselves would probably receive rough treatment. In the light of recent events, it seems that these witnesses were not mistaken.

The headland question—*i. e.*, whether, under the Treaty of 1818, the United States had a right to fish within three miles of the shore of the large bays whose headlands were more than six miles apart, as the bays of Fundy, Miramichi, and Chaleurs, or whether they were excluded from fishing within three miles of a line connecting their headlands—which at one time seemed likely to be prominent

in the case, was only incidentally raised, and it was evident that neither side cared to have it passed on.

The evidence tended very strongly to show that cod and halibut are almost exclusively a deep-sea fish, and all of the counsel of the United States, in the closing arguments, treated them as practically out of the case. There was some evidence of inshore halibut-fishing at Cape Sable and in the Gulf of St. Lawrence, but it was very slight and contradicted by other witnesses. It was alleged that herring were caught by United States fishermen in very large quantities at Grand Manan and elsewhere; but the evidence was very general and was contradicted. It was shown by witnesses on behalf of the United States that American vessels were too expensively fitted out for it to be profitable to catch so cheap a fish as herring, and that it was much more profitable to buy them.

The real fight was over mackerel, and if the amount of the award can be justified at all, it must be on this part of the case mainly. The evidence was contradictory in the extreme as to the proportion of mackerel caught within the three-mile line, but it probably is not more than one-third, and certainly not more than one-half. There was a conflict, too, whether the Magdalen Islands, where Americans have always had the right to fish, were the best and safest grounds. It was contended strongly on the one side that a profitable voyage could not be made without the right to fish inshore, and equally strongly on the other that the best captains did their fishing at the Magdalen Islands and offshore, and that the best voyages were the result of such action. Before the treaty, when licenses to fish inshore were granted, it was shown that at fifty cents a ton most of the United States vessels took licenses, but at two dollars a ton scarcely any. On the other hand, there was evidence that they declined to take them because they thought it cheaper to run the risk of being seized. There was a very large amount of evidence of the catches and profits of single voyages, which was interpreted very differently by the different sides.

It was shown that Great Britain and the Colonies were at an immense expense in guarding the three-mile line, which is saved under the treaty. As one ground for desiring the restriction removed, it appeared that there was a very burdensome statute of Nova Scotia under which a vessel in harbor for the purpose of buying bait had been held "preparing to fish," so as to be liable to seizure.

On the counter-claim of the United States Great Britain introduced much evidence, and argued that the imposition of duties was no injury to them on the ground that the "consumer paid the duties." In reply it was shown that the United States afford almost the only market of the Provincial fishermen; that the duties previously imposed were nearly prohibitory, as the price of salt fish can only be forced up to a limited point, and that large numbers of British subjects who had been fishing in American vessels, to save the duties, had returned home and were rapidly increasing the fishing business there. Some claims were made by Great Britain which it can hardly be supposed that the Commissioners took into account, such as the claim for injury to the fishing caused by the alleged habit of Americans of throwing "gurry" or offal overboard, for the expense of maintaining the light-house and fog-horn service, and for the fact that the fishing business gives employment to a large number of men in the United States in handling the fish after their arrival. In reply to this last point, the great richness of the sea and lake fisheries of the United States was shown, and that from improved methods of preservation and transportation fresh fish were rapidly displacing salt in the market.

It is impossible to doubt, after an examination of the evidence and statistics, that the amount of the award cannot be justified, if, indeed, any should have been given. If we examine the Port Mulgrave returns, put in by the British Government, which were admitted by both sides to be not far out of the way, of the United States vessels with their cargoes which passed through the Gut of Canso in 1873 and 1874 (they refused to put them in for the two years following), we find that half a million dollars a year will much more than pay for all the mackerel caught in the Gulf of St. Lawrence by United States fishermen, inshore as well as offshore, at the price paid by dealers at Prince Edward Island. It would probably more than three times pay for all the mackerel caught by them on the grounds gained by the treaty of Washington. Cod and halibut are scarcely caught at all inshore; all the fishermen go to the banks for them. Herring and other small fish used as bait are generally bought, as both time and money would be lost in fishing for them. Even if we take the market price of the fish caught as the money value of the privilege of fishing, we find it hard to find more than the amount of the award, without any consideration of the gain from the remission of duties. But the United States returns show that remission of duties on fish and fish-oil, under the treaty, for three years averaged over $360,000 a year. Is it possible that the producer gains no benefit from this remission? Does political economy teach that in the case of an article of food which is used mainly because it is cheap, for which there is but a limited demand, and which will be deserted for other kinds of food if the price is raised beyond a limited point, the consumer must pay the whole duty?

Mr. Kellogg, in dissenting, stated that it was questionable whether it was competent for the Commission to make any but a unanimous award. The treaty provided that "any sum of money which the Commissioners should award should be paid by the United States within twelve months after the award." The similar provision in the case of the Geneva Commission in the same treaty was that an award by a majority should be binding; and it has been a matter of some discussion whether the treaty did not intend, by its different phraseology, that there should be a difference in this respect. The award is believed, by those who were present on behalf of the United States at least, to be grossly large, and the temptation is strong to try to avoid it by any technicality. But there was a long hearing on the case, as fair a trial probably as can ever be had, both sides expressed themselves fully satisfied that the full strength of their case had been brought out, and it seems unworthy of the dignity of the country to try to take advantage of a doubtful point of law. Aside from any legal view, it seems hardly probable that the framers of the treaty intended to allow the Commissioner of the United States, without giving any reason, and possibly without having any, to prevent any award being made. The President of the Commission was agreed upon by the two countries, and was undoubtedly impartial in his intentions, but wholly unused to examining and balancing evidence. If the British Commissioner, a man of great natural ability and thoroughly master of the case, was more able to get the ascendency over him and influence him by arguments than our own Commissioner, it is our fault in not being more worthily represented. The Geneva award was made by a majority and paid, and the same should be done with the Halifax award. We are now struggling against a party who are desirous of partial repudiation, and it is a fact worthy of note that the only member of Congress who has declared himself opposed to the payment of the award is also the only member from New England who advocates the silver bill. It will be a lasting disgrace to the country and a blow to the future settlement of disputes by arbitration, if the counsels of Gen. Butler prevail and the debt is not paid.

COMMUNISM AND PROTECTION AT THE CAPITAL.

WASHINGTON, February 25, 1878.

ONE of the strongest arguments advanced for the passage of the Silver Bill, although not made prominent in public debate, was that, if not passed, "the people" would insist on fresh issues of irredeemable paper; and now that it is passed and is awaiting the President's signature, we are adjured to look at the convention of bedlamites at Toledo, and to prepare ourselves for a tidal-wave of communism and greenback inflation if we do not allow "the people" to have 90-cent dollars. Mr. Bland himself, in the last day's debate, talked about cramming greenbacks down the throats of the bondholders if he could not have the Silver Bill, free coinage and all. The proper answer to the Toledo communists, and to Mr. Bland, and to the Louisville *Courier-Journal*, which has been making itself particularly foolish in this business, is that this is as good a time as we shall ever

have to "untie the winds and let them fight against the churches." Silver bills, with or without free coinage, are not going to pay mortgages or get people out of debt. The foes of communism must meet the Toledo rabble at some time. They have got to fight Mr. Bland as a crammer of greenbacks down people's throats, anyhow. They must defend the rights of property and the present system of society and government sooner or later, and defend them with whatever weapons their assailants arm themselves withal. And when the threat is made : "If you don't take silver, we will give you pewter or paper, and cram it down your throats," then is the very time to make whatever resistance is to be made to any project these gentry have in hand.

It is a singular fact that the silver extremists in the House did not understand the effect of striking out the free-coinage clause until the bill came back to them in that shape. The action of the Senate Finance Committee in this behalf was taken last November, and it was at once perceived that only in that shape could the bill ever become a law. It was perceived by business men that, under the operation of the bill as amended, two or three years must elapse before enough silver could be coined to make its presence felt in general circulation, although it might come into play somewhat earlier at the custom-houses and the subtreasury, serving to reduce the tariff and diminish the receipts of the "coupon-clippers." All this seems to have been apparent everywhere except among the framers and ardent supporters of the bill in the House. When it came back to them they were half-crazed to find one of their cubs missing. Hasty conferences were held and resolutions passed to reject the Senate amendments; to reject the whole bill and commence anew; to refer the bill and amendments to this committee or that committee or the Committee of the Whole. The fact that they were a crippled minority, and could do nothing but pass it as it came from the Senate, proves that the great mass of those who favor the use of silver do so as a matter of sentiment, and without any idea as to its practical effect and working, else they would have seen that silver is not remonetized by this bill, but that provision is made for a limited coinage of silver on the system now prevailing in France. Of course there are differences between our plan and the French plan, the most important being that France does not avail herself of her undoubted right to stab her own credit by paying her bondholders in silver. But it cannot be said that silver has been remonetized here until silver and gold are received at the mint on equal terms. Mr. Bland and Mr. Ewing and Mr. Ben Butler are justified in their complaints. They have not obtained what they set out for. They have done all the mischief they could, but it is only a moiety of what they designed.

Most of the newspapers will have it that the Senate Finance Committee are now considering the anti-resumption bill, or some anti-resumption bill, and are likely to report it favorably. There is the best authority for saying that the Committee have not touched it, and are not likely to take it up until a late day in the session. The passage of the Silver Bill makes some further action on resumption necessary unless we are to witness a national scandal on the first of January next—one law requiring the Secretary of the Treasury to resume specie payments, and another (the Silver Bill) making it impossible for him to do so. But the Committee will postpone action on this dilemma as long as possible, in order to see what the ultimate effect of the bill is upon the gold premium, and how long the Secretary's gold would probably last if he should attempt to carry out the Resumption Act.

Meanwhile the public revenues have fallen below the expenditures, although the latter cannot be considered extravagant, and Congress is too cowardly to restore the duties on tea and coffee, which were repealed some years ago at the instance of the protectionists. Mr. Fernando Wood is not a success as Chairman of Ways and Means. His tariff bill seems to have been constructed on the idea of making something which should be known in history as the Wood Tariff, in the same way that that of 1846 is known as the Walker Tariff, and that of 1861 as the Morrill Tariff. Accordingly, he has gone into the whole subject, from antimony to zebra-skins, and roused the opposition of all the protected trades in the country, while none of his changes are sufficiently in the interest of free-trade (with the single exception of ships) to cause the enemies of protection to bestir themselves for the bill. There was a notable opportunity in this Congress at this juncture to frame a short bill striking at a few of the most glaring and hideous features of the tariff, such as the duties on drugs and medicines, dye-stuffs and chemicals, and certain raw materials, which a portion, at least, of the manufacturing classes would have supported, and which would have rallied the anti-protectionists to the last man. Mr. Morrison approached nearer to this ideal in the last Congress than anybody else has done during the past fifteen years, and there was such a fitness in what he attempted to do that the Morrison Tariff was a name and a signification, although it never became a law. The time was not ripe for the Morrison Tariff then, as it is now. It is possible, but not probable, that some short bill giving the public free quinine, soda-ash, raw wool, copper, etc., may yet become a law.

A few days ago the city was plastered with handbills inviting the public to attend the "Exporters' Convention." Very few persons had ever heard of an exporters' convention, and a good many were drawn thither by curiosity to find out what it might be, supposing naturally that it was a gathering of persons engaged in the export trade desiring to promote measures for their common interest. I attended the meeting in this belief, with some misgiving, however, seeing that the convention was held in a place where no export trade ever existed. It did not take many minutes to find out that the convention did not consist of exporters, but of persons desiring to furnish facilities to other persons to export goods at the public expense. In other words, it was a gathering for the promotion of steamship subsidies, although the use of the word "subsidy" was strongly deprecated by the speakers, as tending to excite prejudice. The applause seemed to be arranged on the plan of the *claque* at a French theatre, coming in at regular intervals with the same strength everywhere. The argument chiefly relied on was the example of England. This perfidious and grasping country having built up her manufactures by protection, eventually adopted free-trade and invited the whole world to follow her example. With the same insidious and designing spirit she had built up a mercantile marine by subsidies, and now she had stopped paying subsidies (except for India), and cautioned other nations not to squander their money on a foolish ocean mail-service. Would we, Americans, allow ourselves to be deceived by such transparent humbug, when our manufacturers are perishing for want of a foreign market, and when we have more iron, and better iron, for steamships than England ever had ? It would not be wise to single out Portland, Boston, New York, Philadelphia, Baltimore, Charleston, Mobile, New Orleans, San Francisco, or any particular port as one to be specially favored in an exporting point of view. The main thing to be settled was that exporting should be gone into systematically, and that the Government should take hold of it. We have no lack of skilled mechanics and accomplished shipbuilders who would lay the keels for a mercantile marine, and fly the American flag, on the most reasonable terms.

This Exporters' Convention must have cost a great deal of money. The bellows were set at work some four months ago, for it was as long ago as that that the veteran free-trade organ of the United States, the New York *Evening Post*, gave its blessing to the project. The efforts of its promoters have been extended to all parts of the Union, and have resulted in raising a perfect roar of disapprobation in California. Hostility to the Chinese immigration has undoubtedly much to do with the opposition to steamship subsidies on that coast. Nevertheless, it has caused some people in that quarter to study the subject from the bottom upwards, and accordingly there is found in a late San Francisco letter to the Chicago *Tribune* a thorough examination of British steamship subsidies, showing that all British ocean mails, except the East India mail, which must be kept up for political as well as commercial reasons at any cost, are paid for by weight like any other freight, and cost no more than the postage received in return. There is another exception in the British service, but it is only an apparent exception—that of the West India mail, the contract for which expires next year, after which the mails are to be sent by weight. The San Francisco writer concludes that

"The whole scheme is gotten up in the interest of the ultra-prohibitionist Eastern manufacturers and shipbuilders, who, after having taxed their fellow-citizens to the utmost extent on all articles they manufacture and sell in the home market, now ask Congress to levy an extra tax on the suffering public to enable this privileged protected class to send their surplus manufactures to foreign markets, and keep up the price of their wares in the home market."

THE WAR FEVER IN PARLIAMENT.

LONDON, Saturday, February 9, 1878.

WE have come to the end of an exciting week, and people are asking, What shall we see next week ? On Monday the feeling of the country was all for peace, and we listened to one of the finest speeches which Mr. Gladstone ever made, in which he urged that the war was over and nothing remained but to arrange a comfortable peace round a council

board—a peace in which Russia was not to get too much, and Greece was to be taken up by England *vice* the Bulgarians, who were to pay smart-money because they would not fight for their emancipation. On Tuesday no warlike ideas were allowed to penetrate our councils, except the war of words which a Cabinet Minister, the Secretary of State for War, had the bad taste to wage against an inoffensive member of the Opposition. Wednesday morning dawned and we were still proclaiming good will to all mankind, and there was nothing to disturb our equanimity except a dull debate carried on by the Irish members upon some question of Irish politics. The Speaker gave a peaceful dinner-party to the members of the Administration, and Count Münster, the German Ambassador, gave a ball, and there, amid the small talk and gossip of the one and the flowers and flirtations of the other, the first drops of the thunderstorm fell. At the Speaker's dinner a red official box was brought in by a Foreign-Office messenger ; it was opened by a member of the Ministry and from it a telegram was taken which was handed round to the members of the Cabinet. Like Banquo's ghost at Macbeth's banquet this official box "displaced the mirth, broke the good meeting with most admired disorder." The telegram announced that the Russians were within the lines of Constantinople, that the Porte was seriously alarmed, and that, as telegraphic communication was suspended, this telegram had to go by Bombay and Alexandria to London. An extemporized Cabinet council was held and a demand at once sent to St. Petersburgh to know the meaning of these movements. At the ball at the German Embassy the Russian Ambassador was present, but he had at once a pleased and an embarrassed air. His vanity was struggling with his prudence ; but the former conquered, and just before leaving he could conceal his exultation no longer, and confided to a friend in an audible whisper the four words which may yet become historical—the four words "Nous sommes déjà dedans." Quiet people who were neither at the Speaker's dinner nor at Count Münster's ball went to bed as usual believing that all anxiety was over. The newspapers in the morning (except two which are supposed to be in the confidence of some of the underlings of the Ministry, who give them occasional bones to gnaw, and sometimes bits of real meat in the shape of early intelligence) made no allusion to the rumors, and the first thing that most people heard of them was the fact that the Lord Chancellor had been summoned from Court to attend a sudden Cabinet council, which was announced in the early editions of the evening papers. The scare was complete. The Stock Exchange was excited beyond all precedent of late years. Rumor was piled on rumor. An influential firm of Jew bankers—the Jews always make a good thing out of the embarrassments of Christians—had bought three millions sterling of Hungarian bonds, and made three per cent. upon the transaction. They had sold consols. Every stock, except the said Hungarians, had fallen. Russians had given way largely, and I don't know what had not happened to Turks. War meetings were extemporized. Crowds were going about the city singing "Rule Britannia" and "Hearts of Oak," and other patriotic songs. Three thousand medical students formed themselves into a procession and marched to the House of Commons, in order that they might cheer Lord Beaconsfield and the Ministry and hoot and hiss Mr. Gladstone and his followers. Westminster Hall and the lobbies of both houses of Parliament were crowded by eager spectators scanning the face of every member of Parliament who passed, and asking for the latest news.

The House of Commons was crowded, every seat occupied, and standing-room appropriated wherever it could be found. The formal business was hurried over, notices of motion given and questions asked rapidly and under emotion, and the answers given by the different members of the Government were curt and hasty. At last, about ten minutes before five, Lord Hartington, as leader of the Opposition, rose to put his question to the leader of the House. Sir Stafford Northcote, without much preface, read the telegrams of the red official box of the previous evening without comment. The House, though prepared by the gossip of the lobbies for the announcement, was for a moment dumb—a most unusual phenomenon in the present House of Commons. Then Mr. Forster rose and somewhat jerkily announced that, under the altered circumstances and the grave aspect of events, he would not press his amendment upon the Government proposal to get a vote of six millions for warlike preparations. It appeared as if we had actually declared war, and as if we might hear at any moment that the ironclad fleet were moored stem and stern against the forts of the Dardanelles, and were engaged in mortal combat. There was no doubt as to the feeling of the House. If Mr. Layard's telegrams were actually true, and the Russians had broken faith and really were marching on Constantinople and Gallipoli, the House for a good three-quarters of an hour would unanimously have supported the Government in the extremest proposal they could make. I do not know whether Count Shuvaloff was present in the House or not, but if he was he could not have failed to see the grim aspect of the case. There was some desultory talk, and it appeared as if the Government were to get their six millions straight off the reel, or sixty if they asked for it, when, at about six o'clock, another red box was handed up the Treasury bench to Sir Stafford Northcote. He opened it, read a despatch, went aside for a minute, and came back in a flutter and begged to be allowed to read an important document which had just been put into his hands. It was a letter from the Russian Ambassador, containing a telegram just received from Prince Gortchakoff, to the effect that the Russian forces had "taken" no forts, that orders had been given that they were not to advance, and that there was not a word of truth in the rumors—what rumors the telegram did not state. The scene was most dramatic. The Ministerialists were dumb ; the Radicals were radiant with delight and noisy with acclamation ; the moderate Liberals and moderate Conservatives were suspicious, silent, and uncomfortable. Then came an interesting but undignified discussion, out of which no party in the House emerged with credit. One set of speakers, including, I am sorry to say, Mr. Gladstone, seemed to dwell with something like satisfaction on what they believed to be the unveracity of our ambassador at Constantinople. Another set threw suspicion upon Count Shuvaloff and Russian diplomatists generally. "Whenever," said one moderate-minded Liberal, "whenever we begin to take some energetic and decided step to counteract some Russian movement, a telegram arrives from the Russian Embassy to say that the movement has not and will not take place." Another Liberal protested that no reliance was to be placed on Russian assurances, and that he and many who were sitting by him were prepared to vote not six but six-and-twenty millions then and there if the Government desired it. Such sentiments we might have expected to hear from the Ministerial benches, but they sounded strange from the lips of Liberals. Lord Hartington rose above all this undignified and panic-stricken action. He asked for twenty-four hours' delay, in order that the truth between the conflicting statements might be discovered. But the excited Ministerialists would listen to no delay, and the no less excited Radicals would listen to no suggestions of pushing on.

It looked like a dead-lock, but the Speaker solved the difficulty by deciding that the question whether Mr. Forster's amendment might be withdrawn should be put to the House, and that if it were withdrawn the debate might proceed on the main question. This course was followed. The tumult dwindled to a calm, and one of the dullest speakers in the House having risen to continue the debate, almost every man in the excited multitude went out of the House—to dinner. And so this scene of anarchy, tempered by telegrams, ended in bathos. On Friday it appeared from what was announced, both in the Lords and in the Commons, that Mr. Layard's telegrams of the previous day were substantially true, though couched in exaggerated language, and that Count Shuvaloff's telegram, though technically accurate inasmuch as the Russians had not "taken" any fort, presented a picture of the state of affairs which, not to put it strongly, was not quite consistent with his enigmatical announcement at Count Münster's ball, and pretty nearly justified the strong assertions regarding Russian diplomacy which were used the previous evening in the House of Commons. There was a manifest feeling of relief on all sides of both Houses of Parliament when it was understood that a strong detachment of the fleet had been ordered to Constantinople, and a universal feeling of satisfaction among all the best and most reasonable men at the determination of Lord Hartington and his immediate followers to support the Government in the crisis, reserving to themselves the full right of criticism, of which they will certainly avail themselves, upon the policy of the Government on the whole question when the immediate crisis is past.

Russia will, it is hoped, take note of this significant change of attitude in England and not press her demands to extremities. She can gain nothing beyond what she can get at present by engaging in a war with England, and if with England probably with Austria too, which must end in her exhaustion—her financial exhaustion, I mean. England does not at the present moment desire a war. She has been actuated by three distinct emotions during the last few months. The first has been a desire for peace ; the second, dislike and suspicion of Russia ; the third, pity and a certain admiration for the Turks. Three weeks ago there was a wide space between the first and second. To-day it is a very narrow one. A very small spark would fire the combustible materials in the

country which would blaze into a conflagration from one end of the island to the other. If the idea became fixed in the people's minds that they had been duped by Russia there would be a call for war which no government or peace party could withstand, and a war once commenced between this country and Russia might be the prelude to a struggle which might not be confined to Russia and England, but might extend its ravages to Asia and Africa. It might set the whole Eastern hemisphere in a blaze. Let us hope that the Gods of the different nations which might be embroiled will otherwise direct.

THE DEATH OF THE POPE.

FLORENCE, February 8, 1878.

JUST four weeks to-day I had to relate to you the circumstances of the unexpected death of the first king of Italy, and now I have to announce the long-waited-for end of the last sovereign of the Roman Church State. I am not able to give you any details, as I did a month ago, first, because I happen to be in Florence, and secondly, because I have no acquaintances in the Vatican, as I have in the Quirinal. The papers only tell us that Pio Nono had an attack of fever on Wednesday evening (the 6th), that the swelling of his legs suddenly ceased, which was considered a very bad sign by his doctor, who immediately summoned his two colleagues, living in the vast palace, and that the agony began yesterday (7th) at two o'clock, after the Pope had received both the last sacrament and the supreme unction. He expired at 5:45, in the presence of more than twenty cardinals kneeling round his bed, while the anteroom was thronged with the *famigliari* of the Vatican. The Camerlengo, Cardinal Pecci, after having confirmed the death in the traditional way—by beating three times the forehead of the deceased with a silver hammer and calling him aloud each time—crushed the pastoral ring, which is the symbol of Papal power, in the consecrated mortar, thereby assuming the temporary government of the Church. He had received from the dying Pope's hands two sealed letters—one concerning the procedure of the Conclave, the other the last will of the deceased—and immediately convoked all the cardinals present in Rome, among whom Cardinals Manning and Du Falloux, who had not left the room during the whole day, are the only foreigners.

The day of the opening of the Conclave is not yet fixed, but I suppose it will be, as usual, the tenth day—*i. e.*, the 17th inst., nine days being traditionally devoted to the funeral. In spite of all the efforts of the busy Archbishop of Westminster, it will be held at Rome and at the Vatican, where the cells are already being prepared in the *loggie* above those of Raphael, after the same fashion used till 1846 in the Quirinal, now occupied by the King of Italy. As you will most likely receive before this the announcement of the new Pope's name, I need not entertain you with my conjectures. Only I may as well let you know beforehand that, if the choice falls on Di Pietro or Morichini, it will be considered as very favorable to reconciliation with Italy and Germany; if on Pecci or De Luca or Monaco la Valletta, as not hostile; if on Simeoni, the present Secretary of State, Bilio, or Franchi, as simply meaning a continuation of Pio Nono's attitude; if on Panebianco, as exceedingly aggressive against Italy, Germany, and the present government of France. As I do not believe that any foreigner will be elected, although there are just now more of them in the Sacred College (26 out of 62) than there ever were before, I do not think it necessary to tell you beforehand the significance of the names whose bearers are considered by some as *papabili*. As, however, only three out of the present cardinals have ever taken part in a Conclave—I do not even know whether one of the three, Cardinal Schwarzenberg, arrived in time in 1846—any surprise may be expected from the inexperience of the sacred electors.

You see that I believe firmly in the election of an Italian Pope, although it requires two-thirds of the votes; and I believe it because I think it will always be easier to bring eight or ten foreigners, most of them jealous and mistrustful of each other, round to an Italian candidate than *vice versa*. And as for the Italians themselves, they are always at the bottom even more Italian than they are Catholic, just as the Italian Liberals are at the bottom more Catholic than Liberal. The one dominating passion of Italians, to whatever party or class they may belong, is patriotism, a feeling which, with all European nations, is fast replacing religion as the one remaining common and ideal motive of our century—by which I do not mean to imply that this ideal motive has always and everywhere the force of inspiring a continued sacrifice of personal interests. He who has witnessed the unanimous, spontaneous, deep emotion of Italy at the death of the King, who represented the fatherland even in the eyes of the pious, will not dispute the truth of what I state. Nothing similar is to be seen to-day. The Pio Nono of 1847 had already become a man of the past to the younger generation, and even those who once so enthusiastically hailed his reforms had grown unable to see in him the patriot he was at heart, and latterly only saw in him the dignified head of the vast institution to which they all remain more or less faithful. It may be that among the rural population the death of the Holy Father will be more deeply felt; in the cities—even in this town of Florence, which has the reputation of being the most *paolotta* (clerical) in Italy—the emotion is one of curiosity rather than of grief; nay, in Rome, where in former days the death of a pope was always a great event, the event seems to be taken very quietly by the population. No doubt the number of those interested in the great lottery of the Conclave, of those who cease to be something by the death of one pope, and of those who rise into importance by the election of a new one, has greatly diminished; and it is in the nature of mankind to feel more deeply interested in an existence on which depend many material existences than in one which represents only moral interests. I also know how very clever the Italians are in what I might call the unconscious turning to profit of their own spontaneous sensations, and I see clearly that they were quite shrewd enough to make political capital out of their own natural feelings of loyalty at the loss of King Victor Emmanuel. Finally, the death of a man of eighty-five, which has been expected, calculated, and reflected upon for years, is in itself as much in conformity with the laws of nature as the sudden death of a strong man in the prime of life, like the King, is apparently exceptional; and so it must strike the popular imagination. Still, taking into account all these considerations, the emotion caused by the death of the King was infinitely more impressive than that we are witnessing at this moment.

It is certain that a reconciliation between Italy and the Church, if it took place now, would be as fatal to Italy as it has proved to Belgium. To this extent, at least, the attitude assumed by Pio Nono has been useful to the new kingdom, and I know more than one far-sighted Italian who wishes sincerely that the new Pope might resemble his predecessor in this respect. As for the interests of the Church, things lie very differently. Pio Nono, although an honest man, of pure morals, a man of wit if not of high intellect, of knowledge of the world if not of books, was exceedingly vain, and his vanity was the evil genius which misled him from beginning to end of his vexed reign. Pio Nono would have been an excellent parson, much admired by his male and still more by his female flock; he had not the strength of mind requisite for the government of the Roman Catholic Church, nor even for that of her temporal state, as long as it existed. It was because he was secretly aware of this that he never forgave the minister of his liberal days, Count Mamiani, for having once called him *un buon pigrano*. But if this responsibility is a very limited one, that of the head of the Church is the most extensive which can be imagined. How did Pio Nono acquit himself of the task thus laid upon him?

I certainly do not intend reproaching him for having allowed the temporal power to be broken in his hands. Even if he had not, more generously than wisely and without any insight into the nature and the conditions of his government—even if he had not given the impulse to the Liberal movement of 1847 and 1848, as he did, or had he remained faithful to this initiative and joined Piedmont in the war of independence against Austria, the temporal power would have perished, and would have perished in this century. Whether we admire it or not, and I for one think it in many respects fatal to the interests of civilization and peace, the principle of nationality is the one omnipotent moral power of our time, and it is in direct opposition to the principle of the Roman Church. Now, Pio Nono, who was so anxious to reconcile both principles, was not aware that by his ecclesiastical policy, which consisted in exaggerating the principle of an universal church, he made that reconcilation more and more impossible. No doubt he only followed the historical current in doing so; but instead of trying to stem that current, he did his best to accelerate it. All religious, as well as political, communities tend towards centralization; and just as Italy, Germany, and Switzerland have consistently and uninterruptedly marched towards unity, so had it been the strenuous endeavor of the Roman Church ever since the beginning of this century to annihilate all national distinctions in its own limits and to concentrate itself more and more.

And together with increasing centralization went increasing despotism. There was the weak point of Pio Nono, which the Society of Jesus knew so admirably how to turn to account. The struggle between the national churches and the episcopate on the one side, Rome and the Papacy on the

other, became a pitched battle under the reign of Pio Nono, ending with the utter defeat of the bishops in 1870. Only it was impossible to obtain this victory without doing irremediable harm to the intellectual value of the clergy. The episcopate had remained even in our days the representative of culture and science (as far as it can go within the Church) against the religious orders, which knew and know only of blind submission, *sagrifizio dell' intelletto*. And the episcopate by its half-worldly, half-national character always remained in contact with the reality of life, with national, political, social interests and exigencies. The monk has no tie whatever of this sort; he is the instrument and servant of an abstract idea, represented by an omnipotent, infallible head, who has himself no bond with the actual world, who is himself not much better than the personification of a logical consequence from an untenable premise. Now, it is the *milizia della Santa Sede* which has triumphed under and by Pio Nono. Is it to be wondered at that the secular clergy itself should have been lowered both socially and intellectually by this predominance? It was Pio Nono whom the Jesuits succeeded in making believe that he was Omniscience—nay, the Almighty himself; it was Pio Nono who extinguished the last spark of theological science which still lingered in the faculties, and replaced it by the irresistible narcotic of a seminary education. Pio Nono did not personally like to see learned prelates around him; he used to sneer at them as pedants; he succeeded only too well in bringing down the level, and, as there are no longer any cultivated minds among the generations of priests brought up under Pio Nono, so are there no longer among them any belonging to the higher or even the middle class of society; it is only the sons of peasants who still consider the church as a career by which to raise themselves above the position assigned them by birth. The future will show whether the Roman Catholic clergy will have gained by this change, and whether the absolute obedience of the poor in spirit and strong in passion will be of more avail than the more independent action of the intelligent, who defended the interests of religion with discernment and out of a rational devotion to it.

We seem to be far from Pio Nono, although in fact we have had him alone in mind in speaking of the Catholic clergy, such as it has become under his rule, and of which he was himself the completest type. Every intelligent reader will understand that a reconciliation of this clergy with the Italian state is not to be wished by the friends of Italy, and why we desire for this country, whose national existence has been once more, and infinitely more powerfully than in 1860, 1866, or 1870, confirmed and consolidated by the spontaneous plébiscite of the nation and the solemn recognition of Europe on the day of King Victor Emmanuel's funeral—why we desire for Italy that the new Pope should not incline towards an understanding with the kingdom.

Correspondence.

GREEK AT VASSAR.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: I am much obliged to you for sending me Prof. Hinkel's courteous note, and shall be grateful if you will make it public.

"Vassar College, Poughkeepsie, N. Y., February 21, 1878.

"*Mrs. Sarah B. Wister*, Philadelphia:

"Madam: Allow me to correct a misstatement contained in your article in the *Nation* of 21st of February. 'In Vassar,' you say, 'a year ago they could get no Greek at all.' The fact is that a year ago fifty-six young ladies elected and studied Greek, while this year the number of students in the Greek classes is forty-eight. By applying to the President of Vassar College, Dr. Raymond, or to the respective heads of the different departments, you will always be sure to get advices with regard to our college on which you may rely.

"Respectfully yours, Dr. C. J. Hinkel,

"*Professor of Ancient Languages, Vassar College.*"

The article on Harvard examinations for women which appeared in the *Penn Monthly* for December was written early in September. I took my facts about Vassar College from a catalogue which had been sent me some months earlier—at that time the latest which could be obtained. This I *feel* positive was of the year 1876, although I cannot *say* so positively, as all the catalogues which I had collected for the same purpose passed from my hands before Christmas; but I am confident that none were of older date. Writing in February I should have said "eighteen months ago," not "a year"; but I was unconsciously referring to the period of my first article. I regret the slip and am very glad that my statement is no longer true; I trust also that the faculty and students of Vassar will understand that it was made neither in bad faith nor altogether without foundation. Yours respectfully,

Sarah B. Wister.

Butler Place, Branchtown, Philadelphia, February 25.

UNDERGRADUATE STUDIES AT THE UNIVERSITY OF PENNSYLVANIA.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: I desire to correct some inaccuracies in Mrs. Wister's statement concerning the undergraduate course of studies in this University, printed in the *Nation* of February 21.

I send you a catalogue of this University for the current year. On examining it you will find that all the studies (not all the text-books), prescribed and elective, elementary and advanced, offered to the undergraduate students of Harvard University are also offered to the undergraduate students of this University, except the following—namely, Hebrew, Sanskrit, Ecclesiastical Greek, Anglo-Saxon, Italian, Spanish, the Institutes of Roman Law, and the Fine Arts.

I am, sir, etc., C. J. Stillé.

University of Pennsylvania, Philadelphia, February 24, 1878.

THE WOOL DUTIES.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: I read with much pleasure in this week's *Nation* your reply to the remarks of Mr. E. B. Bigelow, of Boston, concerning the present duties on wool, etc. Nothing but ignorance could excuse his assertion that the discrimination between clothing wools and combing wools is more nominal than real; and mistaking, as you say, cause for effect in relation to the importation of unwashed clothing wool can only be attributed to the same lack of knowledge. As a manufacturer and importer of clothing wool I only assert what every other importer knows, that at the great London wool-sales, where are to be found the best selections of colonial wools suitable for American mills, more than three-quarters of the lots offered are either washed or scoured, and nothing has hampered the American buyer there so much as the provision of our tariff in relation to washed and scoured clothing wool. That provision, and the fact that the specific duty applies equally to wool costing 8 pence and 15 pence per pound, has shut out the American manufacturer from a proper selection of his raw material, to his great injury.

The prevailing opinion among manufacturers of clothing wool in regard to the present unjust tariff is that it was the result of a combination of wool-growers from New York, Pennsylvania, Ohio, and Michigan, who were interested only in clothing wools, with a party of manufacturers who used only combing and carpet wools. Surely the present tariff bears internal evidence enough of such a combination, and it would have resulted in ruin to the manufacturers of clothing wool had it not been that, like all unjust laws, it bore within itself the seeds of its own destruction. The wool-growers last mentioned, in attempting to foster the growth of merino sheep in their States by an exorbitant tariff, have only succeeded in making for themselves a competition from the trans-Mississippi States which they cannot meet without loss, and which they cannot exclude by legal enactments, so that the time is not far distant when they must abandon the growing of sheep altogether, or turn their attention exclusively to such wools as are suitable for combing purposes and which are grown in England under absolute free trade, and can be grown in our Northern and Eastern States without any protective tariff. While, as a manufacturer, I must always protest against an excessive duty on raw material, I still hoped that the present tariff would be left alone for five years more, by which time it would, in my opinion, work its own cure. The wool-growers of Ohio and Pennsylvania must by this time see the "handwriting on the wall," and it does not need a second Daniel to interpret it. Respectfully yours, Manufacturer.

Providence, February 23, 1878.

REPUDIATED MUNICIPAL DEBTS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Apropos to the subject of repudiated State indebtedness, recently considered by yourself and correspondents, is one directly interesting a much wider circle of persons. I allude to the unsatisfied liability of counties, towns, cities, etc., on obligations to pay money issued by them. The amount involved considerably exceeds the total delinquency of non-

paying States, and the proportion of persons who are immediate sufferers is still greater. State bonds are usually held in large blocks, but municipal securities are widely distributed. Nearly all the latter have been issued in aid of railroads and other local improvements of real or supposed advantage to the makers. Some have been unfairly obtained—generally attributable to the carelessness or lack of foresight of the makers—but rarely are the owners either legally or morally responsible for any wrong, having purchased in good faith, and under circumstances imposing no obligation to look beyond the recitals of the bond. The loss in every such case should equitably fall on the makers of the paper.

Then why are obligations of the character described, representing hundreds of millions of money, to-day treated as if they were no better than waste paper? Some communities are overburdened and cannot respond, at least in full, but in most instances there can be no such pretence. Take the case of Missouri, which has more than thirty counties, besides a number of cities and townships, in default, although the State's own credit has been honorably maintained. The county of Jackson, in which is located the second city of the State, has for more than two years paid no interest on bonds put on the market by its own agents. The township of Kaw, in the same county, of which Kansas City is the controlling portion, for an equal length of time has defaulted on the interest of bonds about the equity of which no question has ever been raised. No one will pretend that Jackson County and Kansas City cannot pay all they owe. Their own citizens would indignantly resent such an imputation. The case against other defaulting Missouri communities, with smaller debts, is even stronger. So, in Kansas, the cities of Lawrence, Leavenworth, and Atchison, and several of the wealthiest counties are in default. Some of them have had reverses, but they are much more able to pay than the holders of their paper, as a rule, are to lose; for it is a great mistake to suppose that such holders, notwithstanding all that has been said about "bloated bondholders," are persons of means. The majority of them are comparatively poor. The opportunity to invest small surplusages in securities promising large rates of interest, and which were offered at a discount, induced many persons of limited resources to put all they possessed in Western municipal bonds. Widows with small jointures, old men with narrow provision for their declining years, and small farmers and mechanics that had managed, through rigid economy, to save a few dollars for a rainy day, sought them eagerly, and many such to-day are in great financial distress. The writer happens to know of a "block" of fifty $1,000 bonds, issued by a Western municipality, that was marketed in a manufacturing community not far from the city of New York. Upon a consultation of the holders being called, after default in the interest had been made, it was found that the fifty bonds were in the hands of forty-nine persons, nearly all of whom were in moderate circumstances.

The fact that these bonds can be sued on, both in State and Federal courts, instead of weakening your editorial argument in favor of a right of action against defaulting States, greatly strengthens it. I greatly fear that, but for that fact, many more bonded communities would now be in default. And the steadfastness with which the courts, as a general thing, have upheld the rights of bondholding creditors, against the technical and superficial defences that have been raised, furnishes a powerful confirmatory argument. Even the local courts, whose judges are citizens of communities trying to shirk their honest liabilities, have mostly been true to the law.

But it must not be inferred that, because defaulting counties and towns have been baffled by honest courts in attempts at legal repudiation, all of them have submitted to the demands of the law and their own agreements. The next step with many of them has been *quasi*-repudiation in the nature of a compulsory compromise. Taking advantage of the timidity of creditors in general, and sometimes of their necessities, they have refused to pay, even after all legal questions have been decided, while offering to settle their liabilities by issuing new bonds, no better secured than the old ones, for a fraction of the amount. This new and easy method of paying old debts by scaling them down one-half or more, has become remarkably popular. The creditor is told that he must take fifty cents on the dollar in new paper or he will eventually get nothing. The writer has before him a letter addressed to the holders of certain bonds issued by Buchanan County, Missouri, inclosing a fifty-cent proposition, from a person who subscribes himself "County Attorney and Financial Agent" of the county, and who says:

"Having been appointed the financial agent and general attorney of the county, I should be pleased to be the medium of bringing about an adjustment satisfactory to bondholders and within the power of the county. But I should fail in my duty to both parties if I forbore to invite your serious consideration of the facts as they are, and not as we would like to have them. Grave doubts have been urged before the people and the courts as to the legality of these bonds; but, whether legal or illegal, it cannot be overlooked that universal discontent in the public mind and a determined spirit of resistance manifested everywhere in the West against the payment of municipal bonds threaten the practical collection even of judgments of the highest courts. It may be said that this ought not to be the case, but it is nevertheless true. Organized resistance under the forms of law to the enforcement of judgments of the State and United States courts actually exist in many counties of the Western States, directed and controlled by some of the most adroit and able lawyers in the United States. This ought not to be, but it is true."

Never was highwayman's offer more plausibly put. How coolly the story is told! If true, what a picture the Buchanan County agent gives of the morals of those he represents! "Organized resistance" to the law and the judgments of the courts is treason. If not true, what a libel he perpetrates on his abused fellow-citizens!

That there is in localities throughout the West much of the spirit described by the Buchanan County man is, unfortunately, too true; but it is a mistake to conclude that it applies only to public obligations. Nothing is so contagious as dishonesty. It will not be long until private demands will meet the same treatment. We have a case in point. A Missouri county was sued for interest on its defaulted bonds, judgment was rendered, a *mandamus* compelled the levy of a tax for its satisfaction, when an organized mob, probably directed by "adroit and able lawyers," seized the tax-books and the levy was expunged. But it happened that many of those concerned in the lawless proceeding were persons whose property was mortgaged for money borrowed of non-resident capitalists. How natural it was, therefore, that a resolution should be adopted that they would stand by each other in defeating any attempted sales of their property under court decrees. It was only what might be looked for. The people of a community who will not pay their public debts are not likely to be more willing or prompt to pay their private ones. Those who have goods to sell or money to loan would do well to note the fact.

What is the remedy? Those holding the bonds of defaulting municipalities would do well to consider a few things. Let them remember that their legal rights are not impaired, and if a dishonest fraction is not more powerful than the law of the whole land (which would be an end to all government), and they can afford to wait and use the means, redress in time is certain. Being mutually interested, let them as far as possible combine to meet the expense of legal enforcement of their rights. Let them beware of circulars sent out by brokers assuming to represent the interests of bondholders, and urging compromise on easy terms, as they are employed by repudiating debtors to *bear* their securities, and paid a commission on all the bonds whose owners they can frighten or wheedle into a disadvantageous settlement; and it is by the representations of such persons of their ability to adjust other people's interests at a heavy discount, made in their desire for a job, that more than one Western community has been led to default. Have nothing to do with them. And, finally, let care be taken to advertise repudiating communities as such, among capitalists and business men, not so much for their punishment as for the protection of others. If these recommendations are pursued, it will not be long before such communities will be taught, by inexorable experience, the simple but eternal lesson that "honesty is the best policy."

CREDITOR.

Notes.

LEE & SHEPARD announce 'Twenty-five Hundred Miles in a Canoe,' by N. H. Bishop.——Henry Holt & Co. have in preparation a translation of Auerbach's 'Landolin,' by Miss Annie B. Irish. They will also add Lewes's book on 'Actors and Acting' to their "Amateur Series," with a special index.——A convenient comparative table of the requisites for admission to fifteen representative American colleges, East and West, accompanies the Fourth Annual Catalogue of the Brooks School, Cleveland, Ohio.——A rambling address by Dr. J. N. Toner before the Rocky Mountain Medical Association last June has been published by the Association (Washington) in a neat volume. It opens with some observations on the age of the globe, and closes with a collection of facts in regard to the practice of medicine among the American aborigines. A bibliography of the latter subject is appended, with paginal references.——No. IX. of the *Journal of Social Science* (Boston: A. Williams & Co.) consists of papers read at the Saratoga meeting of the American Social Science Association, last September. Those on "Local Taxation," by William

Minot, jr., "The Tariff Question," by Horace White, and "The Navigation Laws of Great Britain and the United States," by Hamilton A. Hill, are especially noteworthy.

—We have received the third part (*Blotfots-Deksel*) of Koolman's learned 'Wörterbuch der Ostfriesischen Sprache' (see the *Nation*, No. 650). He suggestst hree derivations for Bremen, according to which it may mean either the shore (*i.e.*, brim)-town, or sea-town, or famous town. ——In a decree, dated December 21, 1877, the following works, among others, have been put upon the Index: E. Zeller's 'Legend of St. Peter'; J. Reinkens's 'Ueber Einheit der katholischen Kirche'; Dr. J. Friedrich's 'History of the Vatican Council,' which we noticed last week; and an anonymous work, 'Ist an Christi Stelle für uns der Papst getreten?'——In the German book-lists for January we note E. Brentano's 'Ancient Ilion in the Dümbrek Valley'; an attempt to fix the site of Homeric Troy by the statements of Pliny and Demetrius of Skepsis; and the second edition of F. Delitzsch's 'Assyrian Readings,' partly revised by the originals, partly published for the first time, with an introductory table of characters.

—Mr. Noah Brooks's reminiscences of Mr. Lincoln in *Scribner's* for March are chiefly interesting as showing the President's terrible anxiety, both on the military and the political side, during his term of office; and certainly no estimate of the man's greatness would be complete which should leave out of account his physical and mental endurance under the strain. Several of the anecdotes here told relate to his annoyance by office-seekers, and a sentence from one of these will bear quoting: "I usually find that a Senator or Representative out of business is a sort of lame duck. He has to be provided for." With all Lincoln's concessions to party usage, he often opposed it, or, as we may say, rose above it, through sheer magnanimity. Thus:

"You think that was a foolish appointment," he asks, "because W. intrigued to put Chase on the track instead of me? Now, nobody will deny that he is a first-rate man for the place which he is appointed to, and I am bound to see that his opposition to me personally shall not interfere with my giving the people a good officer."

How applicable, again, to our present condition is the following, and how sound Lincoln's view of his duty! A Senator (it might be Stanley Matthews deprecating the veto of the Silver Bill) urges:

"'You say you are the people's attorney. Now, you will admit that this course would be most popular.'

"'But I am not going to let my client manage the case against my judgment,' Lincoln replied quickly. 'As long as I am attorney for the people I shall manage the case to the best of my ability. They will have a chance to put me out, by and by, if my management is not satisfactory.'"

In confirmation of our remark last week, when reviewing Taylor's 'Four Years with General Lee,' as to the great discrepancy between the number of Federal troops reported present and those habitually taken into action, Mr. Brooks tells of Lincoln's showing him at Hooker's headquarters a scrap of paper containing the figures "216,718—146,000—169,000," and explaining that they represented respectively the sum total of the men on the rolls of the Army of the Potomac, the actual available force, and the numerical strength to which the force might be increased when the army should move.

—In the same number there is a rather tame and superficial, but well illustrated, paper on Guatemala, by a hasty traveller, who is so unfamiliar with Spanish customs in the tropics that he writes: "There are no blinds or shutters, but the fact that almost every window in the town is carefully guarded by an iron grating is somewhat suggestive of the character of the people." That earthquakes are more than once alluded to in this article may well be imagined. Another contributor, however, is able to recount his experience on a United States sloop-of-war wrecked during an earthquake at Santa Cruz by the accompanying tidal wave. The story is well told and is not without its humorous features. The colored camp-meeting, made up of refugees gathered under two great tents, whose inmates relaxed into secular music when the danger seemed past, but immediately, after a smart shock, turned from singing "Dixie" to "the doubly appropriate hymn beginning,

"'On Jordan's stormy banks I stand,'"

cannot fail to excite a smile in those who have never known what it is to feel the solid earth swaying under their feet. We must not omit mention of a timely article by Prof. W. G. Sumner, "What Our Boys are Reading." To the facts of common observation which he sets forth no parent can be indifferent; and the wise will not only seek to replace and repel the vile periodical literature for boys for sale on the news-stands by means of better magazines and papers, but will also be on the lookout for a certain class of respectable books for children, whose unreality and essential vulgarity are akin to the deliberate poison dealt out to them by mercenary publishers. How much simpler was the task of oversight when books were all that children could procure to read!

—We are not on the watch for shortcomings in our contemporaries of the religious press, and, in spite of our recent experience with the New York *Christian Advocate*, we might have passed by the last number of the Chicago *Alliance* but for a red-letter "Take notice" on the forefront of the paper. "After going to press," say The *Alliance* Co., "we have learned that the source from which we obtained our information respecting C. A. Long & Co. is not trustworthy, and we do not endorse the article on p. 155." Thus invited, we turned to the page in question in the full expectation of finding some libellous article which the unsuspecting editor had been beguiled into printing. To our surprise, however, the reference was to a brief disquisition on "Tea" at the end of the department called "The Pastor's Study," conducted by the Rev. Geo. H. Peeke. The topic seemed not wholly out of place, and we began reading as follows:

"To all who have made enquiries of THE ALLIANCE relative to the tea-importing house of C. A. Long & Co., we can say that C. A. Long & Co. stand among the best of tea importers in Chicago, not only in their commercial standing, but in their reputation for handling the best lines of teas at unusually low prices. . . .

"We have received from Messrs. Long & Company samples of their excellent teas, including a splendid English breakfast tea and some elegant drawing Japans, and having thoroughly tested them, can bear testimony to the excellent quality of the goods they sell. In these hard times a good agency for so prominent a mercantile establishment is among the things that ought to be considered desirable. . . .

"After a personal interview which elicited the above facts, and an investigation into their standing, THE ALLIANCE has no hesitancy whatever in asserting that Messrs. C. A. Long & Co. are reliable, and both able and willing to carry out any contracts they may enter into, and we can cordially commend them to such of our readers as business in their line may concern."

Now, as the source from which the editor obtained his information about C. A. Long & Co. was avowedly the firm itself, in a "personal interview," it follows that he brands as "untrustworthy" on the cover the very house which on page 155 he had without hesitancy declared "reliable." His "investigation into their standing," therefore, which enabled him to pronounce them "among the best," appears to have been merely taking their word for it; and we cannot avoid the suspicion that his thorough testing of their samples was effected by the same simple process. The conclusion is, of course, that the publisher sold a half-column of "The Pastor's Study" and the editorial "we" to a "prominent mercantile establishment"; but whether the red-letter retraction is due to the pastor's indignation when he found this out, or to C. A. Long & Co.'s not proving "able and willing to carry out their contract" with the publisher, we shall probably never know. No rates are published in the paper, and it is impossible to say what the *Alliance* Co. charge for vicariously testing teas and attesting commercial standing. Apropos of the spiritual condition of the religious press, we were astonished to find in the literary department of the *Examiner and Chronicle* of this city our recent notice of Godwin's 'Cyclopædia of Biography' reproduced almost bodily, without a hint of its having originated elsewhere. The wicked reviewer copies our statements about the unrevised state of the third edition, and instances just those errors and omissions which we ourselves specified.

—The play now running at the Union Square Theatre, "A Celebrated Case," is the best melodrama that we have seen on the New York boards for several years. It challenges comparison most, perhaps, with "Monte Christo," as given five or six years ago, when Fechter had just come here from England, although there is no one in it who challenges comparison with Fechter himself as he then acted the part. We say this *pace* Mr. Coghlan, who assumed the role of the persecuted hero of the play; for to our mind he lacks the peculiar melodramatic talent which is needed for the unreal world to which "A Celebrated Case" and plays of its kind belong. He is good in the scene where he denounces the false *De Mornay*, his passion is effective; but even here it struck us as passion better adapted to tragedy as distinguished from melodrama. The difficulty with Mr. Coghlan is that he never forgets himself; his character is never merged in that of his part. The part in this instance is certainly one which gives the actor who assumes it a good deal of scope. We have not only a play but a prologue as well, with an interval of twelve years between the two, and every playgoer knows that

this implies a great range of incident. The plot is of the honest, old-fashioned melodramatic sort. *Jean Renaud*, a French soldier (Mr. Coghlan), leaves his regiment on the eve of the battle of Fontenoy to see his wife and child for a few last moments. On his way to his cottage he comes upon a gentleman lying in the road dying of wounds he has just received at the hands of a villain who has run off. *Jean* comes to his help, but it is too late; and the *Count de Mornay* as he expires entrusts to the soldier a box containing his family papers and jewels of great value. These he carries back to his cottage, confides to the keeping of his wife, and goes off to rejoin his regiment. Hardly has he disappeared when the murderer of the Count enters the cottage, secures the box containing the De Mornay valuables, compels *Jean's* wife, while struggling for her life, to quiet her child's fears (the child being shut up in the next room) by telling it that she is with her father, and finally kills her and escapes. The next day Fontenoy is fought, and *Jean*, promoted for gallantry, is suddenly confronted with the charge of having murdered his wife. The proofs against him are made conclusive by the evidence of his child, who recollects that her mother just before her death had cried out that she was with her husband. *Jean* is sentenced to death, but his punishment is commuted to the galleys for life on account of his gallantry.

—This brings the prologue to an end; and it may be easily imagined that in the play we have the child, *Adrienne* (admirably played by Miss Linda Dietz), grown up, the adopted daughter of the *Duc d'Aubeterre*, governor of Provence, surrounded by luxury, engaged to the young and handsome *Raoul de Langey*, and little dreaming that she is in reality a convict's daughter. Strange memories, however, float through her brain, particularly of a scene in which some one calls upon her to remember that she has been the cause of his death, but that he forgives her. Needless is it to say that the scene in which she describes these haunting memories to her dear friend *Valentine de Mornay* (excellently played, when we saw it, by a lady whose name was not given on the bill) is followed by the appearance of a gang of convicts (R. U. E.) of the most abandoned character, who sink down in a sort of criminal stupor, while one of them, squalid in dress but noble in mien and bearing, wanders slowly to the footlights and throws himself down disconsolately in full view of his daughter and her friend. Needless to say, either, that an *éclaircissement* follows; that *Adrienne* finds in the convict a father, and devotes her life to clearing him from the stain of his conviction. It would not require a prophet to predict that a doubtful-looking character bearing the title of *De Mornay* would now make his appearance, or that he would have in his possession the very identical box carried off in the first act; nor that he should be in fact the very villain who twelve years before robbed the cottage and murdered *Jean's* wife. Mr. Hardenberg, who has in his time played every description of villain known to the stage, looks the false *De Mornay* very well—so well, indeed, that it is evident from the first that his real character will be unmasked before long. And so it is. Does not *Dennis O'Rourke*, the retired Irish sergeant formerly in *Jean's* regiment, see through the sham at once? Does not *Jean* denounce him, and does not the old chanoinesse in whose care the real *De Mornay* had left his daughter *Valentine* as a child expose him as soon as he introduces himself to her? Finally, is not the fact of the robbery and murder fully established by the discovery among the De Mornay jewels of a necklace belonging to the murdered wife? So all ends happily: *Jean* is restored to society and his daughter, and his daughter is married to *Raoul*, and the murderer no doubt gets justice meted out to him in the brimming measure which the law allowed in those days. The acting throughout is very fair and often very good. The child in the prologue was marvellously good. There are always grave reasons, it seems to us, to doubt the propriety of introducing children on the stage at all; they are disconnected (so long as they remain children) with the action, and they are introduced for the purpose of imparting an air of reality which they do not actually give. With their childish ways and their oddly-recited parts, they are so much more unreal than anybody else that they help to destroy the illusion created by the rest of the company instead of adding to it. But if children are ever permissible on the stage it is certainly such children as little Miss Eva French, who acts the part of *Adrienne* in the prologue to perfection.

—Recent files of the Vienna press describe the first performance in that city of Wagner's "Rheingold," the scenic overture to the Nibelung trilogy. These papers are almost all hostile to Wagner, and lose no opportunity of abusing him, and yet, in spite of all they could say and do, Vienna has become the centre of that progressive spirit which has converted the music of the future into the music of the present. Dr. Hanslick, the well-known leader of the Conservatives, feels bound to admit now that "Wagner is one of the favorites of the German public, and those who do not love him know at least that among living opera-composers he occupies not only the first but the only place for originality and grandeur of style." How grandeur of style is compatible with the total lack of form of which he accuses Wagner, we must leave for the learned doctor himself to explain. Another critic mournfully admits that Wagner has now taken complete possession of society. "The rising generation favors him, the ladies favor him, and of late even a certain band of savants." These critics, however, still boldly keep up their opposition, in order not to break the tradition and confute Schumann's statement that musical critics, unless themselves creative, are always behind the times. Last year they were very much depressed by the fact that the "Walküre" was repeated in Vienna twelve times in rapid succession, to crowded houses, and was only suspended when Frau Materna and Hans Richter had to go to London. This year they have again raised an outcry over "Rheingold." They protest against "the indigestible German which is stammered in 'Rheingold' and given out as poetry." The music is not "organic," but "atomic." The story is "devoid of all dramatic interest," and "compounded of ugly passions and crimes." The wonderful scenic contrivances are "a wealth which shows that it has poverty to conceal." So says Hanslick, and the smaller fry re-echo his words. The performance, as a whole, was "decidedly superior to the model performances at Bayreuth." So was the Vienna performance of the "Walküre"; and those who know Dr. Hanslick feel certain that he would have said the same of the American attempt to reproduce the latter drama. From the other accounts, however, we gather that the scenic display, which at Bayreuth subserved artistic purposes, was in Vienna calculated chiefly for effect; that the old sing-song vocal style, banished from Bayreuth, made its reappearance here; that the Walhalla and the rainbow scene were as imperfect as at the festival; and that the important swimming scene, which at Bayreuth was unanimously pronounced a most perfect specimen of stage mechanism, was in Vienna so defective that the mechanical apparatus was plainly visible to a large portion of the audience. The most amusing of the objections repeatedly urged against "Rheingold" is that its hero, *Wotan*, is such a very wicked character. These good critics had evidently never before seen a bad character impersonated on the stage, and it is a wonder some of them did not waylay Herr Searia when he left the theatre and give him a sound beating.

UPPER EGYPT.*

FROM 1863 to 1869 and from 1872 to 1875 Dr. Klunzinger, a naturalist and physician, lived at Koseir, on the Red Sea, as sanitary or quarantine doctor, appointed by the Egyptian Government. Private and official business often carried him into the neighboring portion of the Nile Valley, the ancient Thebaid. Shortly after establishing himself at that little seaport, and repeatedly afterwards, he was visited by the explorer Schweinfurth, who now pays a glowing tribute to his attainments—including a surpassing knowledge of Arabic—and to his devotion to scientific pursuits and the good of suffering humanity. Schweinfurth encouraged him to cultivate the field of Egyptian manners and customs, taking Lane as his model. The facilities of the learned and devoted physician were uncommonly good; the quiet yet not entirely secluded spot where he spent eight or nine years of cheerful activity proved a varied and almost untrodden ground for study and examination; and the results obtained are now before us in elaborate descriptions of unusual interest and exhaustiveness. The author, who is neither an explorer nor a traveller in the stricter sense, but a studious and closely-observing Occidental resident of the East, gives no account of his journeys, but takes the enquirer by the hand, passes with him from scene to scene, unfolds feature after feature, completes the observations of others by his own, points out the hitherto unobserved, often compares the modern with the ancient, and presents generalizations with moderation and reserve. What he means to tell is fully stated on the title-page of the book, and everything else—statistics, politics, history, philological research, antiquarian criticism, etc.—is scrupulously excluded. There is no fanciful flight of

* 'Upper Egypt: Its People and its Products. A Descriptive Account of the Manners, Customs, Superstitions, and Occupations of the People of the Nile Valley, the Desert, and the Red Sea Coast, with Sketches of the Natural History and Geology. By C. B. Klunzinger, M.D., formerly Egyptian Sanitary Physician at Koseir, on the Red Sea; member of the Gesellschaft für Erdkunde zu Berlin, etc., etc. With a Prefatory Notice by Dr. Georg Schweinfurth, author of the 'Heart of Africa.'' New York: Scribner, Armstrong & Co. 1878. 8vo, pp. xv–408.

diction, no pretentious coloring, no trace of an inclination to beautify or to distort, to round off or to contrast, and none of a religious or anti-religious prejudice ; ethnological dogmatism, obtrusion of sentiment, and repetition are rigidly avoided ; every statement bears the mark of clear and unbiassed observation and truthful presentation.

The work is divided into the following seven chapters : "Four Days in a Country Town," "Travelling by Land and River," "Working Days and Holidays, Days of Jubilee and Days of Mourning," "The Desert" (between Kenneh on the Nile and the sea), "On the Red Sea" (Koseir), "The Natural Treasures of the Red Sea," "Popular Beliefs and Superstitions." The subdivisions are exceedingly numerous, each being devoted to a special topic. The topics are treated as they locally present themselves in that portion of Egypt—Upper Egypt, between the Nile and the Red Sea—which forms the special subject of the author's research ; but, owing to the stability and consequent uniformity which characterize the main sphere of Islam, they are mostly endowed with a general character, and we feel that we have before us not only views of life among the descendants of the people of Pharaonic Egypt, among the Semitic Bedouins of the desert, and modern Ichthyophagi, but also pictures of the universal Moslem "still-life," with its poverty and indolence, resignation and contentedness, fatalism and superstition, sobriety and frugality ; its fasts and feasts, muezzins, dervishes, jugglers, pilgrims, and cadis ; its veiled women, obedient children, and secluded households ; its exceptional polygamy, patriarchal slavery, and fidelity to law, custom, and ruler.

Upper Egypt is one of the quietest parts of the subtropical world. It is entirely undisturbed by the din of war, threats of invasion, or hostility of race and religion—Mohammedan Arab and Christian Copt living peaceably together under a tolerant despotism ; and it is, perhaps, equally distant from the barbarism of Central Africa and the civilization of Western Europe. Centuries pass over it without working perceptible changes in the manners and appearance of the people. Those who speak Arabic and profess Islam differ little in speech, dress, and habit from the type of their ancestors in the times of the early caliphs. "We shall even go farther," says Dr. Klunzinger : "Let us pick out at random a man belonging to the common people of Upper Egypt and divest him of his modern outer dress (loose shirt and turban) ; let us strip him of his undoubtedly thick varnish of Mohammedanism, or it may be of Christianity; take from him his pipe, his coffee, and his beard, and there stands before us a genuine native of [Pharaonic] Kemi. He will be sure to exhibit the same slim yet strong limbs, the broad chest, the same type of face with its broad cheeks, projecting lips, wide nostrils, and almond eyes ; also the same solid shaven head, and, in spite of all the buffets of Fate, at bottom the same inherited nature. In Upper Egypt, too, we find, lastly, a multitude of individual customs and usages dating from the great Pharaonic period." The pointing out of striking resemblances between the doings, ways, and methods of the modern Fellahs and Copts and those of the subjects of the early Pharaohs is, in fact, one of the many pleasant features of the book before us.

The Fellah, or countryman, of Upper Egypt is almost as dark as an Ethiopian, well formed, spare, muscular, and full of endurance. Young people of both sexes have agreeable and even elegant forms, but old age comes on early, and female beauty is rapidly changed into caricature. The Fellah's food is generally coarse and heavy ; he seldom allows himself a dainty ; spirituous liquors he never tastes ; tobacco alone is his common indulgence. A wife and family are indispensable to him. He lives in an earthen burrow, which is very far from being either spacious or clean ; his children mingle in the court-yard pell-mell with all kinds of domestic animals ; but "from his contentment and domesticity he is always merry, he chats, jokes, and sings, is healthy, and incredibly efficient and assiduous in working. . . . He knows how to conduct himself with propriety, almost with polish, in society ; he may be often rough, but he is never rude and boorish. . . . Compliments flow from his eloquent tongue till they verge on flattery and falsehood. He is entertaining, witty, full of fancy, good-humored in ordinary intercourse and if at all well treated ; but he is mendacious, deceitful, avaricious, fond of begging, and even thievish. . . . Patiently, like the camel, he bears the burden laid upon him ; but if it seems too heavy he becomes stubborn and self-willed, until he has received a due number of official blows upon the soles of his feet." Dr. Schweinfurth, in his preface, also speaks of the Fellahin as, in spite of their degradation, "excelling in several virtues which only the wisest among us practise, and that only with an effort," and as "the most courteous and mannerly people in the world." The hands of the tax-gatherer and the task-master are heavy on them, both in lawful and unlawful ways ; but while formerly the sums and the labor extorted went only to benefit the rulers, now, Dr. Klunzinger is convinced, a large portion of the proceeds is expended for the good of the country. The Fellah still boasts in his ignorance of the stubborn resistance which he opposes to the lash of the collector, but his children and children's children will derive no small advantages from the schools, canals, bridges, and railways on which the Khedive lavishes so much of his income.

The kind of culture, justice, and humanity which prevails in the towns of Upper Egypt is pleasantly illustrated by the following scene in a court, the description of which we abridge : The youthful son of a merchant, the descendant of the Prophet (sherif), has knocked out some teeth of a highly-respected citizen, who appears as accuser. The judge strokes his whiskers and beard, veils his figure in tobacco-smoke, and calls for his scribe. A record must be taken. Messengers are sent through the town. Muftis, old citizens, leading traders, consular agents, civil and military dignitaries soon fill the court. The assembly hears the accusation in silence. The accused stammers a few words in his defence. His father upbraids him, and expresses deep sorrow, but attempts a defence with animation and all the dexterity he is capable of. The youth looks shame-faced upon the ground ; friends make some remarks ; some of the spectators give tokens of approval ; the record becomes lengthy ; a physician gives an opinion. "To prison with the offender!" is the loud decision of the judge. "My son sent to prison—the son of a sherif!" exclaims the father ; "I will become surety for my son." Silence follows : the judge hesitates. Justice and religious considerations plead in opposite ways. A pause occurs. Those present sip a little coffee out of small cups, venture some indifferent remarks, or go out and in. The cadi, or ecclesiastical judge, who, in fairness, has no say in the matter, now puts in his word : "First of all, a *fatiha!*" All lift up their hands and solemnly utter the prayer of prayers. Then the cadi goes on : "Serious things have taken place ; but God is the all-pardoning, the all-merciful. The prosecution of the action would lead to incalculable consequences. Accusers and accused will become reconciled ; I pledge myself to that. For your part, your grace, desist now ; God will reward you." But the civil judge will not yield, and hurls reproaches at the sherif, who, on his part, makes taunting observations. The affair assumes an unpleasant aspect. The cadi now stands up with all the dignity of his person and office, and pleads for pardon as a favor to himself. The pious civil judge is unable to resist ; the parties become reconciled ; the record and the physician's opinion are solemnly torn in pieces ; and the scene closes with a round of embraces, a cup of sweet coffee flavored with cloves, and a *fatiha*. There are also inexorably upright judges, but they are decried as tyrannical.

Among the Ababdeh, a tribe of the desert to whom Dr. Klunzinger devotes a considerable number of pages, justice is administered by their sheiks in a much sterner way. The Egyptian Government levies no taxes or soldiers among them, but their prince pledges his life and property for the security of the desert roads, and must, when required, provide camels and guides. And, in fact, profound peace and absolute safety reign in their inhospitable region. The following is told as having occurred within the last few years : A camel, laden with fruit, which had strayed from a caravan, was found by a Bedouin in the Nubian desert. He brought it to the nearest station, with its load, but betrayed his having peeped into the sack to see what it contained. For this curiosity he was condemned to death; "for," said the sheik, "if there had been gold in the sack you would have stolen it and not brought back the camel."

In describing the desert, the author adds his observations to the many delineations that travellers have given of the camel; and we cannot refrain from reproducing the opening lines, as a sample of his minutest descriptions. We quote :

"Its skull nearly always points exactly horizontally out into the wide world toward the distant goal. At the top its small, erect, ape-like ears stand beside the small cranium. Its eyes, at the side of the skull, stare earnestly, or even, as Brehm will have it, stupidly out of their cavities, surrounded by the protruding edges of the bones and overshadowed by high shaggy eye-brows. The forepart of the crest of the head forms a long nose like that of a ram, the nostrils of which unite at a sharp angle. A long, broad, bearded upper lip, half-divided in the middle and sloping downwards in front and at the sides, a loosely pendent but extremely mobile under-lip, between which opens a slavering mouth well furnished with broad, yellowish teeth, complete the very far from pleasing picture of a camel's head."

The sketch of a ride through the desert is probably the finest descriptive part of the book ; and musings on the East and West, the world of

Islam and the world of modern civilization, are thus adroitly, and not idly, woven into it :

"From the stars our thoughts wander to the countries of that more northern region to which we belong ; we recall to mind the blessings derived from the superior civilization of the soil, the flourishing state of art and science, the mighty advances made by commerce and industry, the order in civil and political life, the power and riches of the nations, lastly, the power of public opinion, fighting on the side of justice and morality. Directly the contrary of all this is what we see in Mohammedan states. But we find that amidst the blessings of civilization there swarm all kinds of gnawing, cancerous sores and examples of glaring wretchedness ; and the Frank is by no means justified in always looking down upon the Oriental as the sick man. The Moslim is essentially a natural man guided by faith in his religion, which, when rightly interpreted, is as capable of giving him the stamp of a good man as any other. That art and science can flourish also on the soil of Islam history shows, and that a Mussulman who is a true believer is not necessarily a fanatic, any one may convince himself who has an intimate knowledge of both country and people."

We should need much more space than we have to do justice, by extracts or allusions, to the richness of the work. It is worth reading and rereading. The illustrations are very fine ; the translation is excellent.

THIRLWALL.*

THIRLWALL was a bishop whom nature intended for a judge. Judicial weightiness—the quality which the Romans designated as *gravitas*—was the distinguishing trait of his character. Men who heard him speak, when young and unknown, were at once impressed with the weight of his thought. "The speaker," writes Mill, describing his experiences as member of a youthful debating society, "with whom I was most struck, though I dissented from nearly every word he said, was Thirlwall, since Bishop of St. David's and then a Chancery barrister, unknown except by a high reputation for eloquence acquired at the Cambridge Union before the era of Macaulay and Austin. His speech was in answer to one of mine. Before he had uttered ten sentences I set him down as the best speaker I had ever heard, and have since heard no one whom I set above him." What impressed Mill at an age when he was full of faith in logic and Benthamism was, it may safely be assumed, no display of rhetoric but an exhibition of that power of fairly coping with the strength of an antagonist's argument—of, in short, judicially weighing its merits—which is to be traced in every word written or uttered by Thirlwall from his early manhood to the latest day of his life. His strength lay exactly where his colleagues on the episcopal bench are apt to be weak. A modern English bishop is always respectable. He not unfrequently is distinguished by undoubted virtues. He is occasionally a man of considerable administrative ability. He is sometimes, though rarely, a person endowed with talents which must have ensured his success in secular pursuits. But the quality which the world does not expect, perhaps it may be said hardly asks for, in a bishop, is the discriminating fairness and breadth of view which you may look for in a great statesman or a great magistrate. There are perhaps not at the present moment three men on the English bench of bishops whose opinion on either a question of statesmanship or a subject of speculation would carry any weight with the world of laymen, either in England or America. Whilst Thirlwall lived, the English episcopacy had at least one member whose words neither politicians nor thinkers could hear without respect.

In nothing was the strength of his character better exhibited than when he dealt with topics which are rather political than ecclesiastical. Take, for example, the following description of the union between England and Ireland :

"The union had the legal force of an act of Parliament, and even of a solemn treaty, but morally it was a mere name, a fiction, a piece of parchment utterly inoperative for its professed purpose. It neither expressed a fact nor tended to realize the supposition which it assumed. The cry for its repeal never ceased to awaken an echo in the Irish bosom, and the most important boons lost all their conciliatory value because they appeared not the free offerings of our good will or of our justice, but concessions wrung from our fears."

These sentences and the whole passage to which they belong are, in one sense, not striking, for they are only the plain statement of undoubted facts. What is impressive is, that on a subject concerning which it is difficult either for historians or for politicians to speak with calmness and fairness, an English bishop should give utterance to what will, it may confidently be predicted, be the ultimate verdict of impartial history. Nor is Thirlwall's severe calmness of judgment confined to historical problems. In no speculative discussions is a fair recognition of plain facts more rare than in arguments concerning the relation of the state to religion. Because thinkers of one school have drawn from the fact that religious belief influences the political and social condition of a nation the inference that a Government must impose its religion on its subjects, their opponents, shocked at conclusions which they felt to be erroneous, have denied the truth of a premise which hardly admits of doubt. Amid the endless confusions of a controversy rendered difficult by differences of sentiment and ambiguities of language, it is an unspeakable comfort to meet with the following plain statement of fact :

"The proposition that anything which exercises such a powerful influence on the habits, character, and condition of a nation as religion may be viewed with indifference by its rulers, appears to me an extravagant paradox, and a person who should profess that he can discover no ground for preferring one form of religion to another seems only to betray his own deficiency in the most essential qualifications of a statesman."

These sentences of course do not solve, or profess to solve, the problem presented, or attempt to lay down the right relation of a government to the religion of its subjects. For hints towards the solution of the problem the pages from which this sentence is taken should be studied. What is noticeable for the present purpose is the boldness with which Thirlwall admits the truth of a proposition which has constantly been made the basis of theories to which he was fundamentally opposed. It is, in fact, this fairness in stating the arguments of an opponent which constitutes the special strength of a great judicial intellect. To misrepresent the reasoning of an opponent is the vice of a controversialist ; but many men who rise morally and intellectually above controversial misrepresentation have not the power to grasp the really strong point of views which they do not share ; and there is nothing which excites more justifiable admiration than the power exhibited by men who adorn the judicial bench of stating in its full force a case the whole weakness of which they are able to expose. This is exactly what Thirlwall achieves as a controversialist. The excitement caused by the publication of 'Essays and Reviews' has died away even in England. The sound of the controversy as to the "conscience clause" can have been heard by few persons on this side the Atlantic, but Thirlwall's criticisms on the views of some of the essayists and reviewers, and his only too complete refutation of Archdeacon Denison's fallacies, have a permanent interest as specimens of polemical discussion carried on with judicial fairness.

A minor peculiarity of Thirlwall's has a close connection with the essential quality of his mind. The grave dignity of his style is perpetually flavored by more or less conscious irony. The irony is quite unlike that of a writer who delights in sneers. It is the irony of an author who habitually appears to have more to say than he actually expresses. There is a constant restraint of language which arises not from hesitation but from the determination of the writer to express exactly what he means, and not to hazard the least assertion beyond what his knowledge justifies and the facts of the case require. The very attitude of calmness naturally occupied by the bishop stands in a sort of ironical contrast with the excitement, the fume, and the fussiness of the clergy whom he addresses, or of the brethren from whose course of proceeding in convocation he ventures to dissent. Occasionally, indeed, the irony expresses itself openly in some terse but grave retort. A generous friend of the essayists urged with more generosity than logical cogency that their errors were in some cases to be held trifling because contained in "a few words." "Yet," is Thirlwall's comment, "four monosyllables have sufficed for an important proposition which it would be difficult to bring within the limits of devout belief (Ps. liii. 1)." Other instances in which irony turns to sarcasm might easily be pointed out in the bishop's charges, but in the main what is ironical in his style is the careful, painstaking, deliberate weighing of reasonings and views which he shows when fairly weighed to be if not worthless yet certainly of much less value than they seem at first sight to be. Now, this is precisely the irony of a judge. To hear a man of first-rate ability weigh with the most minute care every particle of evidence which can be brought forward in support of a case which the more it is examined the less tenable it appears—to hear such a man suggest the arguments which an incompetent advocate has omitted to put forward, and then show that when the best is said for the prisoner which can be said his guilt is as clear as the day, is a treat which may be enjoyed in any court of justice presided over by a great English or American judge, and those who have once enjoyed it will not need to be told how keen is the inevitable irony of the application, to a bad case, of perfect judicial fairness.

* 'Remains Literary and Theological of Connop Thirlwall, late Lord Bishop of St. David's. Edited by J. J. Stewart Perowne, D.D.' London : Daldy, Isbister & Co. 1877.

The assertion that Thirlwall's mind was essentially judicial, is, on the whole, to give as high praise as can be given to the moral and intellectual character of a man placed in a position rarely adorned by judicial virtues But it must be added that the peculiar type of intellect which distinguishes a judge has its weak points, or, at any rate, its limitations, and Thirlwall was, in some respects, too exclusively judicially-minded. We do not mean by this that there is any want of religious depth or feeling in his charges. If any one suspects this want, he will, if he reads carefully the bishop's tenth charge, feel that this suspicion is ungrounded. What we do mean is, that in two respects, at least, he shares marked characteristics or peculiarities of English judges. His fairness, as far as it goes, is perfect. He looks an opponent's arguments carefully in the face. He states them, as far as he is concerned with them, in a forcible manner, but he does not attempt, or think it his business to attempt, to enter into the feelings of the men he criticises. He is a judge though a fair judge. In taking up this attitude, it is at least perfectly arguable that Thirwall was entirely in the right. The merit of sympathetic, as contrasted with fair criticism, is open to great doubt. The attempt to enter into feelings which you do not in reality share, constantly fails in attaining its object; and, further, is apt to lead to confusion both of thought and feeling. In any case the bishop was distinguished from the men of his time by the absence of all attempt to show sympathetic appreciation of views which he held erroneous.

A second and far more serious result of the judicial habit of mind was an unmistakable tendency on the part of Thirlwall to limit his view, or, at any rate, his utterances to the precise matter in hand (or, in forensic language, to the circumstances of the case). In a magistrate this habit of dealing in every instance with general principles only in so far as they are requisite for the decision of the particular point under consideration (though even on the bench it may be carried too far) is of value—it is encouraged and fostered by all the traditions of English law; but in a speculative writer the same tendency would admittedly be a grave defect. The subjects with which Thirlwall dealt—*e.g.*, the historical character of the Pentateuch, the views propounded by clergymen as to inspiration, and so forth—admitted to a certain extent of either treatment. They might be treated in what may be termed their legal aspect; they might again be considered in a speculative point of view in respect of their truth and falsehood. Now, Thirlwall indubitably tends rather to dwell upon the legal and ecclesiastical aspects of the controversies with which he is concerned than to examine the ultimate truth or falsehood of the opinions he criticises. He gives guidance to men interested in the question whether certain opinions can or cannot be held within the Church of England. He points with great force to all the considerations which should lead Churchmen of different parties to deal fairly with each other's views. He makes valuable suggestions as to the mode in which the difficulties raised by Biblical criticism should be viewed. He cannot be fairly said to shirk any question necessarily brought before him. He treats "Colenso's case," to use a legal expression, perfectly if it be looked upon merely as "Colenso's case." What, however, really and rightly interests the laity is not "Colenso's case," but the questions of the truth or falsehood of sacred narratives which the "case" raised. On this, the vital point, we can hardly feel that the charges contain all that a man such as Thirlwall could have uttered. Yet, if in this point they are defective, they are constant and noble assertions, by the great judicially-minded bishop, of the almost forgotten doctrine, that "the formation of a right judgment" is "an important part of practical duty."

*** *Publishers will confer a favor by always marking the price of their books on the wrapper.*

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Authors.—Titles.	*Publishers.—Prices.*	
Bardwell (Prof. F. W.), Methods of Arithmetical instruction, swd	(G. P. Putnam's Sons)	$0 15
Blackie (Prof. J. S.), Natural History of Atheism	(Scribner, Armstrong & Co.)	1 50
Browning (Mrs. E. B.), Earlier Poems	(James Miller)	
Champney (Mrs. L. W.), Bourbon Lilies: a Tale	(Lockwood, Brooks & Co.)	1 25
Cook (Prof. Geo. H.), Report on the Clay Deposits in New Jersey	(Trenton)	
Davis (A. J.), Views of Our Heavenly Home	(Colby & Rich)	
Froude (J. A.), Life and Times of Thomas Becket	(Scribner, Armstrong & Co.)	1 50
Hart (E.), Handbook of Volumetric Analysis	(John Wiley & Sons)	2 50
Honorable Miss Ferrard	(Henry Holt & Co.)	1 00
Is "Eternal" Punishment Endless? 2d ed	(Lockwood, Brooks & Co.)	1 00
Kirby (Georgiana B.), Variation of Character through the Mother, swd	(S. R. Wells & Co.)	25
Lockwood (M. S.), Handbook of Ceramic Art	(G. P. Putnam's Sons)	1 00
Lukin (Rev. J.), The Boy Engineers	" "	1 75
McMillan (D. C.), Elective Franchise in the United States	" "	1 10
Nichols G. N.), Pottery: How It Is Made	" "	1 25
Powers (M. R.), The Accountant	(A. S. Barnes & Co.)	
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Fine Arts.

ELEVENTH EXHIBITION OF THE WATER-COLOR SOCIETY.

II.

THE figure-pictures are, as always, the most attractive. "A Rose in October" (12), by Mr. Abbey, represents a handsome girl in the high waist and fichu of 1820, standing by a gate in an autumnal scene. Her refined face, autumnal too, and just settling into a sweet, unprotesting old-maidishness, commands attention as a piece of distinguished character is sure to do; but it is unskilfully colored in thick plastery distemper, and the folded handkerchief, of a bad staring white, makes a hard St. Andrew's cross in the middle of the composition. The picture, like all of Mr. Abbey's work in color, is a promise rather than achievement. "The Cobblers of Boufarik" (145), by Tiffany, is a humorous incident; four shoemakers, all in a row, arrest their wax-ends simultaneously to stare at the supposed arrival of a stranger; their expressions were never learned in courts; a grin of hideous curiosity, exposing snags of teeth, and a canine readiness to fawn on the traveller, make up their sum of intelligence; it is the eternal cry of "Bakshish," represented in colors on a sheet of card-board. This is a picture of considerable size, and, though thin and flimsy in modelling, it has less of the amateur about it than former experiments of Mr. Tiffany's with the human figure. Mr. Magrath has a number of pictures of his well-known Irish maiden, in various rustic postures, looking for her lover from the cottage threshold, etc. This country beauty was hailed with delight when she first appeared some years ago; but, whether she was better painted then, or taste has grown more exacting, a longer acquaintance has brought out her defects. The drawing is now seen to be conventional and soft; the face just enough idealized to spoil it. How hard is the task of painting rusticity in a perfectly sincere frame of mind! If even Jules Breton is accused by his compatriots of refining too much upon his farming-maidens, how shall Mr. Magrath escape a like censure when he gives us an eternity of those white dimpled feet, those odalisque eyes, in scenes that should reflect the honest hardness, as well as the unspoiled soul, that dwells with "country brown"? The picture of a "Gardener" (123), and of "Sheep" (267), are in an improved vein. The miniature scale of the former reduces the stippling habit, which becomes painful and insipid over larger surfaces, to an almost imperceptible condition, from sheer compression of work; and the little plodding gardener becomes a distinct and valuable gem, a curious example of the artistic axiom that largeness of style may be best shown on smallest work. As for 267, perhaps because stippling agrees with sheep, or for some reason, the style, which it would be offensive to call woolly, and which we will therefore term fleecy, seems to grow homogeneously out of the subject and suits the pastoral idyl depicted.

Signs of real vigor in figure-painting we are glad to hail in two of the contributions of Mr. Eakins. The most finished (237) is a picture of an old lady, of an excellent type of face that dates perfectly with the title of "Seventy Years Ago," knitting, with that angular throwing out of the forefinger which goes with the work; she sits between the spinning-wheel and round falling-top table, her well-made, tendonous arms escaping out of short sleeves, and at her feet her basket of wools, edged with intersecting arcades of wicker. The color here is a poem of subdued harmony, partly because the touch, as broad and direct as possible, has not persecuted the color. How much better it is to leave a part of a painting in a sketchy state of definition rather than to insist upon an item of drawing already plainly suggested, and so make your color dead by overlaying it, is well expressed in this very happy study, and perhaps still more clearly in the larger picture, "Negroes" (92), where, indeed, the sketchiness seems to have been in some sort a necessity; the painting somehow suggests that the artist might not have been able to carry a labor of such a size much further in finish without stirring up mud. As it is, there is not the slightest concession to the eye of the conventional spectator demanding evenness of manipulation. Foreground parts are left in riotous disorder, and parts on the second plane, at which the painter desires to direct the attention, are worked up with sympathy and patience. The theory of method seems to be that, if a broad, careless stroke has been lucky in defining the form and motion and in imprisoning the color, it is a better thing to leave it, whether consistent in style with the whole picture or not. These telling strokes and sweeps, these foreground forms felt as mere blots of color, these nearer members without outline while farther

feature. are modelled and hardened with all precision, give the system of painting a perspectiveless look when seen close, and a look of pure atmospheric harmony when seen from the proper distance. The comedy of plantation life is felt by the painter of this picture with a quiet intensity that makes every onlooker sympathetic. The precocious solemnity of the child who is learning to dance, and whose bare legs have absorbed all the liveliness away from his face; the weight of warning in the countenance of his grandfather, who "pats" for him with the foot, and is ready to pounce on an error; and the serpentine insinuation of the banjo-player, who writhes and twists involuntarily to help on the motion, make up a group of goblin humor so true and intense as to notch a pretty high mark in the degrees of comedy.

Mr. La Farge sends a first sketch, or crude conception (348), of a spirit-figure with moth-wings. Nothing could show the peculiar mastery which this artist has over a careless public more than the fact that in this experiment, almost insulting in the largeness of the demand it makes on the imagination, it is conceded by everybody that the thing could have been done only by an artist of talent. It seems to be a record, fixing in the memory what hues to take for a certain effect, as standards to "key up to." Meanwhile the poor nymph, waiting to be born, exists at loose ends, with a complexion made up of moth-patches; through her untextured state and unregeneracy, though, there streams out the impression of a soul of unusual distinction, and when this sketch is developed into some striking fresco or glass-painting, the purchaser—the first buyer of any exhibition-picture by this artist—will doubtless look back on his courageous action with pleasure. There is a small class of Americanized foreigners, exhibiting as members or as New-Yorkers, but painting with methods as strikingly European as the talk of strange tourists you hear in the street. One of the most conspicuous of these is Pranishnikoff, whose address is with the Messrs. Harper, in Franklin Square. He gives two or three figure-scenes from Russian life, and a miscellany of sketch-book extracts, altogether quite a little gallery or collection, which might be called "Album of an admirer of Detaille." But the steely, hard, die-sinker's touch of Detaille (of course there are specimens in the exhibition, for to what display do the fond possessors of Detaille's intelligent manikins omit to send their darlings?) is mistranslated by his ambitious pupil. Detaille himself, though there are those up and down in the painting world we love better, never loses breadth; every facet in his clear modelling is cut with reference to the whole picture from marge to marge. In these pictures of mushiks carousing in a birth-day carriage-ride, of smugglers galloping away from the Neva which their pursuers are just crossing, the little details are all struggling to be admired; and though individual faces of capital expression are to be found, the painting suffers by being conceived in twenty different focuses. Among the entirely foreign guests of the society, Mr. Killingworth Johnson, a pretty regular annual attender, comes forward with a tall study of a girl trying on a wedding or engagement ring, and looking at it with near-sighted intentness. The picture is unpleasing. We do not mean that it is unpleasing from the fact of the girl not being beautiful. But it is shocking from the want of any consistent motive covering the whole picture as a work of art. It is entirely disjointed—the region of the knees being one picture, the region of the elbows another picture, the region of the head another, and so on—the whole work of disintegration assisted by a modern piebald costume of the worst type. Mr. Johnson, who sent us one good painting years ago, is evidently waiting to see whether we can stand a long series of his peccadilloes. Pictures from dealers or purchasers of foreign work are scattered through the Academy, and are certainly useful as hints in manipulation. Thus, the specimen of Lucio Rossi, "A Chance Meeting" (9), although greatly maligned by the "serious" artists, teaches a decorator just how to make a bright sunshiny patch on a panelled wall, with a collection of butterfly colors put together in the style of Watteau and the fan-painters. Tofano's "Reverie" (252) is an excellent example of the ease with which the successors of Fortuny seem to arrive at the most sparkling delivery of the color possible or conceivable. "The Ballet" (233), by Degas, is, from its own point of view, a truly wonderful work. It is an "impressionist" picture of the family founded by Courbet and Manet. The artist is said to spend his life behind the scenes of theatres, watching the queer second-nature, the oddly distorted habits, of dancing girls. The cheerful pain with which they will stump around in a half-circle on the nibs or stubs of their poor feet—the way in which they catch their balance in their deep obeisances, with rectangular leverage of a bony arm—the soft crash with which their skirts collapse after a whirl—these are the objects of M. Degas' most serious study. From the copy before us this old frequenter seems to have kept his eye as fresh, his humor-sense as lively, as Margaret Fuller's in the presence of Ellsler, or Carlyle's, when introduced once to the study of saucer-skirts and compass-legs. The girl stooping to fasten a sandal (or is she rubbing her ankle after the ordeal of practice?), with her short draperies enclosing her like a poppy-flower; the girl who lifts her arms, exerts her club-feet, and executes a stumping transit over the stage, are perfect in their way; and so is the conscientious old ballet-master in fustian, and so is the brutal-looking manager in broadcloth. This picture is in gouache, and seems to represent best in that material the dusty look of the coulisses. The faded monotony of a rehearsal proves to have fresh life in it for an art-specialty, as M. Degas uses it.

Pictures of a modest respectability abound. "In a Tide Harbor" (31), by Bricher, is a clever study of a wharf, slimy with the ooze of low tide, and painted with knowing but commonplace touch. Kappes shows a fishing-scene (155) with the title mistranslated, as usual, from Hugo's *Travailleurs de la Mer*, where the first word should be rendered "cultivators" rather than "toilers." The picture forms a spirited twilight marine, but the figures show the peril of the newspaper-designer's hasty habits in giving a kind of theatrical show of graphic movement, instead of live movement copied instantly from nature. His "Immortelles" (440) and "November" (397) are likewise good in scenery and superficial in human action. Shelton's "Suburbs" (439) extract a sort of poetry from the sparse street-lamps and detached villas of the outer boulevards, looking lonely, as such regions ever do, with a suggestion of the warm homes of a city street having been suddenly and unsociably picked apart, and held like pawns in distant chessboard corners, while the central movement of the game goes on without them. "Looking Seaward" (189) is a very able coast-scene in gouache, by Mr. Hopkinson Smith, better known for his sylvan effects; it is a clear, positive statement, with something salt in the landscape and a sort of ringing vibration in the air. No. 513, by the same, is a clever drawing-master's lesson in light and shade, very knowing in its epigrammatic relief of a perfectly black tree against a perfectly white tree. The Landscape No. 13, signed at Milan by M. Gignoux, is a similar piece of sunshiny intensity translated into color. "Becalmed" (373), by Farrer, is very happy in giving the wetness of water, as asserted when the penetration of noon-sunshine makes the blue element seem almost immaterial; his larger "November Day" (99) is also successful. Sartain, in a perfectly literal, and at first view prosy, Venice street (16), gets some precious tones on his weather-beaten plaster that are not to be had by any of the methods that teachers teach, and partake of the magical. Walter Paris, in his "Lenox Furnace" (150), gives honest work without sensationalism, and shows the hot, withered look of a village of iron-works superheating the landscape of the high summer noon. Nicoll's "Portland Harbor" (52) shows us good hard rock and an intelligent movement of overlapping waves towards the shore. The "Calm" of P. T. Clays, the Belgian (44), is, of course, a faultless recital of the liquid effects of plashing water-music. Ciceri's "Passing Storm" and "Fishing" (119, 122) are hasty little studies that it is not too much to call masterly. Bourgoin's studio interiors—Berne-Bellecour's (144) and Vibert's (148)—are painfully minute, without felicity. "A New Hampshire Kitchen" (253), by Mrs. Walter Brown, showing a huge fireplace that would be the pride of a modern bric-a-brac interior, and a farmer's wife manipulating the kettle of dye-stuff obtained from blue sugar-loaf paper, reveals a care and a promise rare among our lady-amateurs.

A room is devoted to black and white. The display is very select. Here are the sketches by Detaille, the pen-drawing by Jacquemart, the design by Leech, the crayon by Knaus, the etchings by Whistler. Here is a superb proof of Seymour Haden's "Calais Pier," much better than that he exhibited at the Centennial, and a preliminary proof of a corner of the same. The etchings by Mr. Farrer are surprisingly good; some of those by P. Moran, of more difficult subjects than Mr. Farrer's, artistic and capable. Mr. C. H. Miller, when etching, is driven to a definiteness of touch not characteristic of his painting, without by such definiteness expressing any particular truths of nature. The woodcuts out of *Scribner's Magazine* are nearly all capital, proving that this nursery of our engravers really has a mission. Mr. Henry Marsh, with three wood engravings after La Farge, and some of his entomological subjects, asserts once more his unprecedented care, delicacy, and sense of color. To the exhibition in black and white may be added the illustrations of the catalogue, of which we must say that they are entirely too commonplace. They do not look like artists' tentatives, and do not keep the keen life of artists' thoughts.

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, MARCH 7, 1878.

The Week.

THE President returned the Silver Bill to the House on Thursday unsigned, with his objections. These were, that the silver dollar authorized by the bill is worth from 8 to 10 per cent. less than it purports to be worth, and "is made a legal tender for debts contracted when the law did not recognize such coins as lawful money"; that by being made receivable for duties it will in time put an end to the gold revenue of the Government, "and thus compel payment of silver for both the principal and interest of the public debt"; that of the bonded debt $1,143,493,400 now outstanding was issued prior to February, 1873, when the silver dollar was unknown in circulation, and only served as a convenient form of bullion for exportation; that $583,440,350 of the funded debt has been issued since that date, "when gold alone was the coin for which the bonds were sold, and gold alone was the coin in which both parties to the contract understood that the bonds would be paid"; that silver being at the time greatly depreciated in the markets of the world, no one would have taken the bonds if made payable in silver; that $225,000,000 of them have been sold during the present Administration for gold coin, with the advantage of a corresponding reduction of the interest on the national debt to four per cent.; that in the progress of these sales the public doubt lest the bonds might be paid in silver was quieted by the authorized statement that such payment could never be sanctioned by Congress or by any department of the Government; and that "in view of these facts it will justly be regarded as a grave breach of the public faith to undertake to pay these bonds, principal or interest, in silver coin worth in the market less than the coin received for them." The message then notices the expectation that the silver dollar will be brought to a par with the gold, and points out the absence of any provision, in case of the opposite contingency, for exempting pre-existing debts from the operation of the bill. On the other hand, a deliberate design to pay off old debts in depreciated silver will receive the reprobation of mankind. "The silver dollar should be made a legal tender only at its market value. The standard of value should not be changed without the consent of both parties to the contract. National promises should be kept with unflinching fidelity." The President concludes by declaring that he cannot approve a bill which, in his judgment, "authorizes the violation of sacred obligations"; and that a false currency "will in the end defraud not only creditors, but all who are engaged in legitimate business, and none more surely than those who are dependent on their daily labor for their daily bread."

The "further consideration of the bill" for which the message entreated was contemptuously refused by Congress. The Republicans who lately viewed with unspeakable horror the return of Confederate brigadiers to the House, promptly rallied to the support of the Vice-President of the Confederacy when he moved that the bill be passed over the veto. The one hour which Mr. Stephens granted for debate—the only debate which the House has had directly upon the bill—was consumed in incoherent five-minute ejaculations rather than speeches, and the vote showed 196 for and 72 against the measure. Without delay the Senate followed in the footsteps of the House. The message was not so much as ordered to be printed or referred to the customary committee, nor did the great statesman from New York manifest the smallest desire to protest or to argue the general question. The vote stood 46 for to 19 against the bill, the only significant incident being the somersault of Senator Hill, of Georgia, who meekly joined the throng of repudiationists, as if some recent glittering generalities of his, on teaching the rising generation to be honest, had been misconstrued by those who expected him to set the example.

The Senate and the House have also flagrantly disregarded the wishes of the Administration by passing a bill which authorizes the United States Circuit Court for the Southern District of Mississippi to hold a special session at Scranton, in Jackson County. This is a deliberate obstruction of Secretary Schurz's endeavors to put an end to the systematic and long-established practice of stripping the public lands of timber in the interest of private adventurers. He has been so far successful that the aid of Government (*i.e.*, Congress) has been invoked against the Government (*i.e.*, the Executive), and the bill in question aims to secure trials in the heart of the lumber districts, where the lumber rings can furnish juries, public sentiment, and all other influences adverse to the course of justice. Mr. Blaine improved the opportunity to vent his spite on the Administration. He was, on another occasion, reinforced by Mr. Conkling, when the bill to provide a temporary substitute for the pension agent at New York came up. Col. Frank Howe had been removed, and his successor had not yet been able to secure the required bonds. This made cutting allusions to civil-service reform in order; but the bill passed all the same, since giving offence to pensioners is not a sin that the average Congressman will be guilty of. On Wednesday week the House passed a bill authorizing a review of the court-martial of Surgeon-General Hammond in the early days of the war; on Thursday, a bill compelling Naval estimates to be made in detail; on Monday, the Senate bill ordering pensions for fourteen-day service in the war of 1812, with restoration to the rolls (without back pay) of those stricken off for disloyalty during the rebellion; and on Tuesday, a bill paving the way for the final disposition of the Chinese Indemnity Fund. The Senate has confirmed Mr. Bayard Taylor's appointment as Minister to Germany.

The President's share in the silver legislation has been so manly and courageous at the close that it will go far to atone for his previous reticence, in the eyes of those who have been troubled by his not having offered some active opposition to the craze in its earlier stages. The message, too, is wisely confined to points on which there can be absolutely no difference of opinion among honest men, and which can only be met by the fable about the fraudulent demonetization. If he had taken up the economical objections to the bill in detail, he would have obscured the issue in the eyes of all that portion of the public which must be relied on hereafter to chain up the devil of knavery, which now seems to have been let loose upon the country. We have no doubt the message will do much to sustain the price of American securities abroad, by leading people to believe that the sober second thought of the country will be with him. He has resisted so much temptation on this point, and has met the opinion even of his own State with so much firmness, that it makes one wonder the more that in the work of civil-service reform he has not been able "to put his foot down" with greater firmness.

As to the probable financial consequences of the Silver Bill they will hardly be visible for a year. The largest amount of silver coin which can be put into circulation within that period is $48,000,000, but this will produce little effect on the circulation, as it will keep rolling in and out of the Treasury for customs duties. We believe the measure has not received the support or approval of a single person whose opinion on matters of finance has ever had any repute, or of many who had ever given finance any attention until they began to clamor for silver. Nine-tenths at least of those who are prominent in its advocacy are in embarrassed circumstances, or laden with some speculative commodity, so that their support of it resembles the

bellowing of a mired ox rather than the arguments of an economist. Indeed, the all but certainty with which, when one enquires into the private affairs of a noisy silver-man, one comes on unsalable real estate, or unprofitable stocks or mines, has for some time been one of the Washington jokes. The effect on the relation of gold and greenbacks has been thus far rather to approximate them, and, indeed, the prospective release of gold from the work of duty-paying will probably help to keep it down. As to the price of silver, which has declined in London, the silver-men are likely to chuckle whichever way it goes. If it falls, it will *pro tanto* increase the advantage over their creditors given them by the bill; if it rises, it will justify one of their prophecies that remonetization would raise it to par. At present they are filled all over the country with a kind of drunken joy, which is stimulated by the usual "falling into line" of a good many anti-silver papers, in obedience to the popular will.

The Barbour Tax Bill, just vetoed by Governor Holliday of Virginia, provides a tax-rate of fifty cents on each one hundred dollars of taxable property; of this, ten cents is set aside for the public schools, twenty-five cents for the support of the government, and fifteen cents for the interest on the debt and other purposes. This last tax is made payable in coupons, all the rest in money, although the coupons are, of course, in the hands of the creditors of the State, and although it is declared on their face that "they shall be received in payment of all State taxes and other public dues." This bill the Governor pronounces "both unjust and unconstitutional," all attempts to take away the receivability of the coupons for taxes having been pronounced by the courts unconstitutional and void. One of the most specious grounds on which the passage of the Barbour bill was urged was the sacredness of the public schools, but the Governor insists in very strong language that "a State has no more right to educate its youths, than an individual his children, at the expense of creditors." He points out that education at such a cost would not be worth having, and appeals to the Legislature not to taint the school system of the State with repudiation. The veto was unexpected, and its sentiments were not agreeable to the "readjusters," who tried to prevent its being read. The Speaker of the House, however, decided that the minority had a right to insist on this being done. A caucus of the "readjusters" was therefore held, at which a committee was appointed and some pathetic speeches made; one senator taking the ground that the message would "convey to the people more of sadness, sorrow, and disappointment than anything that had happened since their flag went down at Appomattox Courthouse," while another declared that the veto, if sustained, sounded "the death-knell of the Conservative party in Virginia." The Governor, however, has been sustained in the House by a vote of 71 to 42.

The South Carolina frauds have almost ceased to attract attention outside the State; but another report has been made by the "Fraud Committee" on the corrupt expenditures for printing, which is a curiosity in its way. It contains the private diary of Josephus Woodruff, the Clerk of the Senate elected in 1868, through whom the fraudulent payments under this head were made. The frauds were enormous in extent—the amount paid from 1868 to 1876 for printing being $1,326,589, a sum greater than the printing-bills of the State (including those paid during the war in Confederate currency) from the establishment of the State Government down to 1868—and brazen in character, as may be inferred from the fact that "a piano for McKinney" appears as one item. Woodruff seems to have been a pious thief, and his diary is mainly interesting as an unreserved exhibition of this type of character, so frequently found among "statesmen" just now. From what he says the depredations in which he was engaged do not seem to have struck him as particularly bad, because he regarded them as part of "politics" as usually carried on. He considers the robbery merely as a subject for levity, remarking that "Printers are the light of the world, and should be taken care of as preferred creditors"; and, in expressing the hope that he may get the office of State Treasurer, records an intention in that event to "begin studying finance in earnest." This light humor does not interfere in the least with his piety, and he seems to have carefully avoided through all his straits the vice of profanity. "God grant," he exclaims, "that I may be saved from swearing!" One singular entry in his diary is an expression of regret (this is the only thing which he admits regretting) on account of a payment of $10,000 to "Chamberlain." Who can this be?

The machinery of the fraud is curiously like that of the Tweed Ring in getting up the famous "New York Printing Co.," in which the municipal thieves were stockholders, and plundered the Treasury in printing-bills. The "Carolina Printing Co." was organized in like manner in 1870, the leading members of the ring, including Scott, Parker, and D. H. Chamberlain, being the chief stockholders, and as usual they owned two newspapers, and then went to work. Woodruff's diary tells the rest of the story. On one occasion the thieves seem to have fallen out, but (Jan. 12) Chamberlain brought about a reconciliation "in a very nice way." Jones and Woodruff then "called on Governor Moses about effecting a settlement." "It was a hard day for Sunday," adds the pious rascal, "and I trust God will forgive us for our actions, as we could not help it."

One of the colored jurors who sat on the Anderson trial has written to the papers confirming the story that he and the other colored juror were deceived as to the effect of their recommendation to mercy, and declares, while claiming credit for considerable intelligence, as having been born and bred free and having received a good school education, that had they known that a verdict of guilty would send Anderson to the penitentiary in spite of the recommendation, they never would have found it. In other words, they thought him guilty, but did not think he deserved the penitentiary. He also says that one of the deputy-sheriffs conversed freely in their room at night with one of the jurors, but does not say on what subject. The story that the jury was "packed to convict" he disposes of by showing that three jurors from the beginning held out for acquittal. We believe there is no doubt that Anderson is to be pardoned, but we trust Governor Nicholls will not pardon him to go back to the Custom-house. He ought to agree to quit public life before being released.

Cuban sympathizers have received a severe blow in the announcement of a general capitulation of the insurgents and an amnesty by the Spanish Government. The official announcement has been made in the Spanish Cortes of the surrender of the Cuban Central Committee, the Executive, and the principal chiefs of the insurrection. All the troops actually under arms appear to have laid them down, in accordance with an agreement previously arrived at, last Saturday. The facts relating to the surrender confirm the view which we have from time to time expressed in these columns as to the extremely slender military basis on which Cuban belligerency has always rested. The total number of "troops" mentioned in the despatches as having come in are three thousand, and that these were anything more than guerillas does not appear. The principal terms of the peace, which has been effected by the labors of General Campos and Captain-General Jovellar, as published, are as follows: Political rights for Cuba identical with those enjoyed by Porto Rico; general amnesty for offences since 1868; freedom to the insurgent slaves and coolies; safe conduct and transportation for any insurgent wishing to leave the island. There are said to be, besides these, secret agreements providing for a civil governor, with duties distinct from those of the military governor; a provincial parliament in each of the three departments; popular elections for municipal officers; the inclusion of the war debt in the public estimates of the island; the dissolution of the volunteer corps of Havana, and the organization

of a new militia, to be composed alike of Cubans and Spaniards; a representation of the island in the Cortes; a recognition of the military rank of the insurgent chiefs and officers, and those accredited with foreign commissions, their rank "to be effective only in the list of the Spanish army in Cuba"; and the complete abolition of slavery in five years, with indemnity.

The news of this peace found the New York branch of the Cuban government actively engaged in carrying on the insurrection in Exchange Place and Broad Street, as well as at Washington. Señor Echeverria, the diplomatic agent, was at the time advocating the recognition of belligerent rights among members of Congress; but he hastened to the seat of government, at No. 35 Broadway, where an anxious band of patriots were gathered to meet Brigadier Gonzales, fresh from Cuba, with important despatches. From his credentials it appears that the brigadier had been furnished the means of transportation by the Spanish general-in-chief, and that on February 8 the Chamber of Representatives "in the State of Camaguay" had been dissolved, the Presidency of the Republic "consequently abolished," and the powers delegated to the members "taken back" by the people and delegated by them to a new committee, headed by Colonel Juan Spoturno. On receipt of these credentials the Cuban agents in New York incontinently resigned. It is a black business, and it is only natural that the sudden collapse of the insurrection should be attributed in some quarters to the liberal use of "Spanish gold."

The events of the week which most concerned the London and New York financial markets were the conclusion of the treaty of peace between Russia and Turkey, and the enactment of the Bland Silver Bill, as amended by the Senate, over the veto of the President. The first caused a buoyant market for securities in London, consols advancing ⅛ to 1 per cent. from the recent low prices; the effect here was to depress breadstuffs and provisions, but, strange as it may read, the stocks of railroads which would be most benefited by a lively export trade, such as an extension of the war would give, advanced. As to the effects of the Silver Bill, the price of silver in London when it became a law was 55⅛*d.* per ounce; from this it has declined to 54⅛*d.* per ounce. United States bonds in London at first declined ¼ to ½, but afterwards advanced 1 to 1½ per cent., and through all these fluctuations ruled enough below New York prices to make it profitable to buy them on that side and sell them on this. Gold fell from 101⅞ to 101¼, a movement which facilitated bond importations. Bills on London advanced ½ a cent to 4.84 and 4.86½. The decline in gold was wholly on account of considerations of supply and demand, and the absence of any disposition to speculate on the future effects on gold of silver remonetization. The bullion value of the 412½-grain silver dollar at the close of the week was $0.9106 gold, while the United States legal-tender note which will be paid with this dollar was $0.9864.

The Grand Duke Nicholas, in command of the Russian army in Turkey, has at last officially announced that the treaty of peace has been concluded, and its terms are now as fully known as they will be known until the text reaches St. Petersburg by courier—that is to say, in about ten days hence. To what the length of the negotiations has been due it is hard to say, as the Turks had no choice but to sign whatever was drawn up for them; but it looks as if the delay and the occasional revelation of enormous Russian demands were a sort of experiment on European opinion, so that the final abatement in the terms should wear the look of concession and pacify England and Austria. Bulgaria is to be, as heretofore announced, a tributary principality, but it is not to include Adrianople or Salonica, and the prince is not to belong to any European reigning house. It is to have the port of Kavala on the Ægean, and Varna and Burgas. All the Turkish fortresses north of the Balkans are to be razed and the troops withdrawn. Russia abandons her claim to the Egyptian and Bulgarian tribute, which probably was only made to be abandoned. The rest is much what was first announced. The troops are to go home by sea. It appears, also, by a solemn denial from Bismarck in the German Parliament, that the march to the defences of Constantinople was not stolen by means of delay in signing the armistice, but was provided for by the armistice itself. The question of the Dardanelles is reserved for future settlement.

The text of Prince Bismarck's speech on the Eastern complication, in reply to Herr von Benningsen's interpellation, has come out by the last mail, and is very interesting for the light it throws on the situation as the close of the war leaves it. He looks at it from first to last as it affects German interests, but gives his opinion somewhat freely as to its bearing on those of Austria and Russia. Turkey evidently no longer counts for anything in his eyes, and he begins by mentioning as the capital fact that Russia occupies Turkey from the Danube to the gates of Constantinople. The indemnity for the war, he says, is the affair of the belligerents. About the independence of Montenegro, Servia, and Rumania he does not care much. About the Dardanelles and the Danube, he will insist on freedom of navigation; he does not think that the passage of vessels of war has any more importance than the passage of merchant vessels, and believes that both will be settled, Russia consenting, in the spirit of the Treaty of Paris. He feels sure that Russia will see that her interest lies now in settling the Eastern Question so satisfactorily to England and Austria as to prevent all danger of a speedy renewal of trouble; and he maintains that, on the other hand, if Austria and England undertook to drive Russia out of Bulgaria, and succeeded, they would find themselves saddled with that very responsibility for the Christian population which Russia is now endeavoring to meet, and which they would have to meet on the line traced out by the Conference. He concludes, therefore, that nobody wishes to fight, and that there will be no fight, and believes there will be another, but this time successful, conference. As to Germany, anybody who supposes she is going to war to make herself the arbiter of Europe, Napoleonic fashion, or for any purpose except the protection of internal unity or in defence of interests so plain that in defending them the Government would be supported by the unanimous vote of the Federal Parliament and by the deep conviction and enthusiasm of the German nation, is greatly mistaken. He adds that Germany is in the best possible relations with Austria, England, and Russia, and, in fact, talks as if the world looked very bright and smiling in every direction.

In England something like calm has been restored, but everybody must by this time begin to feel somewhat foolish. The leaders of the Opposition, the Marquis of Hartington and Mr. Forster, left the House in order to avoid voting for the £6,000,000, and, in fact, the Liberals have apparently laid down their arms, fearing that their further preaching of peace would increase the popular excitement and precipitate war. But the danger of war really disappeared after the first mad day, and the public finds consolation in the reflection that, though the Russians really command Constantinople, they have not entered it. There has, indeed, never been any reason to suppose that Russia meant to touch any of the "interests" which Lord Derby defined, at the beginning of hostilities, as British. Moreover the situation is greatly complicated by the all but certainty that Turkey has gone into alliance with Russia, and cares nothing for England any more, so that it would be impossible now, if war was entered on, to say what it was for or when it would end. The £6,000,000 has been all spent, and military preparations continue with unabated vigor, and the House has voted 135,452 men for the army for the coming year, which Mr. Hardy called a peace footing. About 35,000 men, ready for foreign service, are shortly to be assembled in camp, which must, as a threat, amuse the Russian staff.

THE INCOME-TAX AND THE SILVER AGITATORS.

A PETITION against the bill, now before the House, reviving the income-tax has been numerously signed in this city, and in Baltimore, Philadelphia, and Boston. It sets forth, as the leading objections to the tax, that it is impolitic, as a tax on industry and thrift; that it is unjust, as a tax on the industry and savings of the individual, which does not, like other taxes, diffuse itself through the community by entering into prices under the laws of trade; that it cannot be collected fairly because its apportionment has to be left largely to the conscience of the taxpayer, so that the unscrupulous escape it and the honest bear the burden; that when first imposed it was only collected from 275,000 persons, and when the exemption was raised to $2,000, it was only collected from 115,000 in a population of 40,000,000; that, finally, it is, in the opinion of eminent lawyers, unconstitutional, under Art. I., Sec. 9, which provides, as a protection against the fiscal oppression of one portion of the Union at the expense of another, that "no capitation or other direct tax shall be laid unless in proportion to the census or enumeration heretofore directed to be taken." It will, therefore, be resisted, and most likely with success, before the Supreme Court. We confess we rely on this appeal to the courts to defeat it rather than on this or any other petition to the present Congress. The arguments of the petition are unanswerable, and they are the kind of arguments against a tax which ought to have most weight with a civilized legislature, for the sole object of a civilized legislature in levying any tax ought to be the raising of the needful amount of revenue with the least possible amount of vexation or inconvenience to taxpayers of all classes and conditions, and the most equitable possible distribution of the burden among taxpayers of all classes and conditions. Into nothing is it less proper to allow passion or prejudice of any kind to enter than into the levying of taxes; in no way can the seeds of ineradicable social hates and dissensions be so readily sown as by making taxation the expression of hostility of any kind, or by imposing it in the interest of any class or section of the community. The legislator levying a tax ought, in fact, to sympathize with the feelings of every honest man, whether rich or poor, who is to be called upon to pay it.

But there has since 1860 been a good deal of departure from these sound rules. The tariff which was imposed after the war broke out, however good the intentions of its framers may have been, very speedily began to be administered in a spirit of hostility to all persons engaged in foreign trade, and was finally successful in bringing foreign trade into a kind of disrepute and presenting foreign importers to the public as presumptive smugglers and enemies of the Government. The moiety legislation and the appearance on the scene of detectives like Jayne with his handcuffs were the natural result of the growth of this policy, and a decided approximation to the taxing system of Oriental monarchies, in which the taxpayer is treated as the prey of the collector, to be hunted down and, when caught, tortured if necessary. The United States Custom-house ought, in the proper order of political development, to be that in which the greatest care is taken to shield the honest taxpayer from inconvenience. For some years after the war, however, it stood in this respect in the rear rank among those of other civilized nations.

With the rage for city and town improvements, and the consequent great increase of local taxation, which followed closely on the war, there arose that eagerness to throw the weight of municipal burdens on the rich or well-to-do, and that vexatious spirit in trying to gratify it which is still at this moment perhaps the most formidable fact in the problem of municipal government. There is hardly a city in the country, and particularly at the East, in which the taxing and assessing power is not lodged in the hands of men possessing but little property themselves and representing those who possess none; and they have done a good deal to erect the owners of houses and lots, and especially the owners of large lots, into a class possessing interests separate from those of the community, who ought to be made to bear not a fair share of the public burdens, but as large a share as possible, and be well vexed in the process. Everything lawful is therefore done to harass them and make the possession of visible property seem onerous and shameful. The system has reached its climax in Boston, where the houses of rich men have been watched by detectives so as to catch them as residents on the first of May, the assessing day, and thus abridge their right of escaping heavy taxation by having a domicile elsewhere, and produce the impression among poor and ignorant voters that it is the rich who ought to contribute mainly to the city expenses, and that they were knavish in trying to get away. In other cases, again, assessors have sought to give expression to the popular dislike of large places within city limits by high valuations even of land not offered for sale, or for which there may be no sale, but which *might* be cut into small lots, as if there was something criminal or anti-social in the luxury of having a large garden round one's house, or as if it was proper to carry out in administration views of public policy which have not been expressed in legislation. But municipal government ought to be so administered as to attract wealth and not to repel it, and ease in escaping municipal taxation by residence elsewhere ought to be encouraged as the very best check on the excesses and extravagance of the class who now administer municipal affairs. In this way cities would begin to compete for population and capital, not simply in boulevards and asphalt pavements, but in low taxation and administrative courtesy and efficiency.

Last of all, the present silver agitation has produced among the farmers and laborers of a large portion of the country hostile feelings towards bankers, merchants, and all that class of persons who do the business of exchange, and this has more than anything else caused the attempt to revive the income-tax. That is to say, it is not really offered as a good way of raising a certain amount of revenue, but as a good way of harassing an obnoxious class residing mainly in a particular region, and therefore has something of the character of a bill of pains and penalties. The arguments used against it in the petition have, therefore, the fatal defect of pointing out as an objection to the bill the probability that it will produce the very results at which its promoters are aiming. They seek to punish the "gold-bugs" and the Money Power for opposing the remonetization of silver and for expecting interest on their loans, and, if the bill does this, will not be troubled by its discouraging thrift, or its working injustice in the sense in which the petitioners use the term, or by the impossibility of its fair collection. It is in giving strength and even fierceness to this class-hatred that the silver agitation has done most mischief. The Silver Bill can be repealed, or its evils neutralized, but the delusions which have been propagated in advocating it will remain and furnish the soil in which many other legislative follies may grow. In fact, the probabilities at this moment seem to be that the propriety of giving accumulations of capital proper legal protection, or of not discouraging them by hostile legislation and unequal taxation, will be the next party question in our politics. A more unfortunate one could hardly come up in a democratic country, for it is one which more than any other infuses bitterness into party strife.

The notion that bankers and merchants and manufacturers have interests apart from those of the rest of the community, or get more advantage out of a stable standard of value than a workingman, is, of course, a deplorable hallucination, and the silver agitators who have spread it are either knavish or demented. The real "Wall-Street speculators," against whom the West is so much roused, will probably make more out of a fluctuating standard than any other class of men; but they are only a very small proportion of the moneyed class. This, as a whole, is created by and thrives on the general prosperity, and is necessary to the general prosperity, and lives and has to live by honest courses. That the machinery of credit and exchange can in any country be successfully managed by rogues and gamblers is a ludicrous mistake. Nearly every speech and article produced in support of the Silver Bill has, indeed, been largely made up of denunciations of the very class on whose skill, judgment,

and integrity the prosperity of the community depends, and to whose boldness the material progress of the United States has been due. If these ravings should result in a permanent condition of popular feeling calculated to make capital timid, and substitute hoarding or foreign loans for investment at home, it would not only check the growth of the country but change greatly for the worse the character of American society. To discourage hatreds and jealousies, and get rid of the delusion that a man can remain rich among us without employing his wealth in useful production, ought to be the first object with every one who has any influence with the masses. We wish there was some way of punishing those—wretches is the proper name for them—who, during the past year, have been poisoning their minds with the dregs of European Communism as a means of attacking the national credit.

THE WAR POWER OF ENGLAND.

THE history of the war crisis in England, even in the incoherent shape in which it reaches us through the mails and the telegraph, is an exceedingly interesting study in English politics. Nothing could well be worse than the blunders of the Ministry, except the blunders of the Opposition, and yet both have the same source, and that source is the desire of the country to hold her old influence in Continental politics without adopting Continental methods of creating and retaining influence. That is to say, the great reason, and in fact the controlling one, for not going to war with Russia is the want of an army, and this same reason has, since 1848, caused a steady decline in the weight of Great Britain in European politics. The Crimean war was measurably successful—that is, it brought Russia to her knees and postponed the overthrow of the Turks for twenty years—but it also dissipated completely the prestige of Waterloo, and revealed the inability of wooden fleets to hold their own any longer against shore batteries armed with modern artillery. Not only did it bring to light the defects of England's military organization, but it proved that she could not readily, with the volunteer system, raise a second army, small as the first was. The recruits which were sent out to fill the ranks in 1854–5 were notoriously so young and "weedy" that nobody thought with either pride or comfort of the force which would have attempted to carry on the war if the peace negotiations had not been successful. Luckily, Russia had been exhausted in an attempt to defend without railroads a point on a remote frontier, so that the Allies were able to go home with the air of victors, and having substantially accomplished their object; but the result was none the less injurious to English influence. France bore away most of the honors of the fray, and in England the first feeling of pride at English valor, as displayed in the war, was succeeded by a humiliating sense of having been "sold" by the French Emperor.

The full extent of England's incapacity to maintain her place in Continental councils was not, however, made plain until 1866, when the success of the Prussian military system astonished the world and caused what may be called the impressment of all able-bodied men on the Continent for military service. The semi-consciousness of this in English military circles caused that outbreak of hostility to Prussia which was nearly as striking during the Franco-Prussian war as the present hostility to Russia, and led to the sort of mild panic which followed the publication of the 'Battle of Dorking.' In fact, the alternative was then plainly presented and fully recognized that she must either confine herself to a rôle like that of Holland—the rôle of a peaceful trader—able, it is true, to defend vigorously all she has got, but not anxious for anything more, or else raise a standing army adequate to her pretensions by the conscription; a measure which, even if submitted to by the people, would involve very radical social and political changes, and might, indeed, change greatly the distribution of power. It is the unwillingness either to abate these pretensions or raise the army which led to such humiliating situations as that which preceded the Treaty of London and followed the refusal of Russia to abide by the restrictions of the Treaty of Paris on her naval force in the Black Sea, and that through which Great Britain is now passing. The resource of subsidizing Continental allies, which was freely resorted to in the last French war, is no longer open. Continental powers are not so willing to be paid for fighting, and in the present condition of English opinion no Ministry would dare to resort to it. Moreover, the improvement in the condition of the laboring class, valuable as it is in other ways, has rendered recruiting exceedingly difficult, in spite of all that has been done to make the soldier's life attractive as regards pay, quarters, and discipline. Ireland, too, was during the Napoleonic wars a great nursery of recruits. The population was large and increasing, and the peasantry were very poor, ignorant, and light-hearted, and untroubled by the political cares and ambitions which they have since the Catholic Emancipation taken on themselves. The army which exists is highly equipped and well officered, but even the showy account given of it by Sir Garnet Wolseley in the last number of the *Nineteenth Century* only produces 40,000 men ready for active foreign service; and of his total of 400,000, 180,000 are volunteers—that is, armed shopkeepers, lawyers, and doctors who occasionally parade. The proposal to draw on the Indian army for a European contest of serious proportions is one which can hardly be entertained in England, and which would not be considered as worthy of attention in India, though India would doubtless furnish a fine recruiting ground for an army to be used against Russia two or three years hence. But in our time armies which have still to be raised do not count, and, indeed, it may be said neither do armies which are not ready to march. The Germans keep even their wagons packed in time of profound peace. No army counts for one of our great wars of to-day which cannot spare 25,000 to 30,000 to be killed and wounded and missing for the first engagement; or, in other words, the total force with which Great Britain is threatening Russia.

The great danger of this state of things to England—and the increased sobriety of the ministers within the last week or two seems to indicate that they appreciate it—is that the irritation produced by the continued and growing disregard of her threats on the Continent may some fine day plunge her into a war, under the influence of intense popular excitement, in which she would undergo tremendous loss and humiliation before she recovered her senses. There has in the present case been a narrow escape from this. The false rumor that the Russians had occupied Constantinople threw London for a whole day into a state of frenzy, disorganized the Opposition in the House of Commons, and caused the prompt despatch of the fleet to the Sea of Marmora. It is now, however, acknowledged on all hands that had it not been for Russian moderation and timidity the result might have been in the highest degree disastrous; for, had the Russians been bent on fighting, and continued their advance on Gallipoli, and occupied the Turkish forts, the fleet would have been caught in a trap.

What is worse than all is that the political influence which is lost, and which might be called well lost, through the reluctance of the country to encounter the perils and burdens of a large standing army, is not replaced by moral influence. Friendship with foreign states and races is either not cultivated by the Government and the press or not cultivated opportunely—that is, not until it has through some turn in the wheel of fortune become valueless. Nearly every state or race in the world which has ever been in difficulties of any kind during the last fifty years has had reason to accuse England either of treachery or hostility. Her cordial sympathy appears to be reserved for the victors in bloody struggles. In the present imbroglio the shocking massacres in Bulgaria were when the news reached England made a joke of by the Prime Minister, and the Ambassador at Constantinople made the atrocious statement in a published despatch that the Turkish habit of massacring 20,000 or 30,000 persons at a time was of no consequence if the maintenance of their rule was necessary to the protection of "British interests." Through the whole contest, too, both the Government and its organs in the press pursued a course of nagging hostility to all the races engaged in the crusade against the Turks. Russians, Rumanians, Servians, Montenegrins, and Bulgarians were all reviled and ridi-

culed with unswerving persistence and impartiality. They have succeeded, and now look on England as an enemy and Russia as a deliverer, and Southeastern Europe is in their hands, and they are entering, we have no doubt, on a great career of prosperity. Unfortunately, too, that horror of bloodshed which shows itself so strongly in British opinion about other people's wars vanishes, when "British interests" are in the smallest degree imperilled, with a rapidity which fills the world with mingled amusement and disgust. The English press has at one time or another during the last eighteen years been filled with lamentations over the sanguinary propensities of Americans, Germans, and Italians, and Russians, Servians, and Montenegrins, and lamentations apparently so sincere that many people were ready to believe that the British public had come to the conclusion that war was too horrid a thing to be undertaken for anything but national existence. There is something more than surprise, therefore, when they hear that if the Russians enter Constantinople there is not a man in England who would not wade knee-deep in blood in order to drive them out, and perceive that along with immense warlike fervor there exists at this moment no agreement as to the objects of war with Russia; so that it seems sometimes to the scoffers as if the most peaceable, long-suffering, and humane people in the world were going to fight the Czar in order to let him know they did not like or trust him, and did not care a snap for him.

AFTER ONE YEAR OF PRESIDENT HAYES.

WASHINGTON, March 2, 1878.

THE passage of the Silver Bill over the veto had so long been felt to be certain that when it occurred it can hardly be said to have had much financial interest. That the majority was so large and the action on the veto so prompt was undoubtedly due in part to the feeling of many of those, in both houses, who were secretly or openly opposed to the bill, that it was not the worst thing that could happen us, and that it was good policy, since its passage was sure, to make it also rapid before the friends of the measure had time to find out to what a small extent it would serve their purpose. It is now acknowledged even by its more rabid advocates that it will not bring immediate prosperity, which will be sad news to the Western debtor, inasmuch as without the free coinage and more mints the supply of silver coin cannot be greatly increased for two years. Moreover there is, as after the passage of the Resumption Act in 1875, considerable uncertainty on both sides as to its effects. There is an absurdity which every one can see in all emotional finance, and if it were left to the emotional financiers to draught and pass their bills they would meet with but little success. But in Congress they usually succeed in frightening the rational men into compromising with them and taking charge of their schemes, and putting provisions into them that will render them harmless. The compromise effected, each party is too much afraid that the other will back out to be willing to submit to any further delay, and the thing, whatever it be, is pushed through so as to "get it out of the way" and enable the legislators to get ready for the fall election. By and by an "indignant, outraged, and deceived people" discovers the folly or humbug of the affair; but the people is soon occupied with something else and forgets it or smiles over it. There must have been some funny finance when the Barbarians first began to take charge of the Roman Fisc, but whether since that time there has been anything in Christendom that can quite equal the way in which some of our Congressmen deal with the delicate problems of trade and taxation, is doubtful. It is difficult as yet to say how the Western supporters of the silver movement will receive the bill when they discover its real nature, but it would be characteristic as well as amusing if they accused the present Congress also of having entered into a conspiracy with "the gold bugs."

In truth, the most interesting thing in the passage of the bill over the veto was the illustration it afforded of the contempt of the majority for the President. Courtesy as well as usage required if not the reference of the message to a committee, at least enough delay to enable the members to read it for themselves and give its contents, at all events, slight consideration. But there was no more respect paid to it than the rules required, and as much scorn heaped on it as they permitted. The performance, too, expressed pretty fairly—as far as I can see or learn—the feeling of the political world here. The President not only has no party, but not even individual supporters. His best friends are mere apologists—and they apologize faintly and coldly. The message was a good one, and stated clearly and strongly not all the objections to the bill, but the principal ones, and the ones most likely to be effective with the thoughtful and intelligent portion of the American people. Yet very few are disposed to concede to it more than the credit of consistency. Most people say that he had to stick to the position of his inaugural. Firmness in holding ground he has once taken few deny him, but there is general complaint that he is greatly wanting in decision, and wavers much and long before taking up any ground at all. The stories one hears in illustration of this are numerous, and there is something melancholy—though to a person of a philosophic turn it has its comic side—in seeing the calm with which they are repeated to you by many who, during the canvass of last year, were vociferous in their guarantees that if there was one thing more than another for which Rutherford B. Hayes was distinguished, it was the clearness of his mind on all great topics, and the rapidity with which he laid out his course with regard to anything he had on hand. There are many reasons for believing, however, that this indecision is often more apparent than real; that is, that he sometimes affects not to have made up his mind long after he has done so, in the belief, as well as one can make out, that in the interval by some course of persuasion or cajolement he will be able to win over or pacify the opponents of what he has resolved on. The result is apt to be, however, that when his final determination is announced, they are able to quote a great many things he has said to them of an obscure or ambiguous character to support the charge of having imposed upon them, or, to use their own favorite phrase, of having "lied to them." The effect of this—whatever construction one may put on it—in diminishing his moral authority one does not need to point out. I might cite many illustrations of it, but one will suffice. I believe there is no doubt that the removal of Simmons was resolved on finally at least a month ago, and yet he was allowed to leave his post and come here to "work" for reappointment for two or three weeks, and lead the whole country to suppose that he was fighting a doubtful battle in the old fashion, with "headquarters" and "lieutenants" and "backers," and to be "weakening" or "gaining strength" from day to day, to the great scandal and discouragement, of course, not only of civil-service reformers, but of the civil service itself.

I have endeavored, and I think with success, to get to the bottom of the great mystery of the present Administration, and that is, the cause of what civil-service reformers consider the total, or all but total, disregard of the principles of civil-service reform by the President in his appointments, and his failure, though the first year of his administration is gone, to produce any systematic plan of reform. The explanation, like that of the Columbus egg-problem, is so simple that I am afraid the discovery will not bring me the credit I really deserve. It is that by civil-service reform he meant simply the exclusion of Congressmen from all share in the patronage, and not the imposition of any restrictions whatever on himself, the appointing power. The best form (for him) in which I have heard the case stated is that he looks on this exclusion, not as the whole of civil-service reform, but as the first or principal step in it; but I incline to think that he really has honestly, from the beginning, believed that that was all the civil-service reform he was required to carry out, and that it would furnish work enough for his term. Of course it is surprising that, even from this point of view, he should not have perceived the necessity, in order to make the exclusion of Congressmen permanent and win popular support for it, of making his exclusive use of the patronage respectable and thoroughly defensible. He evidently has not done so, however, and his failure to do so must be accepted as a sign of mental limitations for which his supporters were not prepared. But this, like other shortcomings, I cannot help ascribing, in part at least, as you have more than once done in your columns, to the defective if not dishonest character of the Presidential canvass, in which nothing was done to enlighten him or the people on what were really to be the great questions of his term of office.

As regards the condition and prospects of reform at Washington, they are easily described. Mr. Hayes has effected a real work of purification—that is, if he has not "disestablished the machine," he has made it decent. The oil is of better quality, and has no offensive odor. The frequenters of the White House are reputable and respectable, and there is no "mind-poisoning" going on in it. No notorious cheat, or knave, or jobber expects to get any shelter or support there against pursuit from the outside. The President, too, is ready to discuss and be persuaded, and even listen to vigorous remonstrance, and he is in sufficiently close relation with the intellectual currents of his time to be open to new ideas, and be capable of revising his own position. I am led to believe that he sees some of his mistakes, and that in-

deed a good deal of light has made its way into his brain since his election. I doubt, for instance, whether, if it were to do over again, so many "visiting statesmen" would have received high office, and whether all connection with Wells and Anderson would not have been repudiated from the first hour. But when one has said this, one has said all or nearly all that one can say on this side. There are only three departments at Washington in which reform is a practical and pressing question—the Treasury, the Post-Office, and the Interior. In the Treasury the matter has until now received no attention whatever. Secretary Sherman is neither opposed to it nor in favor of it; he simply cares nothing about it. It is to him a question of "lunar politics." The Postmaster-General, I understand, approves of it, and would like to see it triumph, which does not prevent Mr. Tyner, his Assistant, a "henchman" of the late Senator Morton, from conducting the department on the old plan and expressing openly his contempt for the proposed change. In the Interior the reform *is* strictly carried out, amidst greater obstacles than would be encountered anywhere else. Appointments are made through competitive selection; promotions are made for merit; investigations are conducted with the view of finding things out, and Congressmen have ceased to interfere, and Indian agents begin to find their life a sad one and their reward small. But then this is done under great difficulties—in the teeth of the fierce hostility of Congressmen, and of assaults of all kinds on the Secretary, set on foot by persons whom his "theorizing" is in one way or another likely to injure, the variety and malignity of which would be very amusing if I had space to illustrate them. One favorite device, the announcement of his approaching resignation, which was doubtless intended to dishearten and alarm the new agents, has not been resorted to for many weeks, and has probably been given up. Now, the curious thing in all this is that the indifference of the Treasury, the open recalcitrancy of the Post-office, and the zeal of the Interior, all receive the same tolerance and support from the President. He stands by Schurz, and also by Sherman and Tyner, with Roman firmness and Christian equanimity, and while making some appointments on the new plan makes plenty also on the old one, and is all the while as happy, from what I hear, as Parson Konak of Berlin, who maintains that the earth is flat as a pancake, and smiles at the astronomers. The explanations of this philosophy which one hears at Washington are, of course, various and contradictory. Many of his friends and supporters set it down in a shamefaced way to simple stupidity; his enemies, on the other hand, ascribe it to inherent wickedness darkened by the consciousness of fraud. The truth is probably, as I have before hinted, simply that his mental range and grasp and strength of will were greatly overrated during the canvass, and that while he is not doing as well as his warmest supporters tried to believe he would do, he is doing as well as they had the smallest reason to expect. I heard rumors of (under the circumstances) an unpleasant kind, that he already begins "never to look at the papers" and "not to mind what the papers say," which, if true, is, and in a government like ours must be, the forerunner either of fresh mistakes or of unhappy persistence in old ones—a proposition which is true even if "the papers" are all that those who most despise them say they are. Does it not seem as if Washington was the seat of a sort of mental and moral malaria, which neither Christians nor philosophers can resist, and which reduces some of the best men to light-hearted forgetfulness of their most solemn vows and best intentions almost as soon as they arrive? Judging from what one hears and sees of the destruction of political character which goes on in it, one is almost surprised that Congressional legislation is as good as it is.

VIAN'S MONTESQUIEU.

PARIS, February 9.

MONTESQUIEU is perhaps the most serious figure of the French literature of the nineteenth century. Though he did sometimes "sacrifice to the Graces," to use the language of the time, and wrote the vapid 'Temple de Gnide,' he stands before history as the author of the 'Esprit des lois,' one of those books which defy time, and which will always be read by the political philosopher. A young lawyer, M. Louis Vian, has attempted to write the life of Montesquieu with the most minute exactness—not in the vague and apologetic style which has so long been the fashion, but with the precision to which Sainte-Beuve has accustomed the later generation. M. Laboulaye, who writes a short preface to the work of M. Vian, notices with reason that among the famous men of the eighteenth century Montesquieu is perhaps the least known. The *Eloges* of D'Alembert, Maupertuis, and others are too academical. M. Vian began fifteen years ago to collect the editions of Montesquieu; from a mere bibliophile he became a historian. He has made real discoveries simply in turning over the pages of the various copies of the 'Esprit des lois,' and has detected in all the works of Montesquieu the hand of the censor, who was always curtailing and changing the works submitted to him.

Montesquieu was born in the manorial château of La Brède, not far from Bordeaux; his father was Jacques de Brède Secondat, Baron of Montesquieu; his mother was of English extraction. The Secondats had formerly belonged to the Huguenot court of the Queen of Navarre. The young Montesquieu was educated in the school of the Oratorians at Juilly, near Meaux, where he remained eleven years, till 1711. His family belonged to what was called the nobility of the Parlements; his two grandfathers had been presidents at the Parlement of Guyenne; his uncle was still president. He devoted himself naturally to the study of the law, which was then a difficult one, as it comprehended the Roman law, the canonical law, and the numerous *Coutumes* of the French provinces. He pursued his law studies at Bordeaux, and was named at the age of twenty-five Counsellor of the Parlement of Bordeaux. One year afterwards he was married to a Protestant young lady, Jeanne Lartigue; and the marriage presented some difficulties, as the young bride was a zealous Calvinist, and refused to change her religion. At that time the Protestants had ceased to have any civil rights. Since the revocation of the Edict of Nantes it was forbidden to open a Protestant chapel. Protestants, and even Catholics who were married before a Protestant minister, were not legally married. Montesquieu and his bride could have no Protestant service; they were married in the Catholic church of St. Michel in Bordeaux, and the priest was supposed not to know that the bride was a Calvinist. Nobody was invited to the ceremony, and Montesquieu's relations were absent. It has always been supposed that Montesquieu married Jeanne Lartigue because she had a large dower, as she was plain, a little lame, and he did not respect the ties of matrimony any more than most of his contemporaries.

At the death of his uncle, Montesquieu became in his place president *à mortier* of the Parlement of Guyenne, an office which could at that time, like so many others, be left by inheritance. (The *mortier* was a cap of black velvet with a gilt band.) He was well prepared for his difficult functions; the Parlement of Bordeaux followed the Roman law in many matters, but had also to give application to no less than ten provincial *Coutumes*. At the age of thirty he published the famous 'Lettres Persanes.' The book appeared, without any author's name, at Paris under the false designation of Cologne, in 1721; its success was immense. The Regency was beginning, and the tone of the 'Letters Persanes' suited a society which was tired of the severity of the latter part of the reign of Louis XIV. The frivolity of the form masked what might have alarmed the clergy and even the Government. Montesquieu himself always spoke lightly of this work, which he called a "péché de jeunesse." The clergy objected, however, to some parts; the Persians of Montesquieu spoke of the world as eternal; they did not believe that the foresight of God could be combined with the liberty of man. Cardinal Dubois thought it necessary to interdict a work which offended monarchy and religion.

Montesquieu had become a "lion"; he made the acquaintance at the Hôtel Soubise of all the men of letters; he became a member of the "Club de l'Entre-sol," founded by Lord Bolingbroke, with the philanthropic Abbé of St. Pierre, with D'Argenson and others. He wrote at that time the 'Dialogue of Sylla and Eucrates,' a splendid page of rhetoric, which is a sort of preface to the 'Considerations on the Rise and Fall of the Romans.' He wrote also the erotic 'Temple de Gnide' for Mademoiselle de Clermont, a sister of the Duke of Bourbon. Montesquieu long disavowed this work, which was at the time attributed to Fontenelle and to the President Hénault. It is, however, certain that the popularity which the 'Temple de Gnide' gave to Montesquieu in the corrupt society of the time assisted him not a little to be named a member of the French Academy. His election, however, was annulled, as the statutes of the Academy required every member to live in Paris, and Montesquieu was obliged to reside chiefly in Bordeaux. (These statutes have not been changed, though many members of the Academy to-day live chiefly in the provinces; it is enough if they appear from time to time at the Institute.)

Montesquieu was tired of the obscure honors of Bordeaux; he sold his place as soon as he could, and fixed himself in Paris. He was re-elected to the French Academy, chiefly by the influence of the Marchioness of Lambert, who kept at the time the keys of the Immortals' *cœnaculum*. The election was a real battle, as the clergy made great efforts against the author of the 'Lettres Persanes.' Cardinal Fleury wished to read

the famous 'Lettres,' and in a few days a copy was prepared in which the "dangerous" passages had been suppressed. This fraud was accomplished by the introduction of new pages, which our printers call *cartons*. Montesquieu was already preparing the 'Esprit des Lois,' and, in order to enlarge his horizon, he undertook long journeys in Germany, in Hungary, in Italy, in Holland, and in England. It is a great pity that he did not publish the diary of his travels. He left Paris in company with Lord Waldegrave, who was going as Ambassador to Vienna. In Italy he joined Lord Chesterfield. It was in Rome that Montesquieu formed the project of his 'Considerations on the Rise and Fall of the Romans.' He remained eighteen months in England, in company with Chesterfield, with Lord Bolingbroke, with Walpole; he sums up his observations on his travels in short sentences: "When I am in France, I am friendly with everybody; in England, with nobody; in Italy, I make compliments to everybody; in Germany, I drink with everybody." On his return to France, he went to his Château de la Brède, made an English park, entailed his property, and asked that it should be named a marquisate. He published the 'Considérations' first at Amsterdam, afterwards in Paris. This book met with little success, and the "beaux-esprits" of Paris said that the 'Lettres Persanes' had been the "rise," and that the 'Considérations' were the "fall" of Montesquieu.

When he went to Paris, Montesquieu lived habitually at the Duchesse d'Aiguillon's. She gave a *souper* every Saturday; she was, in the words of Gustave III., the living journal of the court, of the town, of the provinces, of the Academy. Voltaire was one of her correspondents. "Madame d'Aiguillon," says Madame du Deffand, "has a mouth drawn in (*enfoncée*), her nose is not very straight, her eye is mad and audacious, and nevertheless she is handsome. Her beautiful complexion has the best of the irregularity of her features. Her waist is coarse; her arms are enormous. Strength takes the place of lightness." Montesquieu was fond of society, but he said: "I prefer the houses where I can get along with my every-day *esprit*." He knew Madame du Deffand, Madame Geoffrin, Madame de Rochefort, but he was not one of their *intimes*.

Montesquieu did not write with his own hand in the latter part of his life, as his eyes had become weak. He dictated the 'Esprit des lois' to his secretaries. This great work was composed in the library of the Château de la Brède, an immense room which can still be seen; it is on the first floor of the château, and is as much as seventeen metres long and eleven broad. On the doors are devices; one—

"Au magistrat rends humble obéissance;
Il a de Dieu ces honneur et puissance."

On the other, one reads—

"Ton Dieu surtout aime d'amour extrême,
Et ton prochain comme toi-même."

The books are still in the wooden bookcases, and many of them have old paper-marks between their leaves. The catalogue of this library has been published by M. Gustave Brunet; it is chiefly composed of classics, and comprises the most important works of Greek and Roman antiquity.

Montesquieu had given the printing of the 'Lettres Persanes' and of the 'Considérations' to Holland. He chose Switzerland for his 'Esprit des lois'; the book appeared in Geneva, in two volumes in 4to. It had for its epigraph "Prolem sine matre creatam," and, in fact, it can hardly be compared to any work published before it. Montesquieu studies in it, in a scientific spirit, the philosophy of government. I will not attempt to analyze it. Every man of culture knows Montesquieu's definitions of the various forms of government, his classification of the great forces which control and govern humanity. The French censorship did not allow the publication of Montesquieu without some changes. M. Vian gives us the text of the *cartons* which embody the exactions of the controllers of French public opinion. It is almost painful to read them, and to imagine that men have held office with the special mission of veiling the truth by a few words and epithets. It was thought seriously that grammar might be a barrier to the revolutionary spirit which was already pervading France. The revolutionists of '93 did not derive their inspiration from Montesquieu. The president of Bordeaux was not a leveller like Rousseau; he was more like an English Tory; he had no objection to representing "abuses" himself, though he understood the necessities of the time and had a progressive mind. His great book, notwithstanding the changes made in the *cartons*, was finally forbidden in France; but it was as much read and more than if the censors had allowed its sale.

Montesquieu did not write much after his great effort; he had completely lost his eyesight; he died in Paris, the 10th February, 1755, at the age of sixty-six years. His body had disappeared in 1793, and was probably thrown into the Catacombs.

Correspondence.

GODWIN'S 'CYCLOPÆDIA OF BIOGRAPHY.'

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: A reader of the letter of Mr. Parke Godwin in the *Nation* of February 21, in reference to the 'Cyclopædia of Biography,' might (if unacquainted with the history of the work) easily obtain the impression, which we are confident Mr. Godwin could not have intended to convey, that the publishers were now "revamping," with inconsiderable additions, a work which had been practically superannuated and had been out of sale for some years, and that this reissue was made without proper authority.

So far is this from being the case, that under the imprint of G. P. Putnam, Hurd & Houghton, and ourselves, the book has been kept in continuous sale from the date of its first publication to the present time, and it has never been published or known under any other name than 'Godwin's Cyclopædia.'

In adding the two supplements of 1865 and 1877, care was taken both on the title-pages and in the prefaces to make it clear that the original editor had no responsibility for the additional material, and we do not understand that, until this letter of last month, Mr. Godwin had ever claimed the right or expressed the wish to have the title of the work altered.

The two supplements appear to have been well executed, and to have brought no discredit upon the original work, as they have received the favorable notices of the best critics, and have enabled the book to hold its own against the competition of other works of the class. Some corrections have been made in the first portion of the book, but, as your literary editor has, with kind courtesy, taken pains to advise us in *two* successive numbers of your paper, some further errors still remain, which are now receiving our attention.

We have yet to find a work of reference in which the searching process of criticism could not bring to light a list of errors, and we would merely claim for the 'Cyclopædia of Biography,' in justice as well to Mr. Godwin as to its later editors, that, as well for accuracy as for general serviceability, it will compare favorably with both English and American works of its class; and we are content to leave to the public the decision as to its permanent value.—Yours truly,

G. P. Putnam's Sons.

REPUDIATION MADE EASY.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In your last issue I notice a letter from a correspondent relative to municipal indebtedness in Missouri, and as I have recently received a circular from a regularly appointed official swindler upon the same business, I beg to enclose it herewith, and ask that you will make such use of it as will best serve the interests of honest men. I have already shown it to parties who have *heretofore* invested largely in Western securities. It is about as barefaced an invitation from the State to the cities and towns to cheat their creditors as one would care to see even in these times.

Respectfully yours, F. E. Seaver.

Boston, March 2, 1878.

[We subjoin the circular referred to by our correspondent, and a portion of the statute printed on the same sheet.—Ed. Nation.]

Office of General County, City, and Municipal Agent of the State of Missouri,
Jefferson City, Mo., February 26, 1878.

The undersigned gives notice of his appointment as General County, City, and Municipal Agent of the State of Missouri.

The object of the law creating this office is to bring about an acquaintance and, if possible, a mutual understanding between defaulting or insolvent municipalities and their creditors, which will result in an adjustment of existing municipal debts upon a fair and honorable basis, and upon a plan which offers more security and better guarantees to the bondholder and a lighter burden to the debtor, and thus advantageous to both. Attention is called to our new Constitution and recent legislation, by which the issue of municipal bonds is restricted almost to prohibition, and compromise or renewal registered bonds are authorized, the principal and interest of which is collected by the State.

Full and authentic information in regard to any county, city, or township bond issued by any municipality within this State will be furnished upon application.

It is the desire of this department to put itself in personal and direct communication with every Missouri bondholder.

JAMES CRAIG,
General County, City, and Municipal Agent of Missouri.

EXTRACT CHAPTER 22, ARTICLE II., STATUTES OF MISSOURI.

SECTION 1. That with a view to enable negotiations to be conducted between the municipalities in this State, whether county, city, township or other municipality, which may be disposed to effect a compromise or composition of their bonded debts, principal and interest due or to become due, and the creditors or holders of bonds issued by or in behalf of such municipality, there shall be appointed by the governor a General County, City, and Municipal Agent, who shall hold his office for two years, and who shall be authorized to receive proposals from the authorized agents of the municipalities, in regard to the terms upon which said municipalities will settle, and to ascertain from the holders of said bonds, so far as they are known, upon what terms they are willing to accept new bonds, upon what rate of interest, and what times of payment, subject to the conditions hereinafter specified. . . .

SECTION 4. The General County, City, and Municipal Agent shall, as his compensation, be entitled to a percentage on the amount of debts thus compromised, as shall be previously agreed upon, not to exceed one-tenth of one per cent., to be paid by the county, city, or other municipality in whose favor such composition is effected.

SECTION 9. It shall be the duty of the General County, City, and Municipal Agent appointed under this act to ascertain, as far as practicable, the holders of the bonds referred to in this act by correspondence and by publication in one or more newspapers.

AN OBJECTION TO BI-METALLISM.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: There is one objection to the theory of bi-metallism which deserves more attention than it has attracted, and which is, I believe, entirely ignored by Cernuschi. This objection is that the functions of gold and silver as mediums of exchange are not only not identical, but the tendency of civilization is to differentiate them more and more.

Gold, as a medium of exchange, is most useful in large payments; silver in small payments. Somewhere below ten dollars there is a neutral ground where either metal may be used with equal convenience; but, except on this neutral ground, convenience dictates that the uses of the two metals be kept distinct. Whatever may be the limits of this neutral ground, it is only necessary to note that, outside of it, the separation of the functions of gold and silver coins is as natural as is the demand for the precious metals for money.

Bi-metallism claims that it can fix by law the ratio at which gold and silver coin shall circulate together; but bi-metallism must do something more than this—it must make it possible for gold and silver coins to be used interchangeably in performance of the same function as a medium of exchange; or, to put the case as it would probably happen in the United States, bi-metallism must make silver take the place of gold to some extent, and perhaps to a great extent, in transactions above ten dollars. For if by any supposable cause the volume of silver, under a bi-metallic system, should be permanently and greatly increased—say trebled—one of two things must take place: either the purchasing power of silver must be permanently and greatly lowered (in the supposed case perhaps two-thirds) and destroy the legal ratio, or else silver must be used in common with gold in large payments.

According to my thinking, money is simply a machine for measuring and distributing wealth. In the building of the money-machine, as in the building of any machine, experience teaches mankind what metals are best suited for its purpose, and also what function each metal can best serve. We see in India a money-machine made principally of silver, and in certain parts of Africa the money-machine is made of gold-dust; but the inconveniences of the Indian and African machines are so apparent that civilization has long since rejected them. Nor do I believe that civilization will rest content with any money-machine wherein the convenience of those who use it is ignored. The greater convenience to buyer and seller of twenty dollars in gold to twenty dollars in silver, in a twenty-dollar payment, needs no illustration.

This question of separate functions, then, is *only* a question of convenience. But what is convenience? What principally gives the utility to gold and silver, and thus confers upon them their purchasing power? Only the fact that they are more *convenient* than any other commodities for money.

Bi-metallism may, in spite of all objections, succeed in holding the metals together at a fixed ratio, on the same principle (to appropriate Prof. Walker's happy simile) that two horses, not perfectly mated, may be driven together. No sensible man, however, would dream of harnessing Dexter and a dray-horse to an omnibus, not only because of their different gaits, but because, though both are horses, their uses or functions are absolutely distinct.

Favoring circumstances alone can make bi-metallism to any extent a success; there is nothing in the nature of things which gives a scientific basis to the theory. B.

BOSTON, February 16.

PRESERVATION OF MONUMENTS IN EUROPE.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Not very long since a communication in relation to the preservation of the Old South Church in Boston appeared in the *Nation*, in which it was incidentally stated that in Europe the preservation of old monuments is made an object of zealous governmental care. The number of the *Nation* in which this statement was made came to me at Spezia just after I had been pained at witnessing the process of destruction of the fine old monastery there—a place memorable as having been visited by Dante in his exile, and a conspicuously lovely feature of this lovely part of the Gulf of Genoa—that a fortress might be placed upon its site, and after hearing that the noble and historic old castle of Lerici was soon to share a similar fate. I quickly recalled almost numberless instances which I had seen or heard of elsewhere in Italy (the placing of a huge military barrack on the site of the old castle of Theodoric at Verona, utterly destroying one of the noblest landscapes in Europe; the destruction and building up anew of the south porch of St. Mark's Church at Venice, and the proposal that its entire façade should be pulled down and a new one built to match the new porch; the removal of the great capital of the Adam and Eve angle of the Ducal Palace—one of the most wonderful carved stones in the world—to be replaced by a new one of modern mechanical manufacture, among them), and I thought how little like preservation of or respect for old monuments all this was. But recently I have been more than ever pained and astonished to see what is now taking place with the Duomo of Florence. Some weeks ago I observed that heavy scaffolding was going up against one of the walls of the south transept, but I supposed it was for the purpose of effecting some necessary repairs, though I could see nothing out of order. I have since learned, however, that it is being used for the purpose of carrying on one of the most destructive and foolish processes of so-called restoration—that, namely, of scouring off, with strong acids, all the old weather-stain, the golden color of ages; of picking out and replacing with new all cracked or broken fragments of mosaic; and of *tooling over the old sculpture*.

Upon mounting this scaffold I was astonished to see, not only the destructive character of the work, so far as the supposed restoration of the sculpture is concerned, but the extreme carelessness, as regards the old work, with which it is done. I found the delicate capitals of the window-shafts entirely unprotected, and freshly broken, in many places, by chips which the workmen had let fall upon them from above. The exquisite gable crockets—originally most wonderful for subtle carving of undulating surface, and spring of curvature—were ruthlessly hacked over and spoiled. I have ascertained that the intention is to go completely over the cathedral in this manner, in order to make the old work look fresh and match the new façade now in progress.

It may be useless to dwell upon the deplorableness of these things, but it should not be supposed that European governments, when they permit them, really protect their monuments. I understand, in this case, that the commission who have the matter in charge are divided in their views about it, and that a minority have protested. Evidently few persons in Italy care anything for the beauty of their old art. Pulling down and rebuilding, scraping and scouring, are looked upon as indications of renewed thrift and respectability.

The destruction which has thus been carried on in Europe during the past few years, is incalculable, and if it is not soon stopped there will be little left. Already M. Viollet-le-Duc, one of the best so-called restorers, has extensively defaced, if not destroyed, nearly all the French cathedrals, and Sir Gilbert Scott and others have done the same with the cathedrals of England.—Truly yours,

CHARLES H. MOORE.

FLORENCE, 10th Feb., 1878.

Notes.

GEO. ROUTLEDGE & SONS will shortly publish here 'Walks in London,' by A. J. C. Hare, which can hardly fail to be an important addition to the tourist's outfit.——Macmillan & Co. have nearly ready Laveleye's 'Primitive Property.'——'A Guide to American Literature' is

announced by E. Steiger.——Porter & Coates, Philadelphia, are about to bring out a new and cheap edition of Wilson and Bonaparte's 'American Ornithology,' three volumes in one, together with 103 new plates.——Dr. L. Sauveur's Normal School of Languages—a summer school for teachers—will hold its third session at Amherst, commencing Tuesday, July 9, of the present year, and continuing for six weeks. There will be sections in French, Spanish, Italian, German, Latin, Greek, Hebrew, and Sanskrit. Arrangement for board at Amherst may be made through the Janitor of the College, Mr. L. Gates.——We are glad to learn that the Rev. Henry G. Spaulding's morning lectures on Roman antiquities, concluded last week in this city, are to be followed by six Monday evening lectures on "Roman Life and Art," beginning March 11, at Chickering Hall. They are genuine object-lessons, in which the stereopticon is constantly employed by way of illustration, the views being carefully selected and of a very striking character. Tickets for the course are obtainable at the bookstore of E. P. Dutton & Co.——Milmore's bust of Charles Sumner, presented by the State of Massachusetts to Mr. Geo. William Curtis in acknowledgment of his eulogy on the senator delivered before the State authorities, is now on exhibition at the Metropolitan Museum in Fourteenth Street.——A very full measure of information and illustration is given in the new and tasteful guide-book called 'Harvard and its Surroundings' (Cambridge : Charles W. Sever). The principal buildings pertaining to the University are shown in excellent heliotypes, while other objects of interest are suggestively rendered in etchings interspersed through the text. To an old graduate perhaps the most striking sign of the growth of the college is the number of costly dormitories lately erected outside the grounds by private capital.——We learn from the Chicago *Alliance* that it was "our advertising man" who was "led to believe that the infamous tea-firm of C. A. Long & Co. was responsible and had a respectable backing."

——The well-known and somewhat voluminous author Ebend. ; his friend Ander Schiffahrt, the protégé of Mr. Henri Harisse; Thesaurus, whose works in 2 vols. folio have been recorded in several English booksellers' catalogues ; and Mill, not the author of the 'System of Logic,' but the one whose book 'On the Floss' ladies sometimes ask for at public libraries, these (shall we say, pseudonymous authors) have now a companion. The *Bibliotheca Sacra* for January notices a book by a Herr Domkapit. Secular bibliographers would have supposed the author to be a certain *Domkapitular*, or Cathedral Canon Petz ; but on theological matters Andover is an authority. The interpretation put upon this title-page by the *Bibliotheca Sacra* recalls the catalogue of a certain New York library in which might be seen, some years ago, a Portuguese work credited to Por de R. Franquelo, the German memoir of Bunsen to S. Wittwe (in other libraries interpreted as "his widow"), and a still more remarkable entry of the 'Mecum Vade for malt worms,' as 'For malt worms. By Mecum Vade.'

—The *Fortnightly Review* for January contains an address on "Technical Education," delivered by Professor Huxley last December before the Working Men's Club and Institute Union. Professor Huxley's advice has special reference, of course, to English conditions, but much of it has a universal application, and his *obiter dicta* are, as usual, eminently happy and suggestive. In brief, he holds that a boy whose prospect is to be bred to a handicraft should have a good English elementary education, and such a real knowledge of the rudiments of physical science, particularly physics and chemistry, as can be learned by the time the age of thirteen or fourteen is reached. In addition, he should be "able to read a scientific treatise in Latin, French, or German," and to draw with fair accuracy. The technical training should be begun not in the school but in the workshop. "The education which precedes that of the workshop should be entirely devoted to the strengthening of the body, the elevation of the moral faculties, and the cultivation of the intelligence ; and especially to the imbuing of the mind with a broad and clear view of the laws of that natural world with the components of which the handicraftsman will have to deal." It should avoid being "carried so far as to encourage bookishness" or the "mischievous delusion that brainwork is, in itself, and apart from its quality, a nobler or more respectable thing than handiwork." Professor Huxley finds the elementary schools already established in England sufficient for this preliminary instruction, which leaves boys free to enter into working life and contribute to their own support as early as they do now. For supplementary training in science and art provision also exists, and has for eighteen years existed, "in the classes of the Science and Art Department, which are for the most part held in the evening." There is still one desideratum, to meet the cases of exceptional talent or rare genius. "As the sum and crown of what is to be done for technical education, I look to the provision of a machinery for winnowing out the capacities and giving them scope." This might naturally fall to the lot of the powerful and wealthy livery companies of the City of London, "the heirs and representatives of the trade guilds of the Middle Ages"; and they are, in fact, considering the matter. Professor Huxley allows himself one political allusion. "A great deal is said of British interests just now, but depend upon it that no Eastern difficulty needs our intervention as a nation so seriously as the putting down both the Bashi-bazuks of ignorance and the Cossacks of sectarianism at home."

—In the February number of the *Nineteenth Century* there is a remarkable article on Mrs. Siddons as *Lady Macbeth*. It contains a series of extracts from the play, copiously marked and annotated with particulars of that actress's intonation, emphasis, action, and attitude, by Professor G. J. Bell, of Edinburgh, a contemporary lover of the stage, who about 1809 filled three volumes of an acting edition of plays with as many particulars of the acting of John Kemble and of his sister as could well be put on paper. Professor Bell was evidently a man of taste and well fitted for the task. How well worth doing his work was it is needless to say. Professor Fleeming Jenkin, to whom we owe the publication of these notes, draws attention to the real pain felt at the perishing of any beautiful thing, at the absolute loss of any great work of nature or art. Yet from its very essence an actor's work must perish, such memorials as these of Professor Bell's being unfortunately as rare as they are valuable. The example chosen for publication is excellent. *Lady Macbeth* was perhaps Mrs. Siddons's best part; and as far as it is possible to ascertain by comparison of criticism Mrs. Siddons was the greatest of all *Lady Macbeths*, before or since. We have no space to quote from these records, and can only remark further that the reading of them will tend to controvert the received opinion that Kemble was the mental superior of his sister and the more inventive intellect of the two. Professor Bell seems hardly to do justice to the brother, who we have been told devised "business" for his sister's benefit.

—The annual report of the Hospital Visiting Committee recently made to the State Charities Aid Association shows the usual continued improvement in the only department which is effectively divorced from politics—that of Trained Nursing—and the usual absence of it elsewhere. They call particular attention to the condition of the cells for the reception of insane and violent patients at Bellevue, describing them as "ill-ventilated, reeking with foul air, gloomy, and damp." In these cells, it seems, the drunken and insane, together with the paralyzed and incurable, are crowded for days. The doctors' visits are not made daily, and cases sometimes accumulate for nearly a week before any medical examination is made, and this although the city pays for the work. The description of the cells reads like an account of those in a madhouse in the last century. They are "so damp," the committee say, "that we have known of a case of malarial typhoid being engendered there"; while the male cells are conveniently placed directly under the female medical ward, so that "the shrieks of the imprisoned maniacs are continually terrifying the sick women above." The committee have something to say, too, about the responsibility for the management of institutions on Blackwell's and the other islands, a matter which they justly remark is shrouded in "much mystery." When an abuse or neglect of duty is discovered—as, for example, the absence of articles necessary to cleanliness, *e.g.*, soap, towels, combs, and brushes—the practice seems to be for the commissioners and everybody concerned to admit with the most engaging frankness that it is all wrong, and that somebody is to blame ; but when an attempt is made to ascertain who the culprit is, we are plunged in Cimmerian darkness. The fact is, that the system of administration now in vogue is devised for that especial object. If you could find out who was to blame, there would be a speedy end to the system. In order to have responsibility, there should be one efficient commissioner, with a long tenure of office, and he should have absolute control over the appointment and removal of his subordinates. In fact, what is needed is exactly the system which has been recently introduced into the prisons of the State, and which has already been followed by such satisfactory results. The prisons and hospitals of the city are now "run" as a branch of Tammany Hall, and so long as this continues to be true, all we can hope for is the amelioration of necessary abuses by volunteer effort. One of the best illustrations of the way the machine works at present is given in what the committee say about the "ten-day women." The enlightened and humane policy of the commissioners has been until lately, and we suppose still is in most of the hospitals, to use these creatures sent up

to the island for drunkenness as nurses and "helpers," and this has led to a volunteer attempt to reform them which has been marked with success. Of course this is an excellent thing; but there is something very characteristic in a system which begins by selecting grossly unfit persons for a responsible position, their unfitness being afterwards ameliorated by a volunteer charitable organization which undertakes to "reform" them.

—The plan of putting up an armory in Washington Square, as made public, looks to the construction of a huge barrack extending from the centre of the park on the line of South Fifth Avenue to the easterly side. Such a building would split the square in two, make an ugly of a pretty quarter of the city, and pave the way for the future occupation of the whole space. There is no necessity for this, and, so far as we have observed, public opinion is unanimously against it. That an armory can be put up there for General Shaler at a less expense than elsewhere may be true, but this is also the case whenever a public building is required. Land can always be obtained more cheaply by taking the parks than by renting or purchasing, and if a bit of one park is to be taken, there is no reason why all the others should not be invaded as well; so that this attempt to seize Washington Square may, without exaggeration, be regarded as a menace to every similar place in the city. Apart from this general danger, there is every reason why the appropriation of this particular square should be vigorously protested against. The park is one of the oldest and prettiest in the city. With the picturesque University buildings on the east side, and to the north the old-fashioned, substantial dwelling-houses—not a modern row of "four-story, high-stoop, brown-stone fronts," but a quiet row of well-built houses, suggesting a life within of a different sort from that led by the MacGillicuddys and the Potiphars—removed from the roar and bustle of Broadway, it seems, what in fact it is, a quarter of an older and pleasanter town which luckily has escaped the ravages of contractors and street-openers, and survives to remind us that city life is not necessarily ugly and repulsive. Washington Square, too, is one of the few public parks in the older parts of the city in which rich and poor meet on common ground. The south side of the square and the streets near it are inhabited by people of the poorer class, who have looked upon the park for years as their children's playground, and on Sundays and public holidays in the spring and early summer it is pleasant to notice that the shade of the fine old trees and the cool breezes are not monopolized by the rich at the expense of the poor, nor by the poor to the exclusion of the rich, but are really democratically shared by both classes. For a democratic city it is singular how little this is the case in most of the old parks. They generally fall a prey to some distinct class, as with Tompkins Square, or else become mere thoroughfares, like Madison and Union Squares. But Washington Square has preserved this characteristic of a bygone time, and with its fountain, and its broad walks and shady seats, filled with merry children, nurses with their white caps, and here and there a group of enterprising householders spending the morning *al fresco* with their neighbors, it suggests faintly the pictures of life in New York handed down to us by our grandmothers, when the Bowling Green was in all its glory, and the Von Twillers and Stuyvesants used to take their afternoon stroll upon the Battery. The destruction of any old park is an evil; when it is avoidable it is an outrage. With regard to Washington Square, besides all the other considerations, there is serious reason to apprehend its effect on the public health; a large number of the most eminent physicians of this city have expressed their opinion that it will increase the death-rate. Since the days when the Central Park fell into the hands of the Ring no such scandalous interference with public rights has been attempted, and it will certainly be an alarming proof of the tameness of the public if they submit to it.

—The recent affray at Princeton has been much discussed in the newspapers as if it was simply a question of "hazing," but the remarkable part of the affair is the use of fire-arms in connection with undergraduate pranks. There is nothing very new or singular in a number of sophomores playing a trick on a freshman in order to get him into their power, or in a retaliation on the part of the freshmen; this has happened hundreds of times before, but we do not remember in college annals any instance of a regular shooting affray, with both sides armed to the teeth, and firing repeated volleys into each other at short range. The carrying of concealed weapons, as a general practice among college students, would, we fear, prove fatal to the "higher education," and a shooting affray of this sort seems to imply a pretty general familiarity with the use of fire-arms. The Princeton faculty have taken this view of the matter, and have sent off some seventeen of the culprits. We are glad to see, too, that the occasion has been improved by a correspondent of the *Tribune*, who makes a suggestion of a novel character with regard to hazing, which the *Tribune* thinks worth at least calling attention to editorially. The influence that is best calculated, this correspondent says, to tame the brutal passions that now find a vent in hazing, and to direct the natural energy of sophomores into new and pleasing channels, is none other than that of flowers. It is difficult, he says, to overestimate the mollifying effect of flowers on the hard-hearted and cruel, and he cites the beautiful practice prevailing at one of our prominent bi-sexual institutions of learning, where the sophomores, instead of receiving the new class with injurious words and treatment, receive them with bouquets. He notices that at Harvard they have been planting out flowering shrubs lately in the college grounds, and thinks that this may have contributed materially to the decline of hazing there.

—Just ten years ago the Radical North was hopeful, the South was correspondingly fearful, that the impeachment of Andrew Johnson would end in making the President of the Senate, Benjamin F. Wade, President of the United States. Neither the hope nor the fear was fulfilled, and a year later Mr. Wade's political career terminated on his retirement from the Senate, in which for eighteen of the stormiest years in the history of the Republic he had been the very type of courage, steadfastness, indomitable energy, and incorruptibility. On Saturday last "the old Roman," as he was sometimes called—"the old wheelhorse," by another metaphor—died at his Ohio home after a characteristic struggle with the disease which finally overcame him. At a time when the North was represented in Congress chiefly by cowards and doughfaces, he entered the Senate as a Whig, but first and above all as a man; and a man he remained through all the perilous days of the Fugitive-Slave Law excitement, of the Kansas and Nebraska iniquity (which drove him into the ranks of the Republican party), and of the gathering storm that preceded the rebellion. He won the respect of Southerners who would gladly have seen him hung for his anti-slavery opinions, never concealed or disavowed, and when the civil war actually broke out he naturally took his place as chairman of the joint Congressional committee on the conduct of the war, where his services were real and invaluable. It is too soon to decide when he began to outlive his usefulness. Some may draw the line at his opposition to the re-election of Mr. Lincoln, in 1864, others at his opposition to Mr. Johnson and his share in the reconstruction measures of that difficult period. Enough to say that whenever the time for peace and reconciliation had arrived this "happy warrior's" day was over. He had neither the forgiving temper nor the judicial mind (one smiles to read in the biographies that he was once a State judge) which the new era demanded, and he became the hindrance which all partisans become who keep charging up and down the field when the burying of the dead is going on, and both sides are levelling the earthworks and putting things to rights. His latest public utterances were fiercely denunciatory of President Hayes's Southern "policy." Mr. Wade was born in Springfield, Mass., in 1800, and removed to Ohio in 1818, where, after ten years, he was admitted to the bar. His first political office was that of State Senator, in 1837, when already he honorably distinguished himself by his hostility to slavery and color prejudice. In 1851 he was sent to the United States Senate. In 1869, he had some claims, as an ex-Congressman if nothing more, to a seat in Grant's cabinet, but it was not offered him. In 1871 he accepted an appointment on the San Domingo Commission, and became an ardent advocate of annexation.

—The 'Théâtre de Campagne,' of which we last year noticed the first two series, met with so much success that a third volume has just been issued and is already in its second edition. It contains ten pieces, varying in length from a poem of nine short stanzas, "Les Prunes," by M. Alphonse Daudet, to "La Force des Femmes," a comedy by M. Henri Meilhac, extending over seventy-five pages. None of these little plays is quite as good as the best in the preceding volumes, but perhaps their average merit is higher. All of them, except possibly M. Meilhac's, are innocent and fit to be read aloud by young ladies. To any one who believes in the theory that the French drama of the day is wholly given over to the devil we can recommend a reading of the twenty-eight plays, by many of the leading authors of the time, contained in the three volumes. They are nearly all quite clean, nearly all amusing, and nearly all very neatly done. Those who never weary of studying the proofs of the continuity of the human species will find agreeable reading M. A. Joly's 'Histoire de deux fables de La Fontaine, leur origines et leurs pérégrinations.' The two fables here discussed are both from the seventh book, viz., *Les animaux malades de la peste* and *La*

laitière et le pot au lait, and their wanderings from India through Persia, Arabia, Turkey, Spain, Italy, and yet other European countries, and their nimberless transformations, are discussed in two learned and curious chapters. In an appendix the texts borrowed from other literatures are gathered together. Wuttke's work on German journalism and the formation of public opinion, 'Der Reptilienfond,' is now accessible in a French translation, 'Le Fonds des reptiles.' The unproductive epoch of the First Empire has seemed to M. Gustave Merlet to stand in need of rehabilitation, and he has accordingly devoted a considerable work to it under the title of 'Tableau de la littérature française, 1800-1815,' the first volume being concerned with the religious, philosophical, and poetic movement, as embodied in Bonald, De Maistre, and Châteaubriand. Two kindred works noticed by M. Charles de Ribbe in the February *Polybiblion* seem also to merit the attention of students of history and society. These are 'Le Village sous l'ancien régime' of M. Alfred Babeau, and 'La Vie de province au 18e siècle' of M. Anatole de Gallier; the latter being an interesting collection of letters forming part of the correspondence of a distinguished provincial family, the Aymons of Dauphiny.

AMERICANS IN TURKEY.*

'AMONG THE TURKS' is a book containing sketches of the personal experience of a missionary who resided for thirty-five years in Turkey, chiefly in Constantinople, and giving at the same time various anecdotes and stories, all of which are entertaining, with remarks and inferences which, in many cases, are not borne out by the context. Dr. Hamlin is a remarkable man, and combines with a high intellectual faculty an executive ability and a power of practical work which are very rare among missionaries, and even among ordinary men. He has made a greater impression, and we think, too, has done more good, than any missionary, or in fact than any American who has ever been in Turkey; but we are inclined to believe that his judgments are sometimes hasty, and that living in a certain groove—chiefly in the capital—he has not, even in the thirty-five years of his residence in Turkey, had a sufficiently large experience to enable him to prove certain theses which he puts forward. In one respect particularly Dr. Hamlin is untrustworthy as a guide. While knowing little about Russia, he fears and dislikes that country. His fear seems chiefly directed to one point, viz., that if Russian influence should become predominant in Turkey the missionaries would not be so able as before to turn Armenian and Greek Christians into Protestants, for of the conversion of the Turks there is as yet very little thought, and the American missionaries in Turkey do not occupy themselves with the Jews. This feeling has influenced, without doubt insensibly, many of the statements and deductions in the book before us, and it is to be feared that Dr. Hamlin has rather injured than improved his cause by his dislike of Russia and his suspicion of Russian plots and intrigues when they were not.

In reading a book like this, which, while not exclusively devoted to instances of missionary work, has yet so much to say of missionaries and Americans in Turkey, one is naturally led to enquire what in reality have the Americans done and what are they now doing there? These are broad questions which can scarcely be answered within the limits of a brief review, but to which at present it is difficult to find any satisfactory answer. Certainly none can be gained from the columns of the missionary and religious journals, where simple facts are confused with what—for want of a better and more polite term—must be called missionary slang. In advance, it is a pleasure to say that the missionaries have done great good in Turkey; but it has been more by their secular work, of which Dr. Hamlin has given such an interesting account, than by their religious work. They have done good, not by making converts and building Protestant churches, by ordaining native Protestant teachers and by distributing broadcast amongst the people tracts against the rites and beliefs of the Eastern Christians, but by their schools, by their readiness to assist in any works of charity and humanity, and by the outside influences which have accompanied them. The Protestant communities which they have founded are composed, as a general rule, of men of no station or repute among their fellow-countrymen, and who have frequently been more of a burden than a profit to the mission, and who exercise no appreciable influence on the towns and villages in which they reside.

Turkey, as a mission field, has been distributed between the American Board of Missions, the Methodist missions, and the Presbyterian missions; the Methodists devoting themselves chiefly to Bulgaria and the neighborhood of the Balkans, the Presbyterians to Syria and Palestine, and the American Board taking the rest. Roughly speaking, the missionaries themselves may be divided into two classes—those whose sole aim is to do good, and those whose chief aim is to proselytize and Protestantize. The writer is unable from personal experience to say anything about the results or working of the missionaries of the Presbyterian Board in Syria, but as far as the others are concerned, it seems to him that the Methodist missionaries are those who generally aim at doing good first of all, and who have consequently done the most good and have exercised the most prominent influence. Dr. Hamlin, though not a Methodist, belongs to the first class, though we think with considerable longings towards the second class. The results of the labors of the Methodist missionaries in Bulgaria have certainly been very great. They taught notions of cleanliness, health, economy, and honesty, and devoted themselves especially to education and the founding of schools, and it is not too much to say that the renaissance of the Bulgarian people was in great part a consequence of their efforts. Lately, however, the Methodist mission in Bulgaria has been considerably reduced, while the missions of the American Board have taken a larger development than hitherto. Unfortunately, these missions fell in part into the hands of men who put proselytizing and Protestantizing in the first place and doing good in the second. Their schools were intended primarily for Protestants, and they objected to what they considered secular education. They distributed tracts aimed at some of the doctrines and rites of the National Bulgarian Church, while the Methodists had preferred to open the spiritual eyes of men to the knowledge of the superstitions and errors of their church, and had never pressed them to leave this communion. The present school of missionaries, however, insists on a separation from the Bulgarian Church, and urges strongly the formation of separate Protestant communities. It can be readily seen that of late years such a movement would be very unpopular in Bulgaria, because all Protestants were immediately thought to be unpatriotic. As possessing a separate organization, they refused to pay the voluntary taxes which other Bulgarians contributed to the support of the national schools, and held themselves aloof from the nation as such. This naturally brought the missionaries into disfavor with the leading Bulgarians, and as naturally caused them to rely for support upon the Turkish rulers of the country, who were glad in every way to foster discord and division among the Christian rayahs. It brought about a certain tolerance on the part of the Turks to the American missionaries not hitherto shown, and as a resultant, a certain sympathy on the part of the missionaries for the Turks. Whatever we may consider the faults of these missionaries to have been, they have entirely redeemed them since the beginning of the present war in Turkey by their great devotion to works of charity and benevolence. To these they have given themselves up heart and soul, and what they consider to be their real missionary work has for the past year been entirely at a stand-still.

Dr. Hamlin has given an interesting account of the beginning and the growth of Robert College, the best educational institution in Constantinople, one with which Dr. Hamlin has been from the beginning intimately associated, and one which, although started by missionaries, is now entirely distinct from them. Indeed, Robert College was for a long time an object of distrust among the missionaries of Constantinople, and in some of them this feeling has not yet died out. They opposed it on the ground that it furnishes a secular and not a strictly Protestant education, and that students go there simply for the purpose of getting knowledge which may be useful to them in business, and not for the purpose of becoming teachers and preachers of the Gospel. The results, however, of the working of this institution have been so striking, and its influence has been so great—and will be still greater—on the development of liberal ideas in Turkey that even the greatest sticklers for Protestant doctrines are beginning to be reconciled to its existence. While Robert College gives in one sense a secular education, it is by no means an un-Christian one. Prayers are read daily, and the truths of Christianity in which all sects agree are preached to the students twice every Sunday; but no attempt is made to instil into them the peculiar doctrines of any one sect. It is the greatest missionary institution, in the true sense of the word, which any country has ever erected in the East, and in moral and true civilizing influence is worth the Bible House and all the other establishments of the American Board of Missionaries in Turkey put together. Dr. Hamlin speaks of three schools of thought among the missionaries with regard to education: those who believe that the missionaries should do nothing for education, but should simply preach the Gospel; those who believe simply in

* 'Among the Turks. By Cyrus Hamlin.' New York: Robert Carter & Bros. 1878.

a vernacular education, with all its limitations; and those who would give an English education of a high grade. The failure of the first system is now acknowledged; the second, that of education simply in the vernacular, was introduced by the American missionaries into Turkey, in consequence of a change of system, about 1854, and its results cannot be considered as happy. Robert College in this has the advantage over the American college at Beyrut, and over the new college just started at Aintab. At Beyrut the language of instruction is Arabic; at Aintab it is Turkish. There is great difficulty in finding suitable text-books, and the students being instructed in no foreign language are thereby cut off from still further improvement. At Robert College the principle was laid down that all the studies must be pursued in English; but, in addition to this, each student must study his native language and literature. By this means the best literature of the world is open to them, and the moral and intellectual influence of England and America—which, after all, is the most civilizing influence in the world—becomes more and more widespread in the East. At Beyrut, on the other hand, there is an excellent medical school, such as does not exist in Turkey, and the students who graduate there are thoroughly prepared for their work; but then their progress must stop there. Their teaching has been entirely in Arabic, and unless they find time outside of their duties to learn French, German, or English, they are cut off from making any further advance in their profession.

In saying this, it is not by any means intended to imply that all the schools in the vernacular language should be abolished. The missionaries have done very good work among the Bulgarians and, to a certain extent, among the Armenians, by forming schools, which the native priests and school-teachers have imitated and endeavored to surpass. They have done much for the progress of native education. But schools where the vernacular languages are solely taught should be merely elementary schools; and the moment an attempt is made to introduce a medium or higher education, English should be the language of instruction. Children, especially in the East, learn languages so easily that the teacher's work is greatly facilitated.

With regard to the success or the value of the chief educational establishment at Constantinople, managed by the missionaries proper—"The Home School" for girls at Scutari—it is more difficult to express an opinion. Objections are made to it by various sensible people, on the ground that the education given there—for it aims to be a model of a girls' school of the highest class—is too good for the class of girls who frequent it, who are mostly from the poorer ranks of society. The richer classes of Greeks and Armenians who desire to give their daughters the best possible education do not send them to "the Home," because that school is too Protestant and so entirely under missionary influence. It seems, too, a little absurd to the profane to find a missionary school teaching the piano, drawing, French, Italian, and other accomplishments, with a charge for tuition of £25, when the class of girls who attend it would be much better off if taught to cook, to sew, and to attend to the sick, in addition, of course, to a plain ordinary English education. Women in the East, owing to old and inveterate restrictions, do not yet need as high an education as men.

BARTLETT'S DICTIONARY OF AMERICANISMS.*

IN the third volume of the 'New Voyages and Travels' published by Sir Richard Phillips & Co., London, in the first quarter of the present century, the editor introduces Sansom's Travels in Lower Canada (made in 1817) with a singular apology, to wit, that

"He has preferred to allow Mr. Sansom to speak for himself in his own words, conceiving that this would be more just towards him; and that, as a specimen of Americanisms used by a man of good education, the work would thus be a greater curiosity to those English readers who are not aware of the deterioration which the language is suffering in the United States. For analogous reasons, many opinions of the Republican author are retained, because they will add to the interest of the work, though they may sometimes offend by their coarseness and evident want of discrimination."

Sixty years have wrought no great change in the views of Englishmen of the literary class on this subject. They still look with curiosity on our trans-Atlantic neologisms, real or imaginary, and still shake their heads over the decay of the language in Greater Britain. The least a British reviewer of an American book can do is to point out the traces of its origin, as when the *Athenæum* remarked the other day of Southgate's 'Cross above the Crescent' that "a few Americanisms here and there will sound strangely to the ear of an English reader"; while international spite or prejudice finds a natural vent in damning every unfortunate locution as an American corruption. Few scholars are able to employ the historical method in exposing reckless assertions of the latter sort, and still fewer are interested in so doing. But long before *reliable* found so formidable an apologist in Dr. Fitzedward Hall, Mr. John Russell Bartlett had shown in his 'Dictionary of Americanisms' that Englishmen not seldom denounced, as American, words and phrases which had come over with the colonists and had survived here in respectable usage, while in the mother-country they were still obscure provincialisms, obsolescent sometimes if not obsolete. There remained, however, a large number of undoubted products of the Yankee genius, and to keep pace with the manufacture of these, and so to furnish posterity a key to words and meanings now current but certain to change or to drop out of use, as well as to give the lexicographer a clew to their origin, not only a first, but a second, a third, and now a fourth edition of the Dictionary has been required. We welcome it with grateful acknowledgments for the persistent devotion to a good idea which finds a parallel only in that perennial work of another scholarly and diligent Bartlett, the 'Familiar Quotations.'

The third edition of the 'Americanisms' was closed in 1859, and we have but to reflect on our civil revolution since that date to conceive how large an addition has been made to Mr. Bartlett's vocabulary from this source alone. Thus, we find *bummer; Confederates*, and its military equivalent, *Butternuts; contrabands*, ascribed as usual to General Butler; *copperhead*, defined as "a venomous biped, of Northern birth and Southern tendencies"; *monitor*, for an iron-clad vessel, a name of course in the first instance peculiar to the antagonist of the *Merrimac*, but well chosen, apparently, by Ericsson as indicating the chief use of all ironclads, to keep watch and ward at home; *Secesh; skedaddle*, of which the etymology is laboriously but fruitlessly discussed, etc. We miss in this war catalogue the cant army phrase "to *Blenker*," in the sense of 'to plunder.' *Jayhawker* is, in the preface and *sub verbo*, assigned to the war period, but men not very old can remember that it was first heard during the Kansas struggle, and on page 812 Mr. Bartlett even sets down this word as a nickname of the people of Kansas. To the ante-war period belongs also the new illustration under *let slide*—Banks's famous remark about the Union; and room might well have been made for Caleb Cushing's *man on horseback* (*vidē*. Cæsar), as well as Mr. Seward's *irrepressible conflict*. Passing on to the era of Reconstruction, we find *carpet-bagger*, for which Mr. Bartlett gives well-chosen definitions by the *North American Review*, President Hayes, and Wade Hampton, and an example of its use in a poem by Dr. Holmes on the late Presidential contest; *Ku-klux; bloody shirt; bulldoze*, to which a Louisiana correspondent of Mr. Bartlett ascribes a negro origin both as a word and as a practice! Under this head we miss *swinging round the circle*, and, more singular than that, *Reconstruction* itself, a distinct Americanism. Our recent financial experience has enriched the Dictionary with *greenback*, of which Mr. Bartlett says, "Mr. Chase told the writer that he claimed the honor of adding the term to our vocabulary"; *greenbackers*, the swindling party whose paternity Mr. Chase would doubtless disown without thanks; *demonetize* and *remonetize; dollar of the fathers; inflationist;* and *rag-baby*. Perhaps *in this connection* (if we may venture to employ "a New-England phrase used to such a degree that it has become quite shocking to nervous people," p. 139) we should also mention *Granger* as a politico-economical neologism not overlooked by Mr. Bartlett.

The Addenda contains a list of words both recent and long-established. Among the latter we should enumerate *butter-fingers, corn-balls, cut-and-dried, gang-saw, jack-straws, man-fashion, rocking-chair, Shaker, skin of his teeth, spoiling for a fight, slick a pin;* among the former, *back seat* (why was Andrew Johnson's "back seat in reconstruction" not cited?), *bad egg, big thing, cheese it, Colorado beetle, dry up, flint in, gone where the woodbine twineth* (we miss Mr. Boutwell's *hole-in-the-sky*), *hoodlum, ink-slinger, jack-stone* (of the metal variety), *Oneida Community, oughtness* (coined by the Rev. Joseph Cook), *put-up job, 'rah 'rah 'rah* (the Harvard cheer), *sewing-machine*. To *go to Bungay* is now first recorded, and so is to *pass in your checks*, correctly defined by Mr. Bartlett, though it proved a sad stumbling-block to Prof. Schele de Vere. A *square* vote, *square meal, on the square*, etc., were unknown to the third edition, and so was the non-New-England use of *square* for a block of houses. *Dipper*, a vessel, and consequently the name of the constellation, is of course older than the Dictionary itself, and is in both senses a downright Americanism, but is now first noticed by Mr. Bartlett. In explaining the phrase to *talk Turkey* he abandons his former definition

* 'Dictionary of Americanisms: A Glossary of Words and Phrases usually regarded as peculiar to the United States. By John Russell Bartlett.' Fourth edition. Greatly improved and enlarged. Boston: Little, Brown & Co. 1877.

and illustration altogether, and inserts the well-known story of the Indian and white man from which it is derived. The recent slang use of *shoot* as an exclamation of contempt is copiously illustrated. To sell *short* is apparently an innovation on the Street. Another cant term among brokers, *point*, is correctly defined by Mr. Bartlett to mean private information about stocks, etc., but he omits that other meaning which can best be expressed as the "unit of change" in the market rate of any given commodity, whether gold or cotton; it is not, at least as a rule, synonymous with per cent. To *claim*, in the sense of assert or profess, "is not found in the dictionaries," and is now newly inserted, but it was so used long ago—we have met with it in books published in the thirties—and it is now so common among writers of all classes in England that we should expect to find it a parallel growth on both sides of the Atlantic, or as likely an Anglicism as an Americanism. *Reliable*, also new to this dictionary, is, as Dr. Hall has shown, as old as the century, and probably Coleridge's invention. A third interloper, to *interview*, has here no date attached to it. We incline to think it first appeared in these columns, but, apropos of this, on p. 209, vol. x. of the *Nation* (March 31, 1870), we ceded our claims to priority in favor of 'Hall's Chronicle' (1542), where the verb was said by the *Pall Mall Gazette* to have been used transitively. The remarks on *guess* seem to us less satisfactory than those in the third edition. That our use of the word, even when we can substitute "think" for it, still has an immediate reference to "conjecture," is shown by the fact that we might as naturally substitute "reckon" or "calculate." Our ejaculatory *well!* receives separate attention, and a flood of light from Mr. Lowell. *Gerrymandering* is enlarged upon and illustrated by a cut which must, we think, have done duty in Professor Ware's paper on Proportional Representation in the *American Law Review* for January, 1872. This paper might in any event have been alluded to. *In-ty*, said to have been used in New England sixty years ago for 'certainly,' 'indeed,' is surmised to come from French *entier* (Irish, *entirely*). Prof. Allen, in 'Slave Songs of the United States,' reports the use of *enty?* in the Sea Islands, "used like our 'Is that so?' in reply to a statement that surprises one." The same author suggests a Huguenot origin for some other negro corruptions, but does not propose *entier* for this.

It remains to mention a few Americanisms conspicuous by their absence from Mr. Bartlett's pages. To *weaken*, *i. e.* 'to grow weak,' has no little vogue in the newspapers of the day. When Col. Forney says of his *Weekly Press* that it is the "*newsiest* paper in the country," he shows his familiarity with reporters' English. A publisher's paper-dealer assures him that his stock has only rags *into* it. *Dodgers* are hand-bills distributed in advance of a "great moral show." The boy who throws prize candy and magazines before you in the cars is said to *lap* them. (Similarly, the inmates of a sleeping-car at Pittsburg the other day were turned out by the porter for the reason that it had to be *shopped*, *i. e.*, sent to the repair-shop.) A *jack-screw* is in England, we believe, known as a *screw-jack*. The Beecher trial has left some lasting, if not indelible, marks on our phraseology. *True inwardness* is used in the fifth report of the Co-operation Committee of the American Library Association (see No. 12 *Am. Library Journal*, p. 429), and *step down and out* and *all that the name implies* and *ragged edge* are heard every day. *Chromo-civilization*, the invention of the late J. R. Dennett, confessedly supplied a gap in our terms of precision. Greeley's *Go West* is a school-boy's word for "quit!" Grant's *fight it out on this line* is proverbial. Mr. Bartlett owes many of his accessions to Bret Harte, but *rise to explain* is not among them. Mr. Grant White's *heterophemy* perhaps deserved a place on his list. Under *swap* we might have looked for Mr. Lincoln's advice about swapping horses while crossing a stream; under *spoils*, for Marcy's "To the victors belong the spoils." There are many applications of *fix* cited, but *fixing things* and *fixing primaries* are wanted. The *machine* is also ignored; and so are *war-horses* and *favorite sons*. Johnson's *My policy* is not more fortunate. Finally, in the phrase "he has a bad *record*," we use, and use frequently, a word incomprehensible to Englishmen without explanation, and which ought to be noted in a fifth edition.

A few words by way of criticism. Mr. Bartlett has not repaired two original defects in his plan: he has not been uniformly careful to give the exact date of the periodicals from which he quotes (as Littré has done so punctiliously in his Supplement), and he has not, what was quite practicable, appended a list of the works cited, with date of first publication. Without these aids a foreigner finds it impossible to discriminate between obsolete and living Americanisms, and the value of the Dictionary to the historical lexicographer is greatly diminished. We conclude our rambling remarks by expressing our regret that the present edition of the 'Americanisms' is markedly inferior to that of 1860, the last preceding. Any one who will take the trouble to compare the two will perceive a great falling off in paper and typography, and it might be inferred that the publishers had lowered their notoriously high standard, if we did not know from other examples that the art of book-making in Boston has, since 1860, suffered a serious decline. We hope Mr. Justin Winsor's proposed University Press may become a reality and do something to restore and maintain the old standards.

Mirage. By George Fleming, author of 'Kismet.' (Boston: Roberts Bros.)—We had occasion, some months since, to speak of 'Kismet' as a clever and promising novel, and we are happy to be able to say that the author of 'Kismet' has redeemed the pledge of that work with even greater promptness than was to be expected. 'Mirage' strikes us as very clever indeed, and as a decided advance upon its predecessor. Its faults are the same—excessive slightness of subject and an unbusiness-like way of telling the story, which is put before the reader too much by mere allusion and rather redundant dialogue—but they are much less striking. On the other hand, the merits of the book—great charm of description, a great deal of fineness of observation, a great deal of wit in the conversations, a constant facility and grace of style—these good points are decidedly more noticeable. Like 'Kismet,' 'Mirage' is a slight love-story interwoven in the account of a journey in the East. In the former tale the author set her characters afloat upon the Nile (we say "her" characters, for, in spite of the name upon the title-page, the tone of these pages is irremediably feminine), and in the present performance she conducts them on horseback through the charming incidents of a tour in Syria and Palestine. A large portion of her narrative is given over to description, which is always very well done—very vivid and real; so that the book comes under the perilous head of that class of literature which is vulgarly known as "scenery novels." But she escapes the danger of dulness by the success with which she usually renders a fresh, personal impression of the country. Some of the pictures in these pages are very charming indeed, and we should like to have space to quote them.

A more serious danger with the author of 'Mirage' seems to be a disposition to content herself with altogether too slender a dramatic pivot. The *donnée* of the present tale is a very insubstantial foundation for a long story. There is a Miss Constance Varley, who has been invited to travel in Syria with Mr. and Mrs. Thayer. She is in love with Denis Lawrence, supposedly "unbeknown," as the comic writers say, to the gentleman. She has left him in America, but he turns up unexpectedly at Damascus, and proves also to be in love with her. The young lady has another devotee in the person of Mr. Jack Stuart, who has been travelling in her company, and for whom she can bring herself to entertain no sentiment more tender than friendly esteem. But Lawrence supposes that she is in love with Stuart, and therefore, though he spends much time in sitting with Miss Varley, in great intimacy, among the Damascene orchards in springtime, he never declares his passion. The young girl, on her side, is dying of love for him, and yet she gratuitously and unnaturally allows him to rest in his error. He takes an abrupt leave of her, and she then marries young Stuart, while Lawrence (who is a very clever artist) paints her portrait from memory, and gives it the title of "Mirage." Even if a larger amount of motive were attributed to Miss Varley's conduct, the incident would be rather slight for the author's purpose; and, as the case stands—the reader being quite unable to conceive why she should not take the simple and natural course of resenting, almost with indignation (a highly probable impulse in a girl, given the circumstances), the imputation of being "engaged" to Stuart—as the case stands, we say, the theme is reduced to the level of one of those little romances which adorn the weekly "story-papers." The heroine is very gracefully sketched, though the author is to a certain extent guilty of the regrettable tendency, common among American writers of fiction, of making her utter those "smart" comicalities which are the note of the "lady-correspondents" of certain journals. The prosaic, yet manly, personality of the accepted lover is very clearly indicated; but the æsthetic young man who fails so awkwardly to come to an understanding with his mistress has a rather shadowy and insalubrious air. Very noteworthy is the partiality of American story-tellers for æsthetic heroes. The usual English novelist, desiring to provide a heroine with an interesting and inspiring suitor, picks out a brilliant young man of affairs—a rising young statesman or a prospective commander-in-chief, a man of action, in short, of some kind. The American narrator, on the other hand, is prone, less gloriously, to select an artist, with a "sensitive mouth." The secondary figures in

'Mirage' strike us as the more successful, and they abound, indeed, in clever touches. In especial, the author says very good things about them. The sketch of the young Oxford neopagan, Davenant, is really brilliant; and very good is the English family, the Vaughan-Smythes, encountered by the Sea of Galilee, who are so eager to partake of the fish of its waters, and among whom the mater-familias remarks that in travelling in the Holy Land she makes it a point of conscience to have a *Christian* dragoman! With so much that is agreeable and clever, 'Mirage' strikes us as the work of a person who might write a better novel yet, and we should be curious to see the result of her attempting to tell a story pure and simple—a story which should not be at the same time a record of reminiscences of travel. She has a delicacy of observation and a certain liberty of mind which might go far; the present book is infinitely fresher and wittier than ninety-nine-hundredths of the novels periodically emitted by the regular group of English fiction-mongers. But, even if the author attempts nothing else or nothing different, 'Mirage' will remain an eminently readable story.

Gerrit Smith: A Biography. By Octavius Brooks Frothingham. (New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons. 1878.)—Perhaps no body of men in modern times has presented more completely the type of the Hebrew prophets than the American Abolitionists when, a generation ago, they were resolutely urging the country into a course in which cool-headed statesmen could see nothing but ruin, but which, in the result, did rid the nation of a monstrous incubus In this remarkable group of men nothing is more remarkable than the variety of phases of individual character and abilities to be found among them. There was a certain monotonousness in this unceasing and unsparing assault on the institution and on everything that defended it or apologized for it; but, withal, there was an astonishing variety in style and in temper. No two men (or women) out of the whole number could be pronounced alike.

Of them all there was, perhaps, none more completely individual than Gerrit Smith, taking him as he was by nature and as he had been made by exceptional circumstances. Perhaps it may be said of him that the most individual thing about him was his individuality itself. That is, his mind was not in itself remarkable for power or acuteness. His conclusions could not command assent for any recognized supremacy of intellect which imposed his views upon his followers merely because he held them, as with real intellectual leaders like Webster, Calhoun, and Garrison. Nor, although an effective speaker, did he possess the wonderful persuasive power of Clay or Phillips. But he was completely independent, so far as it is in the power of any man to be so, and came to conclusions—whether logically and wisely or not—which were, absolutely his own, derived, too, quite as much from his sentiments as his reasoning powers. All these men were independent; but with Gerrit Smith independence of conviction was, it seems to us, a larger portion of self than with any of the others.

Add to this a social position more nearly akin to the baronial than perhaps that of any other person in the Northern States. In the admirable and discriminating discussion of his character in the closing chapter Mr. Frothingham notes (p. 375) the demoralizing effects of his generosity upon the community in which he lived. "His negro colonies wasted away; his runaway slaves came to no good in Northern cities; he ruined his beloved Peterboro by excessive indulgence, doing so much for the villagers that they became quite incapable of doing anything for themselves. His generosity dried up the sources of public spirit and made men positively sordid." Peterboro and Gerrit Smith were, to be sure, an unusual instance. But is not this always the case in this country where a single man is richer and more eminent than all his townsmen? An American village cannot afford to have a lord of the manor, even the wisest and most public-spirited.

It was Mr. Smith's individuality that made his Congressional career—as so many judged—a failure. At the height of a tremendous struggle, as parties were then, a man could not be independent without damaging his own cause. The judgment was perhaps pardonable then; but at the present day, when there are no party issues at all, it is this party despotism that ruins our politics. Independents like him would be of incalculable value now, while parties are looking around them for something to fight about. This episode of Washington life gives occasion to one of the pleasantest pages in the book, that in which his hospitality at Washington is described. "Hospitality" is, perhaps, the one characteristic of Gerrit Smith by which he is most widely known, and, as exercised at Peterboro, it occupies another interesting passage (pp. 137–142):

"The hospitalities of Peterboro were revived at Washington. He gave two dinners each week and invited every member of the House. At his table men of all parties and all conditions met and sat down together. The Southerners, in especial, were fascinated by the open-handed, wide-hearted welcome the man extended. . . . His pleasant association with slaveholders exposed him to suspicion and criticism, as similar associations with Pharisees and women who were 'sinners' exposed one who was greater than he. . . . But to their opinions and habits he made no concession. There was no wine on his table; he offered no cigars; he countenanced no rudeness or indelicacy. His guests took him as he was, and were glad to, for his originality was his charm" (p. 217).

We have said more of the man than of the book; but this is the highest compliment that can be paid to a biography—that the author is forgotten, and only the man whose life is written remembered.

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, MARCH 14, 1878.

The Week.

WE have discussed the present condition of the Fisheries Award question elsewhere. The opinion of the Government on it is not known at this writing, but Mr. Nordhoff, writing to the *Herald* from Washington, says there is a strong probability that an attempt will be made to take the matter out of the hands of the Administration altogether, or to forestall its action by a clause setting aside the provision of the Treaty of Washington which admits Canadian fish and fish-oil free of duty, and directing duties to be hereafter levied on those articles without discrimination, in disregard of the Treaty. The authority for this is to be found in a decision of Judge Curtis, of the Supreme Court, that a treaty with a foreign power is "the supreme law of the land" only in so far as it does not contravene municipal law—that is, that the legislature may make municipal law without regard to it, or rather, that the court could not dispute its right to do so. This plan is, it is said, and with probability, to be produced by General Butler. There is a growing school of statesmen in Washington who study treaties and acts solely for the purpose of discovering in them the materials for tricks of various kinds, and whose principal ambition seems to be to earn for their country the reputation of being the Sharper Nation of the modern world.

Poor M. Delfosse has been interviewed by the *Herald* correspondent about the Fisheries Arbitration, and there is something pathetic in his story. Mr. Blaine's theory is, that Lord Granville cunningly, and for purposes of fraud, forced Mr. Fish into leaving the choice of the foreign arbitrator to Count Beust, with whom in London he arranged the selection of M. Delfosse ("a put-up job"), knowing that the latter would, in order to oblige England, award the Canadians a large sum. A few little additions were made by the newspapers after the speech was delivered, tending to show that M. Delfosse, as soon as he knew the Commission was to sit, threw off all restraint, and announced before going to Halifax that $5,000,000 was the very least he would award, little thinking, doubtless, that the keen eye of the Maine moralist was upon him. The unhappy man now says, however, that he never heard before that anybody had objected to him as representing a dependency of Great Britain; that both Mr. Fish and Sir Edward Thornton had pressed the office on him; that he had accepted it very reluctantly; that they then requested Count Beust to appoint him, and that he acted to the best of his ability and decided according to his conscience; that the condemnation of persons who have not heard the evidence is not of much consequence, but that anybody who supposes he will ever act as arbitrator again is greatly mistaken. This air of innocence will not save him with the pure and good men who suspect him. He must have known, they will say, of the conspiracy under which he was appointed. The only question now is, how much he got for the job. We could pick out a nice little committee of the House and Senate to investigate him.

The week in Congress has been marked by a variety and liveliness which the silver agitation had effectually banished. The chief incident in the Senate has been Mr. Blaine's attack, on Monday, on the Fisheries Award. On Wednesday week the Senate passed a bill directing the Secretary of the Treasury to issue, in lieu of the same amount of the four per cents. authorized by the Act of July 14, 1870, not more than $100,000,000 of registered coupon bonds bearing the same interest, but in denominations of $25, $50, and $100, and redeemable in "coin" after fifty years, and not taxable. The interest is made payable either in coin or in legal-tender notes at the option of the Government. On the same day the notorious McGarrahan claim made its reappearance in Congress, and the Senate weakly granted its Committee on Public Lands permission to send for persons and papers and rehear the case. On Monday, nineteen Democrats voted against a bill supported by one Democrat and twenty-eight Republicans, which directs the President to appoint a non-salaried commission who shall make "an honest, impartial, and thorough investigation into the alcoholic liquor-traffic," primarily with reference to the revenue but also to taxation and public morality. Mr. Conkling secured a place among them for one representative of the traffic. On Tuesday the Senate passed the bill to review Dr. Hammond's court-martial, and one to grant an American register to Mr. J. G. Bennett's polar expedition vessel. On Wednesday, the 6th, the House received the President's veto of the Lumber Court Bill, and seemed disposed to repent the folly it had committed. On the same day it passed the Fortifications Bill, and on Thursday the Deficiency Appropriation Bill. On Friday there was a fine exposure by Mr. Willits, of Michigan, of a scheme of Southern ante-war mail-contractors to be paid twice for doing the same work—once by the Confederate Government and now again by the United States. Mr. Reagan, of Texas, ex-Confederate States Postmaster, alleged that the Confederacy had made no such payments; but Mr. Willits quickly proved the contrary from the rebel archives. Subsequent researches have fixed the identity of a large number of the present claimants with those whom the Confederate Government satisfied. On Saturday Mr. Kelley endeavored to break the force of Mr. Garfield's searching analysis of his political consistency a few days before. He succeeded in bringing out the fact that when his renomination was in doubt, Mr. Foster, of Ohio, gave him a letter to use in evidence that Mr. Hayes was not opposed to having him returned to Congress. We fear it is only too true that, to use Mr. Foster's own words, Gov. Hayes did not "care two cents" about the matter. On Monday, Mr. Hewitt succeeded in making an effective speech urging the abolition of useless embassies in Europe and the reform of the consular service in the interest of commerce, pointing out the contradictions in the President's execution of civil-service reform, and affirming his perfect title to his office.

General Garfield made on Wednesday week, in the House, a very amusing exposure of Mr. W. D. Kelley as a financier, in reply to a very insolent attack of the latter. Kelley has been one of the most violent of the silver-men, and one of the strongest in his denunciation of what he calls the "terrick" by which silver was demonetized. He was, however, himself, when chairman of the House Committee to which the bill was referred, as we showed two months ago, the most strenuous supporter of the demonetization, and made a speech about it in which he declared that silver could not possibly be kept in circulation. This General Garfield brought out amid the laughter of the House. Kelley was also in 1874–5 a fierce supporter of paper inflation, and is now, yet General Garfield showed that in 1868 he voted for a resolution thanking Secretary McCulloch for his policy of contraction, and urging him to persevere in it. In replying to General Garfield he brazenly declares again that he did not know what he was doing when he supported demonetization, and that when he voted for contraction he had not heard from Mr. Stephen Caldwell and Mr. H. C. Carey; that as soon as they wrote to him that he was wrong he looked into the matter, found it was too true, and has opposed contraction ever since. He has also made communistic speeches in Ohio, in 1875. General Garfield has done good service in showing him up, for, even if half fool, half knave, he is really only a specimen of a class. Congress begins to abound with men who, though less noisy than Kelley, have just as little shame and self-respect, and keep their minds just as free of convictions on any subject, and are just as saucy and impudent, and as ready to degrade themselves again when they are found out.

We have more than once pointed out the hollowness of the scheme of an International Conference which was inserted in the Silver Bill to induce European nations to cut off their tails, and make themselves look as foolish as our own silver-men, by trying once more to set up a double standard, or an "optional standard," as the Silver Sage of Cincinnati prefers to call it. The notion that silver and gold can be made to circulate together, so as to do the same work, has been sufficiently exploded by experience to make it now a mere dream of a small band of amiable, hopeful, and over-subtle economists, whose chances of seeing a concerted attempt made to realize their dream grow smaller and smaller every day. The London *Economist* now ridicules the notion that England and Germany, or the Scandinavian States, or even the Latin Union, can be got even to discuss at this date the abandonment of a policy which they have adopted or are adopting after mature deliberation and, in the case of Germany, at heavy cost.

The McGarrahan mining claim, now nearly twenty years old, has come up in a new way. At a hearing before the Senate Committee on Public Lands the New Idria Company, McGarrahan's opponent, put in evidence the claimant's private correspondence touching the manner in which the claim was pushed before Congress. This tends to show that the means used to advance his interest were bribery of members of Congress by gifts of stock, and the employment of all sorts of men "near the persons" of politicians high in office, with a view to securing the influence of the latter. One of the letters threatens a terrible exposure of Judge Black, who is now counsel for the New Idria Company and must be mightily amused by it. There have been so many revelations of bribery and corruption at Washington of late years that this one is hardly likely to excite more than a passing interest. The "charges" will all be denied with the usual protestations of innocence, and there will be an end of it. If the case would serve to fix the attention of the public upon the importance of some measure for keeping such claims out of Congress, the scandal would be hardly matter for regret. So far from the means used by McGarrahan to press his claim being unnatural or due to his exceptional wickedness, they are those which suggest themselves at once to claimants of pertinacity and intelligence who have to do with such a body as Congress. The moral of it all is—remit all claims to the courts. If this had been the law, the McGarrahan scandal would never have been heard of, for his claim was long ago rejected by the Supreme Court. But this, instead of disposing of the claim, only sent the claimant back to Congress.

The bill reported by the Senate Committee on Railroads to effect a final settlement of the matters in dispute between the Government and the Pacific roads, provides for a sinking fund for the liquidation of their debt, to consist, in the first place, of the amount due the companies for transportation up to the 31st of March, 1878, the sum, if it does not reach $1,000,000, to be made up by the companies to that amount. This sum is to be further increased by semi-annual payments by each company of $500,000, until the year 1900. Any balance remaining due from either company at that date is then to be divided into fifty equal semi-annual instalments, to be paid by the companies as they mature. The mortgage held by the Government is to remain in full force, and in case of any default the act is to become inoperative at its option, and its rights as they now exist (which include those of alteration, amendment, and repeal) to come into existence again. The act is to take effect on its acceptance by either the Central or the Union Pacific. It appears from Mr. Stanley Matthews's report accompanying the bill that the principal of the bonds issued to the Pacific roads is, in round numbers, $55,000,000; and that the total interest up to the maturity of the bonds would be $99,000,000 more, making a total of $154,000,000. The plan proposed would leave, after the application of the sinking fund to the debt, a balance unpaid of $51,000,000, provided for by the fifty semi-annual instalments. Mr. Matthews waives in his report all discussion of the legal rights of the Government, urging the view that the question should be treated on both sides as a pure matter of business. Practically it will be seen that the bill contemplates an annual payment of $1,000,000 by each road until 1900, and thereafter half that sum annually till 1950. It is open to the objection that seventy-two years is a dangerously long time for the Government to wait; but how the railroad companies can object to it, it is difficult to see.

A curious correspondence has been made public between Judge Dillon, on the one hand, and Mr. J. P. Usher and Mr. A. J. Poppleton, the attorneys respectively of the Kansas Pacific and the Union Pacific Railroad Companies, on the other. It shows that a suit has been brought in the Circuit Court of the United States for the District of Nebraska by the former company against the latter, under the so-called *pro-rata* clause of the Pacific Railroad Acts, the Kansas Company seeking to enforce certain rights which it claims as a branch of the Union Pacific Railroad. It shows further that the case has been pending ever since January 21, 1875, but that it was not brought to a hearing until November 15, 1877, when it was argued at Omaha by numerous and learned counsel before Judge Dillon and District Judge Dundy. The case was taken under advisement two months, at the end of which time Judge Dillon wrote to Judge Dundy that, inasmuch as his uncle (Sidney Dillon) was President of the Union Pacific Company, he found himself under embarrassment and desired, therefore, to turn it wholly over to Dundy for decision—the circumstance that Sidney Dillon was his uncle having dawned upon him only after the issue was joined and the argument concluded. Two days later he wrote again to Dundy suggesting that, "in view of the vast importance of the cause to the immediate parties and to the people of the whole country," he would suggest the propriety of endeavoring to get Justice Miller of the Supreme Court to sit in the case on a rehearing or on printed briefs. Later on it appears that Justice Miller consented to sit, but that the attorney of the Union Pacific Company declined to accede to that arrangement, and expressed his surprise at Judge Dillon's squeamishness, "in view of the fact that within five years past the Union Pacific Company has been a party to more than a hundred cases pending in his court, some of them of not less magnitude either in respect of pecuniary amount or the character of the questions involved than this, none of which had he ever declined to hear and decide for the reason assigned in this." Mr. Usher intimates in his part of the correspondence that if he can have neither the decision of Judge Dillon nor that of Justice Miller he shall dismiss the cause; and thus an expensive litigation of two years' standing must be commenced *de novo*, in some court where the presiding judge knows who his uncles and aunts are before the trial begins.

During the seven months from the first day of July last to the close of January last the total exports from the United States exceeded the imports by $140,522,066, and during the same time the exports of specie were $4,912,929 in excess of the specie imports, which amounted to $13,829,596. Of the $140,500,000 it is calculated that $40,000,000 were applied to the interest account on American securities owned in Europe, and that the remaining $100,000,000 have been paid with United States bonds and other securities sent back here since the threats of repudiation at Washington became alarming. Had it not been for this return of securities gold payments by the Treasury in 1879 would have been unquestioned. As it is, so strongly have commercial influences been in favor of the accumulation of gold here that, even with the return of United States bonds, bills on London have ruled much below the point which takes specie from us, and gold has accumulated until the New York banks hold nearly $7,000,000 more of it than the amount of United States legal-tender notes in their possession. Since the amended Bland Bill became a law, however, sterling bills have advanced more than half way, from where they started, to the specie-shipping point, the advance of last week having left them at 4.85 for sixty-day, and 4.87 for demand drafts; at 4.89½ for the latter gold will be exported. United States bonds in London have declined little during the week, but, with the exception of one day, have steadily ruled enough below the prices current here to make importations profitable. The decline in gold to 100¾ has quickened the return of

bonds and made strong the sterling-bill market. Gold has fallen wholly because the supply is so large and the demand so small, for the practical effects of the Silver Bill have not begun to be felt (and cannot be until the specie-shipping point is reached in the sterling-bill market), and there is no inclination on the part of speculators to anticipate these effects, inasmuch as the present supply of nearly $40,000,000 gold in the market is too heavy to handle. Silver during the week ruled at 54½*d.* to 54¼*d.* in London. At the close the bullion value of the 412½-grain silver dollar was about 91¼ cents.

The condition of the Eastern question at this writing seems to be this: It has as yet not been quite decided whether there will be a Conference, that is, a meeting of representatives of the Powers for the special purpose of consultation, or a Congress, that is, a meeting of plenipotentiaries with full power to agree to anything; but it will probably be the latter. England demands that the whole treaty of San Stefano shall be submitted to the Congress and placed in its control, and Austria is inclined to demand the same thing, but has not made up her mind, while Germany does not care much about it for herself. Russia, on the other hand, at first refused to submit anything which did not directly affect European interests, but, it is said, afterwards consented to submit to the Congress the question what should be submitted, feeling probably sure of the result, Germany being likely to side with her, and Turkey certain to do so. Andrássy has got the vote of 60,000,000 florins for purposes of preparation; but the Hungarians, who dread any addition of Slavs, have stipulated that it shall not be used for purposes of annexation. England, at the last hour, has bethought herself of taking up Greece as a protégé, and claiming representation for her at the Congress, although she has been snubbing her in the Turkish interest during the war. Had she done this fifty or even twenty years ago, she might by this time have had a vigorous successor ready to take the place of the Sultan in the Levant and hostile to Russia, and won a secure place in the affections of the Turkish Christians. As it is, the proposal will probably end in nothing except making England's failure more conspicuous.

The impression produced in England and Austria by Prince Bismarck's speech is evidently anything but cheering. The inference drawn from it is that in his opinion, at least, Russia is likely to have her own way within the limits prescribed by a fear that if Austria and England are not satisfied with the result the trouble may speedily recur. The *Economist*, too, which preserves that excellent mental balance combined with great shrewdness for which Mr. Bagehot made it so remarkable, comments on the quiet good sense with which Bismarck is able to talk of the situation, owing to his consciousness of German strength. It says:

"Prince Bismarck's speech in answer to the interpellation respecting affairs in the East is full of unpalatable good sense. The advantage of an assured sense of strength is evident in every line of it. England, which knows that she is badly prepared for war, and Austria, which knows that differences of race and policy make it almost impossible for her to declare war, are constantly tempted to gild their inaction by boasting. The successes of 1870 have made it needless for Germany to assert her ability to carry on a second or third campaign, while the unity of her people makes a declaration that she will, at a proper but unspecified time, maintain the interests and the dignity of the monarchy equally superfluous. Prince Bismarck can afford to assign the undisputed usufruct of these rhetorical artifices to Lord Beaconsfield and Prince Auersperg, and to address himself exclusively to the hard facts of the situation. He is the better able to do this, as he is not forced to account from day to day for the movements of a fleet which, like the bird in the story, flits from anchorage to anchorage with provoking, because unintelligible, versatility."

In fact, the inherent folly of threatening the Russian army in Bulgaria with a fleet begins to dawn on the mind of the British public, and the situation of the Ministry, which seemed promising when the fleet was sent into the Dardanelles, has been rapidly deteriorating under the influence of calm reflection. Their position has been rendered all the more embarrassing by the publication of a Memorandum presented by Count Shuvaloff to Lord Derby as early as last June, and which has the air of as honest a paper as ever was written, in which the Czar distinctly states the terms on which he will make peace in case he is not obliged to cross the Balkans, and states with equal distinctness that if he has to cross the Balkans he will ask for more, and will probably occupy Constantinople. The terms in the first case were simply the programme of the Constantinople Conference—*i. e.*, the autonomy of Bulgaria and "reforms" elsewhere; in the second case they were to be indefinitely larger. It appears, therefore, that the ministerial surprise and indignation at the Russian advance on Constantinople must have been largely feigned, and that the abuse of Russia for her bad faith has been simply slanderous. Worse still, it would seem that Lord Derby had been prevented from urging the wretched Turks to accept the first offer by the advice of Mr. Layard, whose career at Constantinople has shown how worthless as a man of affairs a great explorer can be. Our impressions as to the unreadiness of the English army for war—the unreadiness to take the field of even one corps of 35,000 men—are confirmed with much lamentation by all the leading journals.

The most portentous fact which has issued from the war is the alliance—which is, however, considering the condition of Turkey, too strong a word,—the complete subservience of Turkey to Russia. It is now plain that the Sultan has become and must remain, as long as and in so far as he is a European sovereign, the Czar's vassal. He has given up the protection of England, as powerless either to help or harm him, and according to Server Pasha, both in the conversation with a correspondent of the *Daily News* at Adrianople, for which Mr. Layard procured his dismissal, and a subsequent one with a Greek, will hereafter cultivate Russian friendship exclusively. He added that he was still the religious chief of 100,000,000 Asiatic Mussulmans, and as such one of the most powerful monarchs on the globe, and intimated that, despicable as he might seem on the Bosphorus, the Empress of India might find him an ugly customer in Afghanistan, along the Himalayas, and in fact over the whole of Asia. It is only as a tool of Russia, however, that he will ever be formidable. Left to himself, he and the Pashas will give no trouble to anybody until their credit revives and they can get money to equip another army, and it may be safely said that will not occur in our time. The "bloated bondholder" has had a lesson which will last him until the year 1950 at the very earliest.

The French Liberals are making somewhat unexpected progress. The election, after many ballots, of an extreme Legitimist to succeed General d'Aurelle de Paladines as life senator, at first led to the belief that the irreconcilable element had got the upper hand in that body; but subsequent events have put a better face on matters. Three bills have passed the Assembly, all of them of considerable importance in the Liberal programme. One provides that the "state of siege" shall only be proclaimed by legislative enactment, if the Legislature is sitting; that, if proclaimed through necessity during the recess, the Legislature shall be convened within two days afterwards; and that in case of dissolution it shall not be proclaimed at all until the new Legislature meets. Another protects the colporteurs (news-venders) from the arbitrary interference of the prefects, who, before the late election, evaded the law of 1875, which prohibits administrative interference with the circulation of any periodical, by an abuse of the power of licensing the colporteurs. That is, the prefect did not forbid a colporteur to sell a particular paper; he simply showed him a list of papers, and said he could, of course, sell them if he pleased, but if he did his license would be withdrawn from him as a person of defective morality. The remaining bill amnesties all offenders against the press laws against whom prosecutions were instituted during the Broglie-Fourtou Ministry. The Right has fought all these measures with more or less vigor in the House, but their resistance relaxed in the Senate from the first; and a great falling away of the Constitutionals or Orleanists from the Extremists now seems likely to bring the two bodies into a fair approach to harmony.

THE PROS AND CONS OF THE FISHERIES AWARD.

MR. BLAINE has made a speech in the Senate in opposition to the payment of the award of the Canadian Fisheries Commission, containing statements which, if correct, throw some new light on the history of the proceeding. He says that when M. Delfosse, the Belgian Minister, was suggested as the umpire before the *Alabama* Commission, Lord Ripon acknowledged at once that he would probably be objectionable, as the representative of a Power strongly under British influence, and in this view the American Commissioners concurred. It was then settled that if the two Powers could not agree on a third arbitrator within three months, the naming of him was to be left to Count Beust. Mr. Blaine now alleges that during these three months, beginning July, 1873, Mr. Fish vainly endeavored to get Sir Edward Thornton to agree with him on somebody else than M. Delfosse; that Sir Edward suggested this gentleman and that Mr. Fish peremptorily refused to accept him, and that the three months passed by in fruitless negotiation, leaving the choice at last in the hands of Count Beust, the Austrian Minister in London, who named M. Delfosse, in February, 1877. To this it appears Mr. Fish then assented. Mr. Blaine's inference is that Lord Granville was during all this time intriguing for the appointment of M. Delfosse, and that he finally carried his point by the use "of means of influencing" Count Beust "which were not within the reach" of the American Government.

How accurate this story is we are unable to say. Accuracy in "charges" is not Mr. Blaine's *forte*. The fact is, however, that in whatever way M. Delfosse's appointment was brought about, it was made in February, 1877, and was accepted by Mr. Fish, and was known to Congress, which was then sitting, and all the world from that time until June of the same year, when the Commission was organized and began its work. During these five months no objection to M. Delfosse was made by anybody. In fact, any objection to him which may have existed, arising out of irregularity in the mode of his appointment or out of presumed personal unfitness, was waived in the most solemn and public manner by the appearance of the United States by agent and counsel before the Commission and the prosecution of the arbitration for six months. The inference from this is unavoidable, that had the Commission made a small award or awarded nothing, the unfitness of M. Delfosse would never have been heard of from our side. Comment on this is needless among honorable men. That M. Delfosse proved to be but ill-equipped for weighing evidence in a complicated case we pointed out in an article two weeks ago. This might have been suspected long before the Commission met; but if suspected it only rendered double care necessary in the selection of the American arbitrator. He ought to have been the strongest man we could find. The Canadians on their side furnished such a man. Was Mr. Kellogg the best we could do? The truth is that Mr. Blaine and others who are interested in the matter could not employ their time better than in publishing "the secret history" of Mr. Kellogg's appointment. How did he get the place? Whose "man" was he? Was there any good ground for supposing that he was qualified for the work? These are interesting questions, because we make bold to affirm that it was his inability to match the British Commissioner in acting on M. Delfosse's mind that brought about the decision which we are all deploring, and which some of us are bent on disregarding.

The other arguments used thus far in favor of the non-payment of the award are somewhat curious. It is said, in the first place, that $1,000,000 is the utmost we *ought* to pay, or *will* pay; but if this is true, the question submitted to the arbitrators ought to have been what sum, if any sum at all, not exceeding one million, we should pay the Canadians. It is also said that we are not bound by the decision because it was not unanimous, a majority decision not having been expressly provided for in the Treaty. Mr. Blaine cited one or two English law-books to show that under the English common law, where a majority decision is not expressly provided for, either of the litigants may refuse to submit to the award if it is not unanimous. But the practice under statute in, we believe, nearly every State in the Union is to make the majority decision sufficient, which points to the conclusion that the failure to provide expressly for a majority decision in this case was an oversight. So also does the choice of a foreign umpire. If M. Delfosse was not to have a casting vote, what was the use of him? Why not have left the British and American representatives to agree without him, if they have to agree in any case. If a private disputant concurred in the submission of his case to such a tribunal as this, and when the judgment went against him called for unanimity, would he not have considerable difficulty in getting anybody to go into an arbitration with him again? In fact, if this unanimity point is pressed, will it not give the whole arrangement the air of a premeditated failure, for will it not amount to our saying that we never agreed to pay unless Mr. Kellogg consented and fixed the amount? In fact, it is a fair deduction from the position that we ought in the beginning to have proposed to leave the whole matter to an American of our own selection, with instructions to award no more than a million, if any thing; for this is substantially what some of us are now insisting on. At all events, the time to object to the constitution of a board of arbitrators, and to scrutinize the terms of the case submitted to them, is before the cause is tried. Objections afterwards made by the defeated party, however well founded, cannot have much moral weight, and he is lucky if they do not make people laugh.

We gave two weeks ago in detail excellent reasons for considering the amount of the award exorbitant and not warranted by the evidence, and it will clear the ground in the eyes of some people if we acknowledge fully that the United States need not pay a cent if they do not please, that refusal to abide by the decision of arbitrators is not unprecedented, and that in these times five millions are a large sum. We may, too, freely express our fear that the Canadians will never get any money, so that our discussion of the matter may, as far as the present case is concerned, appear somewhat unpractical or useless. But then, in discussing any pending case, even if the result be already sure, one's chances of a hearing are apt to be good, and this award, if it has no other effect, may help to set the better portion of the American people thinking a little more seriously about the influence on the national reputation and national morality which the conduct of Congress in the interpretation of national obligations is exciting and likely to excite. As soon as the war was over and the attention of politicians was turned to these obligations in their most serious form—the public debt—an attempt was made, and powerfully supported, to construe the national bonds in the spirit of a sharp lawyer contending for an unscrupulous client. In the *Alabama* controversy we claimed compensation from Great Britain for certain specific injuries to the property of certain specified persons, proved the damage, and got the money, and all this with as much definiteness and solemnity and publicity as it was possible to put into a litigation. As soon as we were paid, however, we turned around and denied that some of these very persons had suffered any loss or were entitled to any redress, and kept what we had received on their account in the national Treasury, where it now is; and we have defended the performance by quibbles which have shocked the civilized world, and which our own representative at the arbitration considers dishonest. We have during the last five years borrowed some hundreds of millions of dollars *in gold coin*, and solemnly promised through all the proper sources to repay it, principal and interest, in gold coin; which, however, has not prevented us from passing an act, with loud cheers, declaring both one and the other payable in depreciated silver coin, and great multitudes of our people have been led to think this is all right because it is legal. Other cases, too, have occurred, and are so well known that we need not enumerate them, in which we have exacted indemnity from foreign powers for wrongs done to our own citizens, and then coolly refused to pay it over to our clients, so that a claim for indemnity by the United States now excites a by no means complimentary smile in diplomatic circles, and

the American name is becoming more and more associated in foreign eyes with tricky and shady and somewhat brazen transactions.

What we fear now is that the failure of this Canadian arbitration will deepen this disrepute, owing largely to the way in which the award will be repudiated. The way an honorable man might meet such an occurrence would be by a strong protest against the amount, based on the evidence, and an earnest request for a rehearing, and perhaps this is the course the Government may take. But it is hard to see how an absolute refusal to pay on the ground that the decision was not unanimous, or that we did not expect to pay so much, can result in anything but disgrace, and in the utter and final discredit of the "principle of arbitration," to the strength of which we at one time flattered ourselves that the settlement of the *Alabama* controversy would contribute much. All questions of national liability, created by the acts of the nation's properly constituted representatives, are to the people questions of the comparative value of the national reputation and of money. A nation cannot be compelled to pay anything, and its decisions, therefore, in such matters are expressions of its highest morality and of its best aspirations. If what it most of all desires is to get money by hook or by crook, and to keep what it gets, its course is easy enough, and much money can from time to time be made in this way. The opportunities of cheating which are offered to a government are very numerous and easy. If, on the other hand, it most of all desires to play a worthy part in human society, to strengthen the spirit of self-restraint and self-sacrifice on which all civilization is based, and to help to raise the moral plane on which its own people and all peoples live; if it has the noble ambition to win the respect of mankind, not simply as a physical power, but as a moral being, there is no doubt it will have every now and then to submit to some pecuniary loss. It will have to part with money that it would be pleasant to keep, and to surrender advantages to which every smart lawyer would declare that it is fairly entitled, and to give up every now and then the peddler's luxury of getting the best of a bargain.

"WHEELING INTO LINE" ON THE SILVER QUESTION.

A GOOD many newspapers of prominence which have strenuously opposed the remonetization of silver, have, since the passage of the act, begun to make a parade of acquiescence in the decision of the majority, and call for a full and fair trial of "the experiment." "This," they say, "is the people's government, and the people having decided in favor of the double standard and against the mono-metallism of Europe, it is the duty of all to submit cheerfully and work out the monetary problem on the new basis." This is an unfortunate tone to adopt, first, because it is logically absurd, and, secondly, because it is likely to do mischief both by obscuring the issues in the late controversy, and by preventing recourse to proper precautions against the results which all honest opponents of the Silver Bill must still believe to be probable. If they do not still believe them probable, their opposition to the bill must have either been a piece of buffoonery or false pretence.

We did not oppose the Silver Bill simply because we thought it could not be passed. In fact, the probability that it would be passed has been very strong for six months. We opposed it because *if passed* we thought it would sooner or later work mischief, and it is something very like charlatanry for any one who so opposed it to turn round now and say that, since it has passed, the mischief will not ensue. Moreover, the main argument against it was that no popular majorities in its favor could make it work satisfactorily. If strong popular approval was all that was needed to make it a beneficial or harmless measure, the opposition to it would have been very foolish; for that it had this strong popular approval has long been plain. The principal reason for opposing it was that popular support could not make it work satisfactorily, that it dealt with an order of facts which are only to a very limited degree within the control of legislation, and that once silver was restored to its old position as a legal tender for unlimited amount, it passed under the operation of the laws of trade, which are independent of and override those of Congress, and which no bowing to the popular will or "wheeling into line" can stay or permanently obstruct.

All this will appear the plainer if we consider for a moment how little of the problem which this silver agitation presents still remains in the hands of the Government, or within reach of public opinion. The Secretary of the Treasury can coin either two millions of dollars a month or four. We can by "wheeling" doubtless make him coin four, which he would properly as an executive officer do in any case, and he can probably by his manner of dealing with his treasury balances slightly hasten or retard the escape of gold from his hands, in case the price of silver bullion remains below that of gold; but this is all. If the Bland Bill had passed in its first shape, he would have been perfectly helpless from the outset. The Senate amendments have given him a kind of brake with which he may keep his hold on the movement for about two years. In that time he will have lost all control of it. Human nature, working through the laws of trade, which have thus far beaten every government the world has ever seen on all currency questions, will beat him and beat Congress, and "the Mississippi Valley," and everybody else. No legislation, or popular agitation, or newspaper acquiescence, will ever make any commodity pass very long for more than its worth, or secure low interest on bad security, or maintain the credit of a poor pay. These things are beyond kings and people, congresses and parliaments, and it is because they are that the Silver Bill is objectionable.

In the next place, we would invite the attention of "wheelers" to what has already been accomplished in the way of the predicted mischief. The conversion of the six per cent. bonds into four per cent. has been stopped, entailing a loss per annum on the country of about $17,000,000. If this was all it would, perhaps, not be worth dwelling on. The country, it might be said, can stand a loss of this amount per annum, to secure a desirable change in its currency. But the thing which this loss indicates, and of which it is the consequence, is very important. It shows not that we have lost our credit as a nation—for the United States can, of course, still go into the markets and borrow—but that we have lost our position in the money market as a first-class power. We have descended from the rank of a four per cent. borrower to that of a six or seven per cent. borrower. That is, we have passed from the class composed of Great Britain, Germany, France, and Holland, into that composed of Spain, Italy, Greece, Austria, Turkey, and the South American States. We are, in short, now among the repudiators and defaulters. But it will be said: "How can this be? Our obligations have up to this moment been discharged according to contract. Whatever the Silver Bill may threaten, neither our debt nor the interest on it has as yet been paid in depreciated currency, and possibly it never will be; for even if paid in silver, silver may before it is paid rise to par in gold whereas these second-class or seven-per-cent. states have actually defaulted or 'readjusted' already." Yes, but actual default or "readjustment" is not necessary to the loss of credit. Credit depends not only on the faithful observance of contracts in practice, but on the stern repudiation of all *claim to the right of changing the terms of the contract without the consent of the creditor.* A power which ostentatiously claims this right, and legislates in exercise of it, loses its credit before withholding a cent of its debts, because it loses the confidence of lenders. It opens up to them the possibility of loss through the construction of the contract by one of the parties to it, for his own advantage, without regard to the understanding, wishes, or expectations of the other party. They will still probably lend to such a power—we presume even Turkey might still borrow—but they will not lend at low rates of interest, and nobody will lend to it except the speculative class.

There are two aggravations of the matter in our case, which we think are almost without precedent. One is that the alteration of the contract has been accompanied, not by the plea of poverty, which Spain, Turkey, Austria, and Italy have been able to offer, but

by vituperation of the whole capitalist and creditor class as sharpers and knaves, who not only do not morally deserve partial payment, but do not deserve any payment at all. The other is that we have made public proclamation that our Government, though regularly organized and acting within its powers under the Constitution, does not bind the nation, and that solemn legislative acts passed after much and long consideration, and operating as notice to the money markets, may possibly be treated by the country as a common fraud and totally repudiated at the polls. The Act of 1873 demonetizing silver appeared to the outside world a solemn waiver of the right to use silver in the payment of the principal or interest of the public debt, made on behalf of the United States by its constituted authorities; and under that waiver and the explanations of it by the lawful officers of the Government, very large sums have been borrowed in the expectation and belief that they would be paid in gold. The Silver Bill just passed is a formal disavowal of that waiver, a notice to all the world that Congress cannot pledge the nation. This could not but have very serious effects on our credit, even if silver had retained its old value. Coming after a great decline in the value of silver, it seems not only the revelation of a serious defect in the working of our political machinery, but of deep-seated corruption of public opinion.

Let us consider, too, for one moment, what we have to offer to the public creditor and to the money markets of the world in answer to the suspicions thus excited—in support of the assertion, for instance, that the creditor will suffer no loss after all, since silver will be sure to reach the par of gold before he draws his money, or in support of the assertion that we have done him no moral wrong, but have simply resumed the exercise of a just right. It is to be observed here that the Silver Bill is legislation based on prophecy—that is, not on accomplished facts, but on the opinions of a number of persons as to what the facts will be hereafter. Now, if an individual debtor were to ask a creditor to accept a depreciated security in lieu of one he already held of higher value, on the ground that the one last offered would certainly rise, the creditor would most assuredly enquire closely into the grounds of this opinion; he would not be satisfied by being told that a great many people held it; he would want to know what kind of people held it. We may be sure that the creditors of the United States are prosecuting the very same enquiry, though in a slightly different way. They are not in the smallest degree affected by hearing that in "the Mississippi Valley" millions of voters think silver will rise. They ask whether the best judges of such matters, the Americans who have given most attention to the mechanism of exchange—the merchants, bankers, and the most eminent economical writers and students of finance—think so; for if they do, it will of course be to a certain extent an excuse for what appears on the surface a somewhat high-handed proceeding. But the answer unhappily has to be, No; that nobody in America who has hitherto had any reputation for knowledge and judgment in such matters approved of the Silver Bill; that, in fact, such persons to a man disapprove of it strongly, and that the only reason we have to offer for thinking that we are not doing our creditors a great wrong is that "T. W.," Mr. Murat Halstead, Mr. Joseph Medill, the versatile Mr. Kelley, the wild-eyed Mr. Bland, the dexterous Mr. Jones, and a man known as "the Tall Sycamore of the Wabash," and the like, have assured us with loud yells that it will all come right in the end. As these gentlemen are unknown as authorities in the financial world, and as few merchants would probably think of following their advice in a five-hundred-dollar venture, their approval of one of the greatest changes ever made in the currency of a first-class power naturally does not count for much. Nor is our creditors' confidence likely to be strengthened by hearing that the bill passed with little or no debate in Congress.

As regards the morality of the matter, lenders will not ask for our authorities. They will judge us, no matter how much we may squirm or protest, by that of the civilized world, and under that code the nature and obligations of a promise were settled ages ago, and cannot be modified now by any count of noses. No "wheeling into line" can save us from its operation. Legislation cannot change it. Legislation may save a thief from jail, but it cannot make theft anything but theft. So that, unless we are under a strong delusion, the very best service those who have opposed the Silver Bill can render to the country is to stick to their opinions and warnings, and exert whatever influence they have in preparing the country for its worst effects, by procuring State legislation in aid of the gold standard and basing contracts on it, and strengthening the public and private conscience with regard to the obligation of contracts, and the danger and disgrace of a shifting standard of value. This is due to the poor and ignorant even from those who care nothing about the bondholders or the public credit. A fluctuating standard is a curse to a country, for it converts all trade into gambling, and enables, as nothing else does, the speculator to live off the poor. It will never be time to "wheel into line" until the country has gone back to the most stable measure of value, and until the whole people is permeated by a deep and lasting sense of its moral as well as its commercial importance.

WASHINGTON TOPICS.

WASHINGTON, March 11, 1878.

BOTH the friends and the enemies of the Silver Bill in Congress have been surprised at the small effect produced by its passage upon the price of silver, the price of gold, the price of greenbacks, the price of bonds, the price of anything. The supporters of the bill maintained that silver would advance to something near par with gold on the basis of 16 to 1—*i.e.*, to 59*d.* per ounce. On the contrary, it has fallen from 55*d.* to 54½*d.*, and remains sluggish at the latter quotation. The opponents of the bill urged that the price of gold, measured by greenbacks, would advance; on the contrary, it has fallen from 102 to 101. The latter circumstance has been hailed by the silver-men with such gusto that one might infer that they had no other object in life but to improve the public credit, to restore specie payments, and to establish a perpetual equilibrium of the two precious metals. Undoubtedly a considerable number, perhaps a majority of them, are gratified that gold has not advanced, and that bonds have not fallen. Not so, however, the prime movers and engineers of the bill. They are disappointed that the predictions of their opponents have not yet come true, and they are already working up new measures to make them come true. The first of these is the bill of Congressman Buckner to abolish national-bank notes and to substitute Government notes in their stead. "Moderate men" are besought to give their support to this measure upon the same grounds that they were invited to support the Silver Bill—in order to control the movement and prevent "the people" from demanding and obtaining something a great deal worse, as, for instance, a bill to pay the bonds in greenbacks outright. I understand that this is now the great concern of Senator Jones, of Nevada. He fears that unless himself and other moderate men issue greenbacks on the basis of population—so many dollars *per capita*—other and less conservative statesmen will seize the reins of power and issue them on the basis of acreage and square-mileage!

What course will the Secretary of the Treasury adopt in his execution of the silver-dollar law, in conjunction with the other laws on the statute book? He has enough gold on hand, together with his probable receipts during the next four months, to pay one year's interest on the public debt, and it may be safely assumed that he will not pay any silver for interest until he pays all the interest in silver. Under the power which he has to sell bonds for resumption purposes, coupled with the provisions of the silver law, he can reduce the greenback circulation to $300,000,000, putting out silver dollars in place of the notes so retired, within the next four or five months, and this process will be greatly facilitated if the House passes the "long-bond bill" which passed the Senate a few days ago. This bill makes greenbacks convertible into a 4 per cent. 50-year bond—a much more desirable investment than the 4 per cents which the Secretary is now selling. Inasmuch as the Secretary is earnestly in favor of specie resumption, I am surprised to hear that he is opposed to the passage of this "long-bond bill," which would seem to put into his hands powers and resources to that end quite beyond anything in existing laws. There is now so much law on the statute book of one kind and another that the Secretary can do pretty much anything he pleases.

A week ago the pardon of Anderson was confidently looked for, and

prominent Southern men say it would have been granted if any satisfactory assurance had been given that the convict would be removed from office as deputy-collector of the port of New Orleans. There was a great deal of nervousness at the South lest the prosecutions of the Returning Board should bring on a reaction at the North, and this apprehension was so strong at one time that the Louisiana authorities would have been glad to send Wells and Anderson on a triumphal car anywhere across the State boundary, or even keep them at home in any other capacity than that of high public functionaries. But the spectacle of these culprits representing the majesty of the nation, and standing in the places where whatever respect is due to the Federal authority must be paid, was too much for the leniency of Governor Nicholls. Nevertheless, the Southern men say that Wells and Anderson would not have been brought to trial at all but for the provocation committed by the admission of Kellogg to the United States Senate. This, they insist, was the first infraction of the compromise tacitly made with the President's special commissioners last April.

Underneath the gossip and wrangling in the matter of the Returning-Board trials one hears a rumor, now and then, that the question of the disputed Presidency is to be reopened ; and however often it may be pointed out that there is no place for such a controversy to begin, no *pou sto* for the lever to rest upon which is to pry Mr. Hayes out of his seat, this baleful rumor revives and runs through the whole gamut. It has never found the smallest encouragement among the Southern Democrats. Indeed, they would resist any movement of the kind by every means in their power. But latterly it seems to have found lodgment in Republican circles. While there is not the remotest chance that Mr. Hayes can be disturbed during his term of office, the dissatisfaction of the party with his methods of administration is so intense that I have no doubt the majority of Republicans in both Houses would prefer Tilden to Hayes today, and would rather see a Democratic victory in 1880 than to have Mr. Hayes re-elected if he were a candidate for re-election. Failure to get control of the offices is at the bottom of this dissatisfaction among Congressmen, but that is not the whole of it. It is not merely because the President has broken up an old system of distributing appointments that he is held to be the destroyer of the party, but because he has substituted nothing in its place. The President's caprice is considered no better moral foundation for the civil service than a Congressman's caprice, and much less likely to strengthen his party. The President himself does not see the force of this objection as yet, but there are those in his Cabinet who do see it, and who know that the present estrangement between the President and his party cannot last three years longer without producing some political shock violent enough to dispel the complacency which now envelops the White House. It is too late for Mr. Hayes to go back to the old system of dividing the spoils and assessing office-holders for election expenses. Not that the ordinary Congressman would refuse to be placated on that basis, but because so many promises have been made to institute a reform "thorough, radical, and complete" that flesh and blood could not endure the opprobrium of a surrender now; and it would probably be found in the next fall elections that returning were more tedious than go o'er.

Mr. Fernando Wood is courteously obstinate on the subject of his tariff bill. Changes of detail he is willing to make on sufficient evidence, but his general plan of going into the whole subject and making one job of it, instead of taking up a few notoriously bad features of the existing tariff and amending them, will not be abandoned until the House shall have voted it down. I have not seen one member of Congress who thinks Mr. Wood's bill can pass either House, while most members are convinced that the tariff is ill-adapted to the present condition of the country and that something should be done with it. A respectable portion of the woollen manufacturers of New England are ready to agree to a reduction of the duty on their fabrics to 25 per cent., provided they can have free wool. This policy has been strongly advocated by Mr. David A. Wells, who has been here several days. It will probably be incorporated in the general bill and lost, together with some other wholesome changes which might be carried if presented separately. The probable shortage of revenue during the next fiscal year does not seem to be a matter of concern in Congress, and although the President talks about it to his visitors he does not esteem it his business sufficiently to bestir himself with the Committee of Ways and Means in order to obtain new sources of income. Probably the want will be so seriously felt before midsummer that the attempt will be made to restore the duties on tea and coffee, but at present everybody seems to be waiting for everybody else to assume that prodigious undertaking.

ITALY AND THE NEW POPE.

ROME, February 21, 1878.

YESTERDAY, at half-past one o'clock, the new Pope was proclaimed from the balcony of Saint Peter's to the few curious people, scarcely a hundred in all, who were assembled on the vast square before the church. Once more the Italian good sense, that *senno Italiano* of which the nation is as proud as others of heroism or genius, has got the better of passion, and once more it was supported by that proverbial *stella d'Italia—i. e.*, the good luck which abandons the prudent as little as the audacious. The fanatics desirous of having a pope who might preach a new crusade against the Kingdom of Italy and all other liberal states have been beaten, as well as those, more crafty and ambitious, who wished to bring about a conciliation with the modern state in order to rule within this state by means of the opportunities which it offered. It is a man of the middle party who has come out of the shortest Conclave ever witnessed, I think ; and Cardinal Pecci, who has found means to take this almost neutral attitude in the short fortnight of the *sedisvacance*, will most likely assume it in a more decided way still as Pope Leo XIII.

It was Cardinal Pecci, indeed, who pleaded for the Conclave in Rome against the *zelanti* under Manning, Panebianco, and Falloux, who wanted to have it out of Italy in order to show the world that the Church was not free in Rome ; it was Cardinal Pecci who politely declined the protection volunteered by the Catholic ambassadors, thereby manifesting clearly his confidence in the promises of safety given by the Italian Government ; it was he, finally, who appealed to the royal gendarmes to maintain order in Saint Peter's during the *novendiali*. But, on the other hand, it was the same Cardinal Pecci who refused the King of Italy the seat of honor at the funeral of Pio Nono, unwisely solicited by the Italian Ministry ; and although he had his election proclaimed according to tradition on the square of St. Peter's, he maintained the fiction of the captivity by giving his first blessing to the faithful not from the outward balcony of the metropolitan church, but inside the cathedral. It is easy to recognize in this the man who entered Perugia in revolt, in 1860, with fire and sword in order to subject her to his sovereign the Pope, and who, once the town had been incorporated into the Kingdom of Italy, recommended his flock to respect the new Government. Is it to be looked upon as an advantage or a disadvantage for Italy that the *terzo partito* in the Church should thus have won the day ?

With regard to this question there are three parties among the Italian Liberals as well as among the Clericals. One, certainly not numerous but important, group of sincere, energetic patriots, who look at things from a lofty standpoint, sees the greatest bane of Italy in the indolence of the nation, the low pulse of public life. They are convinced that the best tonic, as it were, for their country would be open warfare with the Church, even the fiercest struggle being preferable to the atony now reigning. There is much apparent truth in this view ; but it has the defect of leaving out of calculation the reality of the Italian character, which is pretty much the same on this side of the Tiber and on the other. If there is but little "haine vigoureuse" in the Italian clergy against the Liberal kingdom which has usurped the States of the Church, there is still less fanaticism among the Liberals against that Papacy which by its visible authority prevents the formation of that invisible moral authority which the Protestant believer carries in his own conscience. Even those few who wish that it should be the reverse have a philosophical, not a religious, faith. This being the disposition of both camps, an artificial warfare, such as the election of a fanatic would have caused, would not stir up men's souls. It would create disorder, difficulties of all sorts, in inner and outer politics ; but the dormant spirit of Italy would not be roused by it, because if that spirit is asleep so far as political questions are concerned, it is dead as to religious ones.

There exists in the Clerical as well as in the Liberal army a fraction which sees the salvation both of the religious and political life of Italy in an unreserved reconciliation between state and church. You will remember what I told you some months ago about the indiscretions of that *enfant terrible* of Jesuitism, P. Curci. I do not doubt that he has numerous adherents, not only among the lay believers, but also among the low clergy ; he seems as yet to have none in the higher. The candidate of the party appears not even to have been named in the Conclave yesterday. As for the Liberals, they generally dread a formal reconciliation which would have for its immediate consequence a participation of the Catholics in the political elections. Few are those who believe in the urgent necessity of reforming and reuniting the dissolving Liberal party, even at the risk of a transitory Clerical ministry, and who are convinced that only

the presence of a good number of Clerical members in Monte Citorio (the House of Parliament) could bring truth and vitality into the vitiated parliamentary party life of Italy. I for one do not think the experiment as yet very dangerous; for although the Catholics have on their side numbers, wealth, and organization, they have neither the advantage of possession nor that of intelligence, culture, and governmental experience. This, of course, they would acquire in time, and the utter decomposition of the great Liberal party, split as it is into a dozen fractions, discredited by eighteen years of indifferent home government, would assist them, even if the so-called Neo-guelph fraction of the Liberal party should not actually come to their rescue, as it is probable they would as soon as they saw that the existence of the national kingdom itself was no longer questioned by the Clericals. Now, this branch of the Liberal party is composed of clever and experienced men, all of whom stood behind Cavour as early as 1859 and 1860; they are the real authors of the "Law of Guarantees" which has sanctioned the principle of the free church in the free state. Had this combination succeeded in the election of a conciliatory pope, the ardently-wished-for animation and invigoration of public life would have been attained at once; for the indifference of the Liberals and Clericals by no means extends to the question who should reign in the state or in the church, provided the state and the church be recognized as they are. Now, this result seems to me and to some Liberal Italians important enough to risk even a momentary loss of power, which they are convinced would not occur, as all the Liberal fractions would infallibly unite again in presence of the common enemy, and once united be more than a match for him.

Neither of these extreme parties had the best in yesterday's competition. It was the *juste milieu* which carried the day, according to the wish of the overwhelming majority of the Italians, whether Catholics or Liberals. Leo XIII. will continue to protest on paper against the presence of King Humbert and his Government in Rome, and in fact will avoid all conflict, as Pio Nono did before him. Now, this is precisely the thing peace-loving Italy wished for. There will be neither a struggle about the "to be or not to be" of kingdom or Papacy, nor about who shall rule *in* the kingdom, Catholics or Liberals. Things will remain for a while exactly as they now are, and if religious and political life fall still lower than they are now, why, the nation is barely conscious of it, and the better ones among patriots and priests—those who pursue a higher ideal end for their nation—will once more learn by experience that statesmen, like sculptors or architects, have to work with the materials they have in hand, and attempt no higher plans than they can carry out with them.

It is the feeling that the immense majority of Italians on both sides wished this solution which made it so certain that at the Palazzo Braschi (Ministry of the Interior) people were able to say already before the Conclave had assembled that Cardinal Pecci would be elected; and it was this certitude which created the strange indifference to Pio Nono's death and the election of a new Pope, so striking to foreigners unacquainted with Italy. The few people I have spoken of who desired either open warfare between church and state or a conciliation which would have been the signal for another struggle within the state for influence in it, are an *élite* of highly cultivated minds and noble characters; the mass of the nation knew perfectly that there was no danger of a conflict, and they were determined on both sides to do their best to avoid it. Here it was that they showed their proverbial shrewdness, supported by their habitual good luck. The good luck was that at the death of Pius IX., as at the death of Victor Emmanuel, the Radical party should have been in power. Old General Lamarmora, who was not without a certain dry humor, when he was asked in 1866 who should command, said: "Take Cialdini; he would have the advantage of having no Cialdini at his side." It is in this sense that I consider the presence of the Left in office as a piece of good fortune. The Signori Nicotera and Crispi had been so long passionate republicans and pretophobes, they used, even after having rallied to the monarchy, to speak so loudly of this institution as of a necessary but transitory evil, that maybe, had they still been in the Opposition during these two months, they might have created all sorts of difficulties. Being themselves ministers of the king, they outdid in loyalty all that the most ardent royalists ever had done; and being afraid of losing their places, or at any rate of putting themselves in a very precarious position both with regard to domestic and foreign policy, in case of anti-clerical outbreak at the Conclave, they were more prudent and circumspect, and did more to tranquillize the Cardinal's College than the Moderates would ever have been able to do. They even prorogued Parliament, which has not yet assembled since the king's accession, in order that no indiscreet Hotspur should ask awkward questions about the Conclave—a measure which they would never have pardoned a moderate government for taking had they themselves still happened to belong to the Opposition.

This was a most fortunate circumstance; but there is, besides, merit in the case. Nobody who judges this nation by the standard we are wont to apply to northern and Protestant nations can be just toward it. Good and bad qualities, rapid intelligence and absence of general ideas, spontaneousness and calculation, lie so mixed up and melted together, as it were, in the Italian nature, that it is impossible to separate them; they are quick and impulsive, and naïve and selfish, like children; but they are children who are heirs to an old, accumulated civilization. No doubt they were deeply moved at the king's death; they felt that that man had risked his crown and his family's future for and with them; they saw in him the author of their national independence, which for years had been and still is uppermost in their thoughts; he represented in their eyes the unity of their country, visible and embodied, and he reminded them moreover of the poetical spring-time of their national life. No wonder that they mourned him, and nothing could be more voluntary, more spontaneous than this electric shock of sympathy felt throughout the nation; a movement more intense and more general than any I ever witnessed, excepting the one which prompted France in 1870 to take up arms against Germany. Still, at the same time, the Italians know how to take advantage of their own enthusiasm, and with that rapidity of tacit understanding which is so characteristic of them, and which made them the cleverest conspirators in the world, they converted their sentimental outbreak into a new plébiscite, far more imposing, more natural, more universal than any of those official ones by which, eighteen years ago, the Italian monarchy was founded. So it was at the death of Pius IX. No doubt they were indifferent. The Pope had not shown himself for the last seven years, and was nearly forgotten even by those who had chanced to see him before 1870. The last echo of 1847 and of his liberalism and patriotism had long ago expired; few people had anything to win or to lose by his death; all were convinced that the Papal institution, deprived of all temporal power, was stronger than the man who chanced to be at the head of it, and consequently that the new pope would make but little change. Still, they willingly and wittingly, but without any formal agreement, exaggerated their indifference, in order that all should go off smoothly and no pretext be given for any disturbance. They all wanted to keep in Italy that Papacy which is an Italian glory, and lends, even in its decay, a certain splendor to the country. Consequently, it was important that the Holy College should feel itself free, and that Europe should witness this absolute freedom. So the legend of the captivity of the church vanishes, while the legend of the vitality of the Italian monarchy is acquiring new life. All foreign cardinals and ambassadors must needs confess to the world that the election of a pope was never less influenced or threatened than since the Italians have been the guards of the Vatican; and this is a new title to the gratitude of Europe which Italy has acquired, silently, by doing nothing, but which no eloquence would have brought about so completely. Just so, four weeks ago, was the silent but none the less eloquent plébiscite I spoke of a moment ago—a spectacle calculated to strike the foreign princes and ambassadors with the popularity of the Italian dynasty. It elicited as a consequence a new recognition of the kingdom from the Powers—a recognition infinitely more spontaneous and more valuable than the one wrung from them sixteen years ago. And never, it seems, was the Kingdom of Italy more formally sanctioned both by the opinion and the governments of Europe than just now.

So the extraordinary political genius of this nation is continually repairing the faults committed by their administrative incapacity, just as the French daily make good by their administrative genius the bad results of their political inability. The finances of Italy are far from being in order; her schools, and railways, and roads, and canals leave much to be wished; her poor-laws and her charitable foundations are greatly in the rear of the times; her army and navy are certainly far from being as efficient as they ought to be; her justice is in a deplorable state, and her commerce, her industry, her agriculture develop very slowly; but politically the whole nation shows itself capable of acting like one very able statesman, who achieves great things by cleverly profiting by circumstances, turning every chance to account, knowing how to make himself appear stronger than he is, and conquering finally a position in the world and a security at home which to the closer observer hardly seem justified by reality.

Correspondence.

THE COMMITTEE ON THE CONDUCT OF THE WAR.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The notice of Benjamin F. Wade, in No. 662 of the *Nation*, contains these words: "He naturally took his place as chairman of the joint Congressional Committee on the Conduct of the War, where his services were *real* and *invaluable*." The Committee on the Conduct of the War was one thing, its method of working was another thing, and both were as bad as they well could be. The committee was often directed by the most violent and ill-balanced of its members, and especially by its chairman. Its policy was simple, and consisted in summoning subaltern officers, and not only inviting but even inciting them to criticise their superiors behind their backs. The testimony taken after the chief battles is often a continuous mass of such mutinous talk as ought to have cashiered the witnesses. Nothing more strongly proves the manly devotion to duty among the officers of the Army of the Potomac than the fact that most of them preserved their self-respect in face of an influence so prejudicial to good order and military discipline.

It followed from its constitution that this committee early became, and ever continued, a hot-bed of political and military intrigue. The leading members had certain officers in mind who were "in favor of a vigorous prosecution of the war," and "whose hearts were in the cause." These commanders were always pushed at the expense of their less popular brethren. Not only had the committee a keen judgment on Washington generals, but a nice discrimination in difficult questions of strategy and tactics. For example, there is nothing in the literature of the Rebellion more ludicrous in its military blunders, or more exasperating for the perversity of its conclusions, than the report on the "Mine," or battle of Petersburg. To say that the performances of the leading spirit of that committee were "invaluable" is to make a statement in opposition to the opinion of every officer who respects the service.

T.

[We take it that in no civil war would the legislative body remain a passive spectator of military events, and its interference could hardly fail to be attended with abuses. A political general like McClellan implied a Congressional chairman like Wade; and when we said that the latter's services were real and invaluable, we had in mind the absolute necessity to the country of such a conduct of the war as should be neither half-hearted nor pro-slavery.—Ed. Nation.]

THE WOOL TARIFF OF 1867.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: A brief history of the conception of the extraordinary tariff of 1867 on wool and woollens will assist in understanding the introduction of a similar arrangement into the present bill. At that time certain parties of great astuteness, representing the worsted and carpet interests, conceived a scheme by which great fortunes would be realized in those branches. It was necessary to secure the co-operation of the great wool and woollen interests, constituting at that time nine-tenths probably of the woollen manufacturing and the *entire wool-growing* interests of the country. The scheme assumed that the worsted (or combing) and carpet-wools, classed as Nos. 2 and 3, were not grown in this country, and that they might be imported at a low or revenue duty without injury to the wool-growers, who were induced by unprecedentedly high, unequal, and nearly prohibitory duties on clothing-wool to favor the scheme, while the clothing woollen manufacturers, being persuaded that duties correspondingly high on woollens (or twice the rate imposed during the infancy of our manufactures) would protect their interests, also favored it. The carpet and combing parties said to the wool-growers, Give us our wools at a low duty, and we will aid you in fixing your own rates on wools of your class; the clothing manufacturers will adopt this plan if they can have correspondingly high duties on woollens. This bargain was struck, incorporated into the tariff of 1867, and now makes its appearance again in a somewhat modified form in the Schedule L of Mr. Wood's bill. This scheme was favored by the very abnormal values then prevailing, which were nearly twice what they are at present. The manufacturers were largely in debt to the commission merchants, their mills were mortgaged, and they were overdrawn on their goods. These interests were very pressing to have the highest possible duties to save them from the impending decline in prices. A large portion of the manufacturers were new men, drawn into the business during the war, and were captivated with the proposed scheme. Some of the older manufacturers opposed it as being sure to result disastrously to the great wool and woollen interests of the country, class No. 1 composing, as beforesaid, nine-tenths of the whole.

The National Woollen Association has been and is managed in the interest of the very small minority above alluded to. The tariff of 1867 imposes the same duty on clothing and combing-wool in the grease, while it lets in combing-wool washed without additional duty, and imposes a double and treble duty upon washed and scoured wools of the first class. (It may be remarked here that the *treble* duty imposed on wools of every class has been *absolutely* prohibitory, no importation whatever having been made.) That tariff assumes that one pound of washed wool equals two pounds in the grease, and one pound of scoured wool equals three in the grease. It is obvious that the interests of the combing and carpet-wools were critically cared for; on the other hand the clothing interest had no such care. The double and treble duties on clothing-wool were intended to be twenty cents and thirty cents, respectively, per pound, and eleven per cent. ad valorem on each alike. By a gross blunder, significant of authorship, the careless wording—grossly careless—resulted in imposing twenty-two per cent. on washed and thirty-three per cent. on scoured, instead of eleven per cent. on each, thus entirely prohibiting the importation of clothing-wools in the washed state, and confining it to the higher-priced greasy Australian wools. The importation of Cape and South American wools, formerly largely used, has been almost entirely suppressed, as the duty on them ranges from sixty to ninety per cent. Double duties were not imposed on washed wools of the second and third class, which paid only the same rate as in grease. About nine-tenths of the clothing-wools imported for the American manufacturer, previous to the tariff of 1867, have been shut out by its operation.

In a late number of the *Nation* Mr. Bigelow alleges that he was present at the inception, etc., of the wool-tariff of 1867, and that it was not the work of the late treasurer of the Pacific Mills, and that the duties on wool were fixed by the wool-growers. This is all quite true. The very ingenious inventor of the carpet-loom needed wool; the same wonderful contrivance which produced the loom also furnished the wool-tariff of 1867. It was a part of his plan, as before observed, that the wool-growers should fix the duties on wools of their class to suit themselves.

Strange at it may seem, Mr. Wood has no doubt that this Schedule L is his plan, and he entertains a most sincere paternal regard for it.

H. N. Slater.

Webster, Mass, March 7, 1878.

LEGAL TIME-KEEPERS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Great poets write for all times, but Pope undoubtedly wrote the following lines in his Third Epistle for our time:

> "... man was made the standing jest of heaven,
> And gold but sent to keep the fools in play,
> For some to heap and some to throw away."

The following will also soon be applicable:

> "Blest paper-credit! last and best supply!
> That lends corruption lighter wings to fly!"

I hope you will advocate having the last two lines printed upon the U. S. bonds.

May I here append two suggestions?—1, that when our Congressmen draw their salaries, the silver-men receive silver; the gold-men, gold (even Congressmen have feelings, which it is the duty of the Secretary of the Treasury to respect); 2, that Congress owes it to the country to make silver watches with fifty-five minutes to the hour the only legal time-keepers in the United States, in order that honest labor may no longer be overworked by despotic capital, and that we may all have more time.

Aureus.

Boston, March 4, 1878.

THE PENNSYLVANIA UNIVERSITY AND THE HARVARD EXAMINATIONS FOR WOMEN.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: I have just received the accompanying communication from a lady, a friend of mine. I need not say that I do not admit her charges, or agree to her positions; but what she says is entitled to a hear-

ing, as she is not only highly intelligent and educated, but at one time prepared students for the University of Pennsylvania. Of course I shall not reply. Yours respectfully,

SARAH B. WISTER.

BUTLER PLACE, March 4.

CHESTNUT HILL, PHILADELPHIA, March 3, 1878.

To Mrs. Owen J. Wister:

DEAR MADAM: As I think myself bound to correct some of the statements made in your letter to the *Nation*, published Feb. 21, and as *all* the readers of that letter can be reached only through the columns of the *Nation*, I rely upon your candor and sense of justice to forward the following remarks to the editor, with the request that he will publish them immediately.

In the first place, you observe that "the *preliminary* examination" (for young women) "is but little below the standard of a complete education at the University of Pennsylvania, carrying the candidate in some directions as far as the junior class, in others as far as the senior." Let us see how far this statement can be sustained by the facts, examining in detail what is said in regard to certain branches. As to the Greek, you write that "the Greek course consists of four books of Xenophon's 'Anabasis' and the *first* book of the 'Iliad,' which is more advanced than the Greek required at the University of Pennsylvania, and about equal to what is taken at an elective study in the *senior* year." Now, four books of the 'Anabasis' and three of the 'Iliad' are required for *admission* to our *freshman* class, and constitute the usual work at boys' schools; so no further comment is necessary. Let us, however, suppose that a young woman has taken Greek as an elective study (it is not required of her), and has passed the preliminary examination. We find that the requirements for her advanced examination are the seventh book of Herodotus, or Goodwin & Allen's 'Greek Reader,' from p. 111 to the end, and the *second* and *third* books of the 'Iliad.' So far, therefore, from the *preliminary* examination being "about equal to what is taken as an elective study in the senior year," the preliminary and advanced examinations together are only beyond the requirements for *admission* to the *freshman* class by one book of Herodotus, or its equivalent in the 'Reader.' It is needless to add that the freshman soon makes up for this difference, and there is no occasion to refer to the work done in this "branch" during the sophomore, junior, and senior years.

I have next to notice what you say of the Latin course, which, like the Greek, is elective in the examinations for women, and required, of course, at our University. "The female candidates for the Harvard *preliminary* examinations last June passed a thorough exercise in Latin grammar, translated from Latin into English and *vice versâ*, and were questioned on Virgil ('Æneid'), Phædrus, Justin and Cornelius Nepos, Roman history, and geography." The grammar and translation exercises here alluded to would not be too difficult for any of the upper (or even intermediate) forms in a good school, and the circulars of the local committees state expressly that these papers deal "principally with common forms and average constructions." The applicants for admission to the freshman class have a grammar examination of course, and one in ancient and modern geography. They are also examined on three books of Cæsar, six of the 'Æneid,' four of Cicero's Orations, and the first book of Horace's Odes. Set this against the very easy selections from Phædrus and Cornelius Nepos, and *three* books of the 'Æneid,' which is the work demanded of the young women. Although it was the *preliminary* examination that was weighed against the supposed requirements of a graduate of our sophomore class, our University can easily afford to throw into the balance the advanced Latin course for women, which consists of books fourth, fifth, and sixth of the 'Æneid,' the 'Cato Major' and 'Laelius' of Cicero, the first, second, and third books of Horace's Odes, and the twenty-second of Livy. Thus the school-boy on the *threshold* of our freshman class is, in Virgil, exactly even with the graduate of *both* the Harvard examinations for women, has done as much in Cicero, and one book out of the three in Horace, leaving a balance of two books of Horace's Odes, and one of Livy, on the side of the *advanced* young woman.

Now, if it is unfair to omit the preliminary examination for women from a discussion of the subject, what is to be said of the omission of the *entrance* examination at the University, which, at any rate in Greek and Latin, not only far exceeds in scope the corresponding one for women, but falls very little short of their advanced examination?

Again, the point at which studies become elective at our University is very carefully brought into notice, while the following significant facts are by no means made clear to a person depending upon your article for information:* namely, that the preliminary examination is (see circular of local committee) distinctly pre-collegiate, *no* Greek or Latin being *required;* and that the advanced examination is not intended to be taken as a whole, but the candidate may present herself in any one of the five sections, and is entitled to a certificate if she passes that *one* satisfactorily. Supposing languages to be the section chosen, she may offer *any two* of the following: English, French, German, Italian, Latin, Greek. Thus we find that no Greek or Latin is required at all, both being elective. English is also elective in the advanced examination. The mention of the latter study reminds me to notice your statement that the Harvard examinations necessitate "a thorough and philosophical knowledge of history, ancient and modern, European and American, religious and secular, while the English required of the junior class is only Green's 'History of the English People.'" Looking eagerly into the published data of these examinations to find whence girls of eighteen are to obtain an amount of knowledge that would make Niebuhr and Gibbon hang their diminished heads, I find Freeman's 'Outlines' recommended for general history, while candidates may make use of any manuals they please for English and American history. This is for the preliminary examination, and it may be observed, in passing, that Freeman's 'Outlines' is the text-book of our freshman class. For the advanced examination there is a choice (supposing history to be the subject or one of the subjects chosen) between the history of Continental Europe from 1517 to 1648 and the history of England and America to the end of the eighteenth century. An excellent course of reading is suggested in connection with both examinations, but the Harvard examiners themselves certainly do not expect it to produce the miraculous results above stated. Our junior class has the 'Student's Gibbon' as well as Green's history, and history this year is elective for that class as (we must bear in mind) it also is in the advanced examination for women.

A simple reference to the University Catalogue disposes of the statement that chemistry is a "study not forming part of the academic course of our University." It is *required* in both the sophomore and junior years.

I am aware of Harvard's reputation as first of American colleges, and have no desire to detract from it; and I have felt much interest in these examinations for women, and in every effort to give girls the same advantages as boys; but I cannot allow the University of Pennsylvania to be represented to the readers of the *Nation* as below the level of a good school, without protesting against such a derogatory estimate of its merits and claiming a recognition of its position as a college.

ELIZABETH C. RALSTON.

[Mrs. Wister informs us also, in reply to Provost Stillé, that the catalogue he refers to in his late letter to the *Nation* only appeared shortly before Christmas, and the one she used was that of 1876-7. We have also received contradictions of his statements from other quarters, and subjoin one of them, but we can give no more space to the controversy.—ED. NATION.]

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: It is surprising that the Provost of the University of Pennsylvania should demur to Mrs. Wister's estimate of the relative standing of the Department of Arts in that institution and the Academical Department of Harvard University. Although the question at issue involves something more than courses of study set forth in catalogues, the provost appeals to the catalogues, and these amply sustain Mrs. Wister. According to the method of examination known as "Course I." (Harvard Catalogue, 1877–78), the Harvard freshman must study, before entering, all that is required to enter the freshman class in the University of Pennsylvania, with the single exception of one book of the Odes of Horace, and, in addition, the following authors and subjects, which the latter does not require and for which it demands no equivalent, viz.: Cæsar, Book IV.; Sallust, Catiline; Ovid, 4,000 lines; Cicero, four orations and the 'Cato Major'; the 'Eclogues' of Virgil; Herodotus, Book VII.; logarithms; quadratic equations in algebra, plane geometry, history of Greece, history of Rome, physical geography, physical science, and either French or German. A comparison of the two catalogues further shows that the work of the freshman year at Harvard largely exceeds that of any two years in the University of Pennsylvania. In Greek, for example, the Harvard

* [My article for the *Nation* was written for refutation, not for information; for that one must go to the *Penn Monthly*.—S. B. W.]

freshmen have the Orations of Lysias, Plato's 'Apology' and 'Crito,' a play of Euripides, five books of the 'Odyssey,' together with translation and composition at sight, Goodwin's 'Moods and Tenses,' and selections from Grote's 'History of Greece.' To offset this the University of Pennsylvania requires a small portion of Xenophon's 'Hellenica,' the 'Clouds' of Aristophanes, and Arnold's 'Greek Prose Composition'! It would be idle to continue this comparison, which, after all, shows the work of the least advanced portion of the Harvard freshman class, and takes no account of the more difficult work of the advanced sections or of the numerous elective courses in this department. If we turn to the departments of Latin and mathematics, we find a still greater difference. And then the Harvard freshmen are required to study chemistry, physics, and German, which are not included among the studies of the freshman year in the University of Pennsylvania. If, therefore, the question is to be settled by the catalogues, it is evident that the Harvard student begins his college life having at least two years the start of one who is fitted to enter the University of Pennsylvania, and that he gains another year before he becomes a sophomore. Other considerations present themselves, but I forbear, my only object being to confirm Mrs. Wister's statement by showing that the University of Pennsylvania requires a less amount of work for the degree of Bachelor of Arts than is covered by the Harvard curriculum before the close of the freshman year.

R. H. Chase.

Chestnut Hill, Philadelphia, March 9, 1878.

Notes.

Robert Clarke & Co. have in press 'Legal Maxims,' by James Appleton Morgan. The same house have issued, for the second time, a Bibliotheca Americana, or priced catalogue of their valuable stock of books and pamphlets relating to America. It numbers nearly seven thousand titles, classified chiefly under geographical headings, and has a permanent value as a book of reference. Mr. Clarke's catalogues enjoy the same distinction of superiority in this country that Mr. Bernard Quaritch's do in England.——J. B. Lippincott & Co. have in press 'The American Episcopate,' by the Rev. Herman Griswold Batterson; and a new revised and enlarged edition of Hamersly's 'Records of Living Officers of the U. S. Navy.'——G. P. Putnam's Sons announce a translation, by Caroline Tilton, of Edmondo de Amicis's 'Constantinople'; a new edition of Tuckerman's 'Greeks of To-day'; the first volume (1607–1765) of a 'History of American Literature,' by Prof. Moses Coit Tyler; and 'The Bible: What is it?' by the Rev. J. T. Sunderland.——We find in the English papers two announcements of forthcoming publications on the late George Cruikshank: one, an autobiography, expressly illustrated by himself, and edited by his widow, who had been assisting him before his death in the preparation of the book; the other, a biography by Blanchard Jerrold.——The 'Historical Collections of the Essex Institute' (Salem, Mass.), for July, 1877, contains a photographic facsimile of an old MS. plan of the Merrimac River, up to that lake whose name is a terror to the White-Mountain tourist not a "natural speller." Mr. John Gardner, who plotted it, showed a liberal mind in writing Wenepesoce and Winipisocke Pond, and Wenepisocke River. His "Carasaga Mountain" is our Kearsarge.——Macmillan & Co. brought out just on the eve of the Turkish collapse a volume which may now have lost some of its interest, but must always have a high value as contemporary history. We refer to the 'War Correspondence of the *Daily News*,' being the letters of Messrs. Archibald Forbes, J. A. MacGahan, and others, with a connecting narrative to the fall of Kars. This correspondence was incomparably the best of any from the seat of war, and it has been fitly honored in being thus collected and edited and handsomely printed. Another compilation of a different sort issues from the same house—Mr. Henry James, Jr.'s, 'French Poets and Novelists.' All these essays appeared originally on this side of the Atlantic, chiefly in the *Galaxy* and *Atlantic*. Some of them, like those having Turgeneff for their subject, and that on the Théâtre Français, are strictly beyond the scope of the title, but they all exhibit Mr. James's peculiar gift of discrimination in the same direction, and will be read with as much profit as pleasure, and with all the ease of an open page and fair type.——The gratifying announcement is made that the widow of the late Joseph Harrison, of Philadelphia, who by advances on the precious collection of Indian paintings, etc., of the late George Catlin, became the owner of it, intends to present it to the nation.——Elias Magnus Fries, Nestor of Botanists, professor in his earlier years at Lund, and then for more than forty years a most worthy occupant of the chair of Linnæus at Upsal, died on the 8th of February last, in the eighty-fourth year of his age. He survived for a month and two days the one hundredth anniversary of the death of Linnæus, and possibly took some part in the celebration.

—Messrs. A. L. Bancroft & Co., of San Francisco, have undertaken a publication of some interest to the legal profession. They propose to bring out a series of volumes of selected reports (seventy-five in all) containing all cases of any general value and authority decided in the several State courts down to the year 1869 (at which date another series, known as the *American Reports*, begins). The cases are to be annotated when it is deemed advisable, and the selection and annotation are to be done by Mr. John Proffat, the author of a 'Treatise on Jury Trial.' The work of the first volume, which lies before us, is well done, and when the whole is completed, the series will be valuable to lawyers as a sort of encyclopædia of American cases. Professional opinion is, we know, apt to be opposed to the ever-increasing flood of reports poured out from our continually multiplying State courts; but the objection is rather to the publication of official reports, of which courts encourage the citation, than to volunteer efforts of the present kind, which nobody is compelled to buy, and which cannot be cited in court as authorities. It has now become absolutely impossible for any but very well-to-do lawyers to possess complete professional libraries (the number of volumes of official reports, which Kent complained of in 1839, when it was only 539, has now swollen to 2,000), and a well-prepared selection of cases, like that proposed by Messrs. A. L. Bancroft & Co., will, we think, prove a benefaction to the profession at large. The series is to be finished in six years.

—We have received from Mr. Henry Stevens, of London, a copy of his elegantly printed 'Bibles in the Caxton Exhibition, 1877,' of which Scribner, Welford & Armstrong are the American publishers. It is a separate reprint of Class C, Printed Bibles, from the general catalogue, with numerous additions and alterations in the list (the fruit of a tenth revision), and containing, besides the original introduction on the history of printing as illustrated by the printed Bible, twenty-four pages of what our indefatigable bibliographer calls "The Flavour." This tart performance is a minute rejoinder to some ill-natured and ill-informed criticism by the *Saturday Review* of the collection of Bibles at the Exhibition, their arrangement, and Mr. Stevens's part in cataloguing them. There is nothing so unusual in the tone of this criticism as to make one suspect that the *Saturday* was animated by British antipathy to the work of a foreigner; but Mr. Stevens has, in his eccentric fashion, not only paraded his American citizenship on the title-page, but has done still more to shock his censor by the use of such expressions as, "Unless, therefore, I can manage to davenport-brothers myself from these mortal coils of theirs," and "Lest our Scholastikos may attempt to shield himself at the expense of confessing that he had savoyed this whole account of the 'Great Bible' from a contemporary historian," etc. His account of the Great Bible is the strong point of Mr. Stevens's labors on the catalogue, for he is able by a happy discovery to fix the place of publication of Coverdale's Bible, finished October 4, 1535 (the first complete Bible in the English language), the undertaker and possible translator of it, and other circumstances which may lead to still more definite information hereafter. He cites in the original Dutch a passage from Simeon Ruytinck's life of Emanuel von Meteren, in the latter's 'Nederlandtsche Historie' (folio ed., 1614), which states that Emanuel's father Jacob employed at his own cost *een gheleert Student, met namen Miles Couerdal*, to edit an imprint of the English Bible at Antwerp. Owing to the protection afforded English binders by special statute, the work had to be exported to England in sheets and there bound. The entire edition was bought by James Nicolson, of Southwark. This is but a sample of the interest which attaches to Mr. Stevens's bibliographical notes. The book did not need "the flavor" to make it palatable to the large class who can never learn too much about the origin of the art of printing, or who have a kindred taste for the study of the preservation and propagation of the Scriptures in all times, tongues, and countries.

—Mr. Hoar's bill for the distribution of public documents to libraries is a very excellent one; but it is one thing to pass a bill of this kind and another to have it enforced. The law, for example, provides that specimens of all "patterns" struck at the Mint—*i. e.*, coins struck from dies different from those in use as patterns for proposed new issues—should be presented to the various numismatic societies; but the Mint officials have always refused to execute it. The patterns, for example, of this year were all distributed amongst members of Congress and friends of Mint

officials, and were refused to societies, although seasonable application was made in at least one instance. This whole business of mint patterns has been very singularly managed, and to some extent is so still. It has been estimated that in 1859 and 1860 fifty thousand dollars' worth of patterns were struck and disposed of at the Mint, without any benefit to the Government at whose expense they were coined. Copies were not even put into the Government collection of its own coins, which is inferior (except in Washingtons) to the most ordinary collections, while the officials in whose charge it is take no pains to fill its numerous gaps. During Mr. Lincoln's administration these abuses stopped, but of late years they have begun again. For example, numerous pattern dollars struck between 1869 and 1874 have since then turned up and passed into the hands of collectors, none of which appear in the Government collection or were distributed in a lawful manner to numismatic societies, while favored individuals collected at a trifling expense sets which sold at large sums. Over a hundred dollars apiece have been paid for some of these mysterious pieces. We notice in a late catalogue a medal described as a rarity which will no doubt bring a good price. The dies for it were made within two years at the Government Mint, by the Mint workmen, with the Mint machine, but none of the medals are in the Government collection (or were a short time ago), and none have appeared in the Mint salelist or for distribution to numismatic societies. All this seems to show that laws for the distribution of Government favors are one thing and their enforcement quite another.

—The *North American Review* for March–April contains for its most solid article a paper by President Eliot on English and American universities, and for its most sensational what would be called in journalistic "circles" a "Hell" article, by several eminent divines, one of them being a Catholic. Dr. Noah Porter opens and closes the discussion, and has of course forensically a great advantage, but the Catholic disputant, on the whole, comes out of the *symposium* best, for he does not attempt to argue the matter, but settles all doubts by pointing out the fact that the Church has always maintained the existence of Hell. Dr. Porter and Dr. Bellows rather evade the question, which we take to be whether there is a *place* somewhere in which the wicked are eternally punished for their sins by physical tortures. That the consequences of sin are eternal, or that the idea of a just God involves the idea of the punishment of those who violate his commands—all this, it seems to us, is beside the point. To discuss the matter in this way is very much like disposing of the question of a personal devil by pointing to the existence of evil. What we want to know in the one case is whether there is in existence somewhere a supernatural being, filled with hatred towards the whole human race, who occasionally enters a bodily appearance, with hoofs, horns, and tail; and in the other, whether there is a burning and bottomless pit somewhere, filled with brimstone, in which we shall burn eternally if we do wrong. It is evident from the discussion in the *North American* and elsewhere that this belief has lost its hold on the Protestant church, and that there is substituted for it a vague expectation that sin will be followed by some punishment of an indefinite kind. Mr. Frothingham takes part in the *symposium*, and with some violence of language. He of course is not satisfied with demolishing Hell, but makes an assault upon the Christian religion as well. There is no use, we suppose, in deprecating public discussions on fundamental points of creed, but we cannot see what good end they serve at the present day. An eternal life of bliss for the good may be as easily demolished by rational arguments as the belief in Hell; the only difference between the two is that the former is a pleasant, the latter an unpleasant belief. General Garfield contributes an article on the army, mainly made up of letters hitherto unpublished of General Sherman and General Hancock. We fear, however, that these letters are too professional to be interesting. What the people want, unless we are mistaken, just now is not to hear from persons specially qualified to speak by training and experience, but from gentlemen who boast that they do not care for the opinions of experts. We would suggest to the editor of the *Review* that he should bring out a number consisting exclusively of articles of this sort: contributions on Religion by "Bob" Ingersoll; on Specie Payments by Springer; on the Rights and Duties of Ambassadors by General Schenck; on the Higher Education by John Morrissey; and a symposium on Property and Government by Citizens Justus Schwab, Maddox, and George Francis Train, or on the Credit of Sovereign States by Bland and Buckner. We do not care to hear what Sherman thinks about the army; we can see through him without any trouble.

—Among the contributors to the seventh volume of the 'Encyclopædia Britannica' (Boston: Little, Brown & Co.), are Dr. Balfour, Rev. T. K. Cheyne, Dr. Ginsburg ("Ecclesiastes"), W. W. Hunter, Prof. Jevons, Prof. Maxwell ("Diagrams" and "Diffusion"), John Morley, Prof. A. Newton ("Dodo" and "Eagle"), R. G. Poole ("Egypt"), Rev. J. L. Porter. D. Stevenson ("Diving" and "Dredging"), Rev. A. H. Sayce, Prof. R. Smith ("Decalogue"), Prof. Sir W. Thomson ("Elasticity"), A. R. Wallace ("Distribution"), W. Wallace ("Descartes"), Prof. Ward ("Drama"), and many other writers of note. "Egypt," one of the most comprehensive articles that have as yet appeared in the work, would make in ordinary book-form an 8vo volume of about 250 pages. In striking contrast to it are many notices referring to ancient history, some of which are too brief for the poorest of cyclopædias. Such are, for instance, "Diocletian" (twenty-two lines), and "Dionysius, the Younger" (seven lines), which are entirely out of proportion even to such corresponding notices as "Domitian" and "Dionysius, the Elder." "Dido" contains only six poorly-done lines, though the name is not mentioned in "Carthage." The Emperor Decius is neither noticed nor referred to "Rome." Among other names entirely omitted are Decazes, Dolgoruki, Edgar, and Edred, after which the ignoring of such subjects of American interest as Decatur (the naval officers), De Kalb, Dessalines, Denver (though Delaware, Ohio, is noticed), or the District of Columbia is less surprising. It must be remembered, however, that the 'Britannica' lays no claim to anything like completeness as a book of reference, and that its pre-eminence among collective works of its kind consists in the fulness and solidity of its information on a vast number of important topics. Harmony in the tenor of its various dissertations is as little to be looked for as symmetry or completeness. Thus, while Dr. Ginsburg agrees with the Biblical critics of the Continent, where "the attempt to prove that Solomon is not the author of Ecclesiastes would be viewed in the same light as adducing facts to demonstrate that the earth does not stand still," Rev. J. L. Porter, in "Dead Sea," speaks of "historical notices" referring to his subject which "extend back nearly 4,000 years," meaning the legends of Sodom and Gomorrah. The revision of the volume compares not unfavorably with that of the preceding ones. Yet we notice four misspelled names in the half column devoted to Diebitsch: "Polozk," "Yorck," "Newski," and "Kleckzewo," and a large number in the bibliography of "Dictionary," which are, however, more excusable, considering the extent and polyglot character of the article. A general defect of that bibliography, as very often of English catalogues of large collections, is the literal reproduction, without an explanation, of the foreign names of places of publication, as found on the title-pages. Thus in the Polish subdivision, we find, besides "Warschaw," which is not correct in any language, "Warszawa," the Polish nominative form for Warsaw, and "Warszawie," the locative form, though the preceding *w* (*in*), which conditions the case termination is dropped; in the Bohemian, "Praze," the Cech locative form for Prague, also without the preposition; in the Wendish, "Budissen," and "w Budzsinje," in which but few English readers will discover the town of Bautzen in Saxony; and in the Hungarian, "Kassan," which, if correctly printed (Kassán), means *in Kaschau*, and "Budán," which means *in Buda*. In the Slavonic division, the Slovak is erroneously mixed up with the South-Slavic idioms, and the Celtic division is made apparently to embrace the Basque, Lithuanian, Lettish, and Prussian, no separate headings intervening.

CESNOLA'S RESEARCHES IN CYPRUS.*

THIS most interesting book is not nearly as formidable as it looks. In the first place, the narrative proper is not very long, for it ends with page 350, and is in large type and thickly interspersed with pictures, even the so-called "plates" (which, however, are all woodcuts apparently) having their page numeration. Then it is as interesting as the best book of travels one recalls; as interesting as Curzon's 'Levant' or Lord Dufferin's 'Yacht Voyage.' The style is as simple and quiet as the subject-matter is interesting. It is especially delightful to find an explorer relating what he found and how he found it, without setting up exaggerated claims on behalf of his discoveries. General di Cesnola seems to be perfectly aware that neither he nor any of his advisers and informants are quite certain as yet about the value and meaning of his discoveries. That these are not generally of the best times of art; that there are no painted

* 'Cyprus: Its Ancient Cities, Tombs, and Temples. A Narrative of Researches and Excavations during Ten Years' Residence in that Island. By General Louis Palma di Cesnola.' With Maps and Illustrations. New York: Harper & Brothers. 1878. 8vo, pp. xix.–456, and about 200 woodcuts.

vases of the best type, and few statues of Grecian perfectness; and that Cyprus has not given up, and is not likely to give up, any evidence of having contained a great and living school of fine art, our explorer is ready to state. What he has found is an extraordinary assemblage of works of art of interest and value in themselves, and of still greater value from their association. Works of great antiquity and unknown parentage, which from partial evidence he calls "Phœnician," works unquestionably Egyptian, Assyrian, Greek, and Græco-Roman, all found within the few acres explored, and often pell-mell together, form a museum of antiquity which years of study only can fully explain. At the same time the inscriptions discovered, though not the only key to the mysterious Cypriote dialect and syllabic characters, have aided in their elucidation. Of the great possible value of these inscriptions to history and archæology, it is as yet too early to speak.

The story of research and discovery is mingled with the happiest anecdotes of life and manners in Cyprus, and no reader of this volume will be in haste to forget the amusing pair of Turks (p. 221) whose objurgations the too-well-informed giaour overheard and understood, to their confusion and his lasting renown; the description of mule-back travelling in chapter iv.; the account of the lepers at Nicosia, and of the curious "linen-cotton" sect of Christians who name their children Joseph and Abraham, and such other names as are common to Islam and Christianity. The brief allusions, too, to Cyprus under the Crusaders and the Lusignan kings, and the occasional mention of mediæval churches and other remains, lead the curious reader to wish for a supplementary volume of reminiscences. There is one thing which we regret, namely, that General di Cesnola had not with him a sufficient draughtsman. The little views of localities in Cyprus are very poor indeed, sometimes almost incomprehensible, and the reader longs to know how the hillside of Alambra and the cliffs of Kurium actually looked, and what was the promise held out by the surface of that famous field near Dali, and of that other one where the Golgos temple lay concealed.

It was Christmas day, 1865, when our author landed at Larnaka, there was fixed his official residence as United States consul. This town replaces the ancient Citium, though it does not stand upon exactly the same site, and the modern town is as decidedly the chief seaport of Cyprus as was the ancient city. Architectural remains are plainly visible in fields near Larnaka, and a mound—which General di Cesnola thinks covers the remains of a temple—had yielded curious little terra-cotta figures, some archaic in style, but some of a good period of Greek art. All around this mound are tombs, and in the course of 1866 the new consul began to employ his energy and gratify his curiosity by explorations among them, finding in them sarcophagi, earthenware vessels, alabaster jars, and now and then bronzes and coins. Most of the objects found were Greek, and the author is satisfied that these tombs were not earlier than of the fourth century before Christ; but some pottery was found very archaic in character, and some objects of marble and alabaster bearing Phœnician inscriptions. These early and almost accidental discoveries, though of slight importance in comparison with the splendid results of later explorations, are yet characteristic of Cyprus, as Cesnola found it. The works of early and later art were found side by side, and the successive influence of Phœnician voyagers and of Egypt, Assyria, Greece, and Rome are all strongly marked, as passing each in its turn over the universally accessible, fertile and wealthy island. But Citium did not long detain our explorer, whose appetite for discovery was evidently very sharp almost from the beginning. A summer residence near Dali, in the centre of the island, and among those "Idalian plains" and hills where Venus loved to dwell, made easy an extensive exploration of tombs lying near Dali, and forming an immense necropolis of a very early period.

The earthenware jugs, jars, and vases found in these in great numbers showed an endless variety of shape, but the painted decoration upon them was not very varied nor very elaborate. As they stand now in the Museum of Art in this city, by hundreds, they are evidently not Grecian work of any previously known type; and General di Cesnola has not been contradicted in calling them Phœnician, and probably cannot be, although only one vase among them has a Phœnician inscription. This is the pottery of yellowish grey or buff body, entirely unglazed, of medium hardness, and decorated chiefly with concentric rings of black, with some use of red, and occasionally patterns in chequers, plaids, and zigzags, which is chiefly to be found in the Northeast room at the Museum, and specimens of which are represented in plate ii. In one of these early tombs, with this supposed Phœnician pottery, was found that copper bowl chased with figures of women and an enthroned goddess, which has excited so much discussion since its first exhibition in London and afterwards in New York, four years ago. In some parts of the great Dali necropolis the tombs nearest the surface were discovered to be of the Græco-Roman period, with earthenware lamps of late form and design, having Roman inscriptions in a few instances; and it was in these tombs that were found the greater part of that splendid collection of glass vessels which fills the Northwest room at the Museum. The lovely iridescence which invests many of them is not their highest beauty: the charm of their simple and subtle forms is so great that many lovers of classic purity of design will feel that those which are the most nearly in their original translucent state are the most beautiful. This iridescence seems to be the result of a curious process of decay, the glass losing its hardness and homogeneity, and becoming a mass of laminæ of indefinite thinness, having little more cohesion left than so much flaky pie-crust. Some few pieces in this great collection are decorative in original design, and are of singular beauty and value. The amount of Greek or Græco-Roman ornamental glass that exists, above ground, is very small, and the few decorative pieces rank with the best of it, though not equalling in elaborate splendor the few pieces of later Roman glass which such museums as those of Naples and Kertch possess. Underneath these Greek tombs the Phœnician tombs were still found, as elsewhere, and it was evident that new ground must have formed above the early Phœnician necropolis, so deep, in the course of seven or eight centuries, that the Greek colonists, under the rule of the Ptolemies, were induced to make their own interments above them, perhaps in ignorance of what lay below.

It is not stated in which of the Idalian tombs were found those vases, decorated with conventional representations of swans and other aquatic birds, which are now in the Southeast room of the Museum and in the case near the window of the Northeast room. Mr. A. S. Murray's discussion of these, in the appendix, where some of them are represented on page 405, and in plates xiv., xv., and xvi., would be more valuable to the reader if it were made certain that they were found in the Greek or in the "Phœnician" tombs. In the one case their discovery among objects of pure Greek character would confirm strongly his assumption that in Cyprus no living school of pottery-decoration existed, so that what would necessarily be of the sixth century before Christ if found in Attica, might be two centuries later in Cyprus. The forms of some of these vases are also very unusual, and important analogies may yet be traced by this means.

In a limestone hill called Alambra, near Dali, tombs were found excavated in the soft rock, and in these much pottery of a kind not found elsewhere in Cyprus, and almost wholly new to students. These bowls and vases, now in the Southeast room at the Museum, and partly represented in plate vii. and page 408, fig. 28, are all of rather soft and coarse clay, red or black, having a slight glaze, and decorated with scratches made after the glaze and forming rude patterns. Our author thinks them exceedingly old, and probably foreign, perhaps brought into Cyprus by an invading force. Mr. Murray, in his appendix, thinks that antiquity cannot be certainly claimed for them, because of that absence of a natural and vigorous progress in the ceramic arts in Cyprus of which he speaks. Together with these were found rude *figurines* of horsemen, animals, figures of men and women, and among them that curious procession of men, donkeys, and chariots which has been called a child's collection of toys, but which our author says was certainly not found in a child's tomb. Again, in a sugar-loaf-shaped mound in the same neighborhood, tombs were opened in which were found bowls and a vase of green-glazed earthenware, of undoubted Egyptian character. Very little pottery of positively Egyptian type has been found in Cyprus, nor any signs of Egyptian burials. The influence of Egypt over Cyprian art and customs was not, it appears, obtained through colonization.

Golgos, or Golgoi, was an ancient city and seat of the worship of Venus, whose site the Count de Vogüé had identified with the modern village of Athenio. There and in the neighborhood several interesting sculptures had been found at different times. In 1870 some diggers working at their own risk, as it would seem, struck upon that colossal head which forms one of the glories of the Cesnola collection. General di Cesnola, summoned in haste, managed to assume possession of the discovered treasure and to hire or purchase the ground in the neighborhood, where systematic digging was immediately begun. After many statues and parts of statues had been discovered, the site of the great temple was found at last—a building so curious in plan and apparent design, so different from previously-known buildings of classical antiquity, that it may well give to archæologists wholly new ideas both in art and in hagiology.

A parallelogram of thirty feet by sixty, once surrounded by walls of sun-dried brick or some material not more durable than that, and roofed with wood, had contained nearly two hundred statues of stone. These statues were of many different styles. As they stand to-day in the Museum gallery, so and more closely side by side they stood in their original home, the Egyptian figures together, then those in the Assyrian taste, and so on. Along each wall their rough limestone pedestals were ranged, and in the mid space were fifteen double pedestals, each supporting two statues, standing back to back. Was this room indeed the *cella* of a temple; and have we reason to suppose that in other temples better known to fame a similar gathering of statues existed? Was this temple of Assyrian or Phœnician founding; and are we to believe that successive races of conquerors respected it, and added their votive or honorary statues to the previous collection? This is to ascribe Roman indifference to earlier peoples of much greater tenacity in matters of religion.

In 1872, a cemetery near Ormidia, on the south coast, yielded many large and rich vases of the type we have called Phœnician; and in another, near Cape Greco, were found many more Greek glass vessels, among them some of the most brilliantly iridescent, and a number of gold ornaments. These seem to have been the latest explorations made previous to the consul's visit to America, where he spent six months or more arranging, in the galleries of the Museum in New York, his collection, which had been bought by Mr. John Taylor Johnston, and which was transferred to the Museum soon afterwards. That collection remains to-day nearly as Cesnola arranged it in 1873; the glass has been moved to another room, but not differently distributed; and, of the late purchase, only the Kurium temple-treasure has been unboxed, and that is displayed by itself in an up-stairs room, apart from the earlier collection.

The scene and circumstances of the Kurium explorations have been often and recently described. They are romantic enough to add fresh interest even to the precious discoveries themselves. The resolute digging down beneath the broken mosaic floor, to a depth of twenty feet beyond what former treasure-seekers had reached, must have required a good deal of courage and of that sort of instinct which belongs to the born explorer; for what but foundations, pottery, and broken inscriptions could have been looked for? The finding of the treasure-vaults of a temple, half emptied indeed but still rich in precious things, must have been about the last thing in our explorer's mind. The treasure, though not forming in itself a very extensive collection of antique jewelry and precious objects, is yet worthy of all the praise that has been lavished upon it. Nothing can be imagined more valuable in their way than such pieces as the crystal bottle with gold stopper represented on page 325, the necklaces in plates xxii. and xxiii., the larger Assyrian engraved cylinders, the fine Greek signet No. 1 of plate xxxix., or even the great covered vase engraved in plate xxix. Mr. King's appendix treats well of the engraved gems. The other pieces bought by the Museum a year ago cannot be exhibited until more space is at the disposal of the Museum; space which can only be obtained, it appears, by the threatened banishment of all the collections to the Central Park. When the whole Cesnola collection shall be on view together, will the discoverer make, or aid in making, a thorough catalogue? If so, we shall be well indemnified for what we miss in this book—precise indication of localities where objects were found, and a complete index.

St. Clement of Rome. An Appendix containing the newly recovered portions. With Introductions, Notes, and Translations. By J. B. Lightfoot, D.D., Lady Margaret's Professor of Divinity, Cambridge, Canon of St. Paul's. (London: Macmillan & Co. 1877.)—About two centuries and a half ago the Epistles of Clement of Rome were first published from the Alexandrian MS., now in the British Museum. From the First Epistle—which alone is considered genuine—the last leaf, comprising about a tenth portion of the whole, was missing. About two-fifths of the Second Epistle, it is now ascertained, were also wanting. Near the close of the year 1875 both Epistles were published entire from a manuscript which, up to that time, strange to say, had lain unobserved in the library of the Most Holy Sepulchre in Constantinople. A few months later the catalogue of the late M. Jules Mohl of Paris revealed the fact that in this collection was an ancient Syriac version of both the Epistles. It was purchased by the Cambridge University. These discoveries have awakened the most lively interest among scholars. They led to the preparation of new editions of Clement by Hilgenfeld, and by Gebhardt and Harnack, in Germany. Professor Lightfoot has chosen to prepare an additional volume in the form of an Appendix to his valuable edition published in 1869. This new work contains, first, an account of the newly-found documents, with critical remarks upon the text of the Constantinopolitan MS., and the characteristics of the Syriac translation; second, a dissertation upon their contents, especially upon the last pages of the First Epistle, which, as belonging to the first century (A.D. 96 or 97), is of extraordinary interest; third, the documents themselves in Greek, with an elaborate commentary; and, fourth, Addenda, consisting mainly of discussions of the text. The volume evinces in every part a thorough and conscientious scholarship, and a comprehensive knowledge of Christian antiquity. The main points to which Professor Lightfoot calls attention in the preliminary essay are as follows: 1. The light that is thrown on the secret of Papal domination. The Church of Rome, at that early day, gives advice to the Church of Corinth in a tone which, with no very great change, might pass, and eventually did pass, into a voice of authority. 2. The link of connection which the new portion of the Epistle supplies with the earlier history of the Roman Church, since the bearers of it must have had a direct knowledge of the relations of Peter and Paul, and of events in the latter part of the Apostolic age. 3. The *personnel* of the Epistle, it being probable that the bearers of the Epistle, and Clement himself, were of "Cæsar's household." Dr. Lightfoot thinks that Clement was a man of Jewish parentage, a freedman, or the son of a freedman, belonging to the household of Flavius Clemens, the cousin of Domitian. 4. Interesting references are furnished to the persecution of Domitian. 5. The liturgical character of a part of the fragment appears to indicate that a fixed though unwritten form of prayer was beginning to be used in Christian worship at Rome. 6. Something is contributed to the history of doctrine. The genuineness of a passage quoted by Basil from Clement, relative to the Trinity, which has been heretofore doubted, is now established. 7. Light is thrown upon the canonical reception of the First Epistle. It was, probably, read in Corinth and other churches. Hence it was added, with the Second Epistle, which came to be considered genuine, to MSS. of the New Testament. Then, in some cases, its place was changed, and it was put along with the Apostolic Epistles—as in the Syriac version (the Peschito).

On the whole, this discovery, though of less importance, of course, than the work of Hippolytus (published in 1851), and the Codex Sinaiticus (published in 1862), is still one of the most interesting of the additions which have been recently made to our knowledge of the ancient church.

Primer of Pianoforte Playing. By Franklin Taylor. (New York: D. Appleton & Co. 1878.)—We have often wished that some competent person would undertake the task of translating Friedrich Wieck's admirable little book on 'Clavier und Gesang,' a work of immense value to the music-teacher and the private student on account of the many sound maxims and suggestions scattered through it, the fruits of the life-long experience of one of the most successful teachers that ever lived. Franklin Taylor's little manual goes some way towards making the want of such a translation less felt, although he writes in a simple scientific spirit, while Wieck in his work appears in the character and with the manner of a reformer, and is, therefore, more impressive. The 'Primer' contains in the space of 125 pages a good deal of information not commonly given in instruction books; and while there are few teachers, even, who could not learn something from it, it will be found especially adapted to the wants of pupils who do not have access to the best teachers. An elementary manual for the raw beginner in music it is not, for it is presumed of the pupil "that he can already play well enough to desire to play better." The first section treats of touch, of each of the two kinds of which, the staccato and legato, the author makes three subdivisions, suitable respectively for rapid passages, melody, and accompaniment, and the rules which he gives for the attainment of these differences in touch are minute and clear. Instructors generally pay too exclusive attention to fingering and time, to the neglect of touch, and hence the great number of performers who either drum on the piano or touch the keys so superficially that one might imagine a little bird was hopping about them. A full, rich tone which drains the capacity of the piano to the dregs is rarely heard. A loud tone is common enough, but a loud tone is not synonymous with a full tone.

Several columns would be required were we to notice all the important points discussed by Mr. Taylor. We must content ourselves instead with advising every pianist to get a copy of the primer and read it for himself. The last section, on ornaments, cannot fail to be useful, especially to those who are fond of playing the old music written for the harpsichord

and clavichord by Bach, Handel, and others, which, as Mr. Taylor points out, required a great many more ornaments and grace-notes than modern music, because those old instruments had not the same power of sustaining the sounds as have our pianos. The chapters on "fingering," "phrasing," and "special difficulties," are also good, and deserve study. What, for instance, could be better than this rule: "The fingering, once determined on, should be scrupulously adhered to, as nothing tends more to produce uncertain execution than the habit of fingering the same passage differently at different times"? We cannot, however, share the author's aversion to putting the thumb on black keys. It should not be thus used unnecessarily, but, if anything is gained in convenience by doing so, use it by all means. Rules should be adapted to fingers, not fingers to rules. The only serious fault we can find with the Primer is the adoption of the English system of fingering in the numerous (172) valuable examples in musical type which enrich it. It is time that this nuisance should be abated. Nations which have done so little for the advancement of music as England and America should not stubbornly adhere to a practice which only tends to make the execution of musical compositions still more difficult and perplexing than it already is. While there is no advantage in the English system, it often leads to inconvenience, because, in reading at sight, the sign for the thumb is apt to be mistaken for a double-sharp.

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, MARCH 21, 1878.

The Week.

MR. BLAINE, in his attack on Mr. Schurz, apropos of the Montana lumber troubles, made a point of Mr. Schurz's having been born in Prussia, which is, he said, a much smaller country than Montana; the inference being that to deal properly with the lumber question the Secretary of the Interior should, if of foreign birth, have been born in a state at least as large as that in which the alleged depredations on Government property have been committed. There is one other little peculiarity of Prussia which the Senator did not mention, but which has far more bearing on this case than the smallness of its superficial area. If the President of the Lower House of the Landtag were convicted on his own admission of having officially ruled in favor of speculators, and called their attention to it that they might pay him for it, and had denied all connection with a speculative scheme which was seeking legislation in the House over which he presided, and in which it afterwards turned out that he was largely involved, far from being promoted to the Upper House, he would not only be expelled from the army, or the civil service, or the legislature, but he would have to withdraw totally from public life. More than this, he would be expelled from the parlors and dining-rooms of honorable men, and would be grateful for the undisturbed obscurity of a private station in a country village. Moreover, if the German Government, knowing what we in this country know of Mr. Blaine's career, heard he was about to be born on German soil, it would take means to impose the event on the territory of some weaker power, and he would probably come into the world a Belgian, or Dane, or Dutchman. Let us add, finally, that while no man can determine the place of his birth, it is every man's duty to see that his life reflects credit on it; and this duty, it seems to us, Mr. Schurz has discharged, while Mr. Blaine has grossly neglected it.

The Maine Senator had hardly finished his lumber speech when he was assailed by Dr. Woolsey, of New Haven, who showed in a short letter to the *Tribune*, by the citation of several authorities, that international arbitrators sit under the doctrines of the Roman law, and that the rule is well settled that, in the absence of any stipulation to the contrary, a majority shall decide. It appears, too, that the choice of M. Delfosse was concurred in by our Government with strong official expressions of gratification and esteem, so that Mr. Blaine's attack on him was apparently made without obtaining proper information as to the facts; or, in other words, was both ignorant and wanton. Indeed, the last week seems to have been the worst in the Senator's recent blundering career. His course since he left the Speaker's chair has been that of a smart but ill-bred boy, with a smattering of some kinds of knowledge and a determination to attract notice somehow. To no serious subject of legislation does either he or the class of Senators to which he belongs seem to give any care or attention. All their powers, such as they are, seem now absorbed in getting up little "hits" and "digs" at the Administration, and they hold their sides as they laugh over each other's little jokes, like that wonderful one of Mr. Blaine's in which he showed that certain Montana petitioners evidently thought, from the form of their address, the Secretary of the Interior a greater power than the House or Senate.

Mr. Evarts has sent a circular to American representatives abroad directing them to call the attention of the governments to which they are accredited to the passage of the Silver Act, and to invite them to the Conference which that Act proposes "for the purpose of adopting a common ratio between gold and silver," so as "to establish internationally the use of bi-metallic money and secure fixity of relative value between those metals"; the Conference to take place whenever any three of the governments thus invited agree to the same. He informs our ministers likewise that the President, having expressed in his annual message to Congress "his opinion in favor of maintaining silver as one of the two precious metals which furnish the coinage of the world, and keeping up to as full a measure as possible the volume of the two precious metals as our intrinsic money," and the Silver Act "having passed by very great majorities of both Houses," "the policy of this country in support of bi-metallic money may be considered as decided." He says also that "the position of this country commercially" gives it a paramount interest in the proper adjustment of the two precious metals as "the intrinsic and universal money of foreign trade." We do not well know what Mr. Evarts means by "intrinsic money," but we must point out to him and to the ministers who have to present this scheme to foreign governments that his account of the policy of this country, as expressed by the Silver Act, is not strictly accurate. The bill does not provide for the circulation of the two metals side by side in this country or anything like it. That can only be done by so fixing, and from time to time refixing, the relative value of gold and silver coins, that one shall be as attractive as the other as legal tender; or, in other words, that it shall not be more profitable to export the one than the other. The Silver Bill does nothing of the kind. It makes or leaves gold from eight to ten per cent. more valuable than silver, and makes silver a legal tender for all amounts, so that when silver gets fully into circulation gold must disappear, under Gresham's Law, and silver become our only "intrinsic money," unless there is a considerable rise in its market value. This is not a matter of speculation, it is a matter of fact; and we trust Mr. Welsh, Mr. Taylor, and General Noyes, at least, will not act on Mr. Evarts's instructions without mastering the subject for themselves and being prepared for the answer which they will probably receive from English, German, and French financiers.

The thing for them to say—if we may venture to make the suggestion—is that the recent legislation, by its restrictions on the coining power of the Treasury, will practically leave the question which metal is to serve as the currency of the United States, open for two years or thereabouts; that after that, unless other governments join us in the adoption of a double standard, we shall be thrown back on a single standard of silver, and that it is for their advantage as well as ours to join us while we still have any gold, or the means of getting any, in taking measures to insure the joint circulation of the two metals in so far as careful international rating can do it. We do not say that an appeal of this kind will be successful, but we do say that it is the only statement we can make which will convince foreign financiers that we understand the problem.

The importations of United States bonds from Europe continue on a large scale. These, together with the importation of £400,000 silver bullion, advanced the rates for bills on London from 4.85 to 4.87 for sixty-day and from 4.87 to 4.89 for demand drafts. The specie-shipping point is about 4.89½, so that it may be said that the Silver Bill has reversed the exchanges within twenty days, the extent of the reversal being from the point at which gold could be imported to nearly that at which it could be exported. The £400,000 bills bought to pay for silver were on account of a Treasury operation; the Secretary found silver to be cheaper in London than in any part of this country, since the financial magnates of the Pacific coast would have it so. The gold market is still weighed down with an enormous stock—about $40,000,000—and with no demand for it except for customs, which takes from $2,000,000 to $2,500,000 per week. At the Stock Exchange there was a strong market for speculative shares, in consequence of the prevailing opinion that Congress

is bent on some kind of inflation. The gold value of the "paper dollar" at the close of the week was $0.9876. The bullion value of the new silver dollar was 91¼ and 92 cents gold. These dollars appeared in small amounts during the week and ruled at about par in gold—which, of course, they will continue to do until there is an adequate supply of them; then they will begin to sink to their bullion value.

The real silver-men have already begun to perceive the inherent treachery and fraud of the present Silver Act and the mockery of cheap money which it offers. The House Committee on Banking has accordingly reported in favor of legislation compelling the Treasury to issue certificates at par against the deposit of silver bullion, like the gold certificates now issued. This would get rid at one blow of the restrictions on the injection of silver into the circulation created by the limitations which the Act now in operation places on the coining powers of the Treasury, and also of any limitation imposed by the temporary scarcity of mints. It is true that the Committee do not propose to make the certificates a legal tender for anything but Government dues, but they would nevertheless constitute a working addition to the circulation, and would furnish a market to the silver dealers in which they would be able to share in the profit now made by the Government on the coinage. It looks more and more, in fact, as if "the money power" had got the better of "the people" in this last bit of legislation also. We would suggest, as a means of making the issue of certificates a final and complete measure of relief, that the Government should be compelled to issue them, bullion or no bullion, to the amount say of $10 a head of population, or $400,000,000 in all, and divided on that basis among members of Congress for distribution in their respective States and Territories, to all adult citizens not lunatics or convicts. In no other way that we know of can the poor man get his share of the national money, or the money be applied on the very axle of "the wheels of industry."

The Senate listened on Wednesday week to Mr. Blaine's tirade against Prussia, and passed the Military Academy Bill; on Monday it passed the Fortifications Bill, and confirmed without debate Mr. A. W. Beard as Simmons's successor in the Boston Custom-house; on Tuesday it granted the Woodruff speculation an American register. On the same day Mr. Blaine received still further enlightenment as to the law and the usage in regard to Government timber. Mr. Hoar showed him that it was not in charge of the Secretary of the Navy, and Mr. Ingalls that the Land Office had charged stumpage to settlers in 1864. On Wednesday week the House passed the Consular Appropriations Bill, and the Bennett American Register Bill; on Thursday, by 118 to 116, the bill to extend the time for the payment of the tax on whiskey in bond; and on Saturday it struck out the enacting clause of the bill in the interest of the ante-bellum mail-contractors at the South. The bill has since been reintroduced in a new form.

The Committee of Ways and Means finished the revision of Mr. Wood's Tariff Bill last week, and, it is said, are now applying the last touches, intending to report the amended bill to the House before the end of this week. The amendments agreed upon have been from time to time reported by the daily papers, but in so fragmentary and loose a manner that we deem it quite unsafe to venture upon a review in detail before the final text of the bill has been published. In the meantime there seems to be good ground for assuming that the original bill has been purged of its grossest imperfections and inconsistencies; many of the important articles now free, which the original bill proposed to render dutiable, appear to have been dropped and thereby restored to the free list, and the numerous changes that have been made in the rates of duties in most cases appear to have been adopted after fairly weighing the information given and the objections made to the Committee. We venture to say that the bill in its new shape will prove much more acceptable than the original draft, and will generally be considered a decided improvement on the present tariff. We do not believe that a detailed discussion in the House can improve it, and our Representatives will confer a boon on the mercantile community by promptly passing the bill and so making a speedy end to the existing uncertainty.

The final returns from the New Hampshire election last week show that Governor Prescott, the successful candidate of the Republicans, received about 1,000 majority against nearly 4,000 the year before, when, however, the total vote was larger by some 16,000. The result seems to have encouraged both wings of the Republican party in the State and out of it. On the one hand it is pointed out that Governor Prescott "believes in President Hayes," that he was nominated by a convention which endorsed Hayes's "policy," and threw cold water not unmixed with contempt on W. E. Chandler, and that the most active managers of the canvass were also conspicuous supporters of the Administration. On the other hand it is asserted that "the State has been saved by the Stalwart Republicans, and to them alone the credit for the victory is due"; that "in every town where there has been a strong Hayes element there have been large Republican losses"; and that the author of the famous definition of Chandler as "a political tramp" was defeated in caucus, and more miserably still at the polls, in Exeter, where he stood (rather than ran) as an independent candidate for representative to the Legislature. Chandler himself appears to have voted the regular ticket, and alone knows whence he expects his reward for his *brutum fulmen* against a renegade President. This is the last of the spring elections in New Hampshire, which yields at length to the prevailing November usage.

The discharge of Anderson by the Louisiana Supreme Court must make a good many Northern publicists feel rather foolish, and must make the President feel very glad that he did not write that remarkable letter to the Attorney-General which they thought he ought to write, or that he did not publish it if it was written. The Court has quashed the conviction on the ground that the "consolidated returns" in which Anderson was alleged to have committed the forgery are not a "public record" within the meaning of the statute, and that the Returning Board might have played tricks with them without affecting the general result. The "packing of the jury," on which our "stalwart" press relied so much, the Court says did not take place, and the trial, on information filed by the District Attorney, which came near causing several editors to take up arms on account of its monstrosity, it pronounces a regular and usual proceeding. But it did not consider the letter written by two of the "visiting statesmen" during the trial, and which seems to have got into the record, a regular or usual or respectable document, and expressed some proper contempt for it. We hope, however, the President did not say, as reported, on hearing of the decision, that the conduct of the Court had been "patriotic." If patriotism, or any other noble passion except a desire to administer the law as it stands, had anything to do with the decision, the Court is afflicted with the complaint which has made the Returning Board so notorious and offensive. We hope the President will now at least remove these two men—Anderson and Wells—from office. They are closely connected in the public mind with scandalous abuses; their character in the community in which they live is, apart from politics altogether, very bad, and their retention as Federal employees is a standing source of irritation.

There is another new charter for this city before the Legislature, this one being known as "the Daly Charter." It contains many admirable provisions—as the new ones always do—and is the thirty-ninth which has been submitted to the Legislature within the last thirty years. The calm and even hopeful enjoyment with which each one, as it has come forward, is discussed by the daily press is a pleasing spectacle in this busy and utilitarian age. What is most curious about this is that it would appear that what "the people" like in the way of city government is the discussion and

adoption by the Legislature of a charter and a third each year, while even the submission to their vote of a plan which provides a permanent charter would fill them with rage, and ruin everybody connected with it. Not only would they vote down such a thing, but they would never forgive anybody who asked them to look at it. As an illustration of the way the city is now governed, and one which Christian people everywhere will understand without any special knowledge of our municipal affairs, let us say that the city prison, the Tombs, is one of the most important of the municipal institutions, and makes as large demands as any of them on whatever civilization and humanity New York possesses. Its Warden ought to be one of our best citizens as regards skill and experience in the particular field of prison management, and as regards standing and character in the community. Well, the last Warden, who has just died, was simply an active, able-bodied ward politician, reaching his position through the usual experiences of the fire-company and the liquor-store caucus, and was famed mainly for his intimate acquaintance in a social way with the criminal population of the Sixth Ward. The person who is now most likely, it is said, to succeed him is Mr. Reese, a brass-finisher by trade, and an old volunteer fireman, who has been ever since the war a clerk in the Finance Department, then a deputy-sheriff under Brennan, and always an active Democratic politician, "with much influence in the Sixth Ward."

Governor Robinson, in his veto of the chapters of the new Code just passed by the Legislature, brings forward several strong reasons why the whole scheme should be given up and the old Code re-enacted as it stood before. It seems, in the first place, that the Commissioners, instead of confining themselves to the work they were originally authorized to undertake, that of revising and consolidating the statutes, have set about an entire "upheaval" of an established system of legal procedure. In the second place, although "hundreds of amendments" to the Code as introduced by the Commissioners have already been found necessary to save the bill from "utter condemnation," the petitions in its favor admit the necessity of still further amendments. Many provisions show great haste or ignorance, and threaten the public with serious dangers if adopted. For instance, under the sections relating to arrest, it would appear that anybody is liable to arrest who has committed "an actionable act whereby the estate of another is lessened." The bill gives general equity powers to surrogates, a class of judges, as the governor points out, not usually chosen with great care nor possessing high qualifications. The chapter on summary proceedings to recover possession of lands (in use every day by landlords) "substantially destroys" that process altogether. The clauses embodying the "Civil Damages Act," which gives a remedy for injuries caused by the sale of intoxicating liquors, enlarge the scope of the law so as to give an action for the breach of a *contract* caused by the sale of liquor—a principle never heard of before, and impossible to apply in practice. By the sections relating to practice in surrogates' courts an allowance of five per cent. may in any contested case be made by the surrogate, at his discretion; *e. g.*, Mr. Calvin may in the Vanderbilt will case divide $3,000,000 at his pleasure among the parties to the suit. From the foregoing it will be seen that the bill, while professing to be a mere revision of existing statutes, changes the body of the law itself, to what extent no one knows; and finally, not content with all this, the Commissioners have in a multitude of cases changed the existing language of the statutes, settled by repeated judicial construction, where no change in the purport of the law is intended. To cap the climax, the bill was passed by the Legislature without being read.

The Rev. John Jasper, of the Zion Colored Baptist Church, in Richmond, Va., the largest colored church in the city, proved on Sunday last out of the Bible that the sun moved and the earth stood still. One of his strongest corroborative arguments was that if the earth turned round, as the astronomers said it did, "the ocean would be spilled over the land." He warned his people solemnly against the philosophers, and that he carried conviction was shown by the fact that when at the close he called on those who believed that the sun moved round the earth to hold up their right hands, every hand in the church was raised. It is impossible not to regard this, in the light of recent events, as part of the great movement now spreading over the country to give the poor and ignorant a fair chance in the solution of the leading problems of the day. A good many branches of knowledge have been kept until now in the hands of persons who have had leisure enough and money enough to study them, until the arrogance of this class has become intolerable. The people are, however, going to take the astronomy question into their own hands, as they have taken the money question, and the word of the honest, God-fearing laborer, no matter of what color, will soon go as far about the motions of the planets as that of the bloated astronomer in his luxurious observatory with his costly instruments, which never would have existed but for the toil of the industrious mechanic. A good deal of public money goes now to the maintenance of him and his paraphernalia which could be far better spent in beautifying or cheering humble homes.

Fortune seems to be steadily favoring the new régime in France. The bill regulating the state of siege has passed the Senate with but trifling modification by a majority of 153 to 100. No executive officer can now proclaim martial law in any part of France except in case of invasion and in the actual presence of the enemy, and he must promptly seek the sanction of the legislature even for this. One of the greatest terrors of the late crisis is thus removed. This happy adhesion of the majority of the Senate to the Ministry has been brought about by the secession of twenty Senators from the group of thirty-three known as Constitutionalists, and who during the late crisis acted with the Legitimists and Bonapartists up to the moment when Marshal McMahon began to talk of another dissolution. It was their positive refusal to sanction anything of the kind which, it is now known, finally prepared the Marshal for surrender. Since the downfall of the Broglie-Fourtou Ministry they have been becoming more and more doubtful about the propriety of continuing in the old alliance, and these doubts have been strengthened by their increasing satisfaction with the Dufaure Ministry; so a fortnight ago twenty of them abandoned the Legitimist and Bonapartist Right, and declared that they would vote hereafter "according to the inspiration of their conscience and their patriotism." This gives the Ministry a good working majority in both Houses. Another piece of good luck for M. Dufaure is to be found in the fact that at fifteen new elections, ordered in districts where the Conservative candidates have been unseated for bribery and intimidation, the Republicans have carried all but four seats.

The news from Turkey has as yet nothing decisive in it. But Russia is evidently not going to leave anything to luck, and has been pushing troops round Constantinople to the Bosphorus, which she may now be said to hold firmly, having reached at least the neighborhood of Buyukdere with a considerable force, where she has a torpedo flotilla, on which, however, she denies there are any torpedoes, but there can hardly be much doubt that there is a supply of them not very far off. As the Turkish water-batteries are open on the land side she can, of course, occupy them whenever she pleases, and indeed may be said to have secured the Black Sea against the entrance of the British fleet, which, on the other hand, has been heavily reinforced. Negotiations are still going on as to what Russia will submit to the Congress. The reports about these are very confused, but the fact seems to be that Russia offers to read the treaty to the Congress, and then to debate which articles are of European interest and which not, and with this Austria and Germany are disposed to be content. England, on the other hand, insists that Russia shall bind herself before going into the Congress to submit the entire treaty to the Powers for their sanction and revision; and the talk even of the London *Times* on this point is warlike. It is more than likely that if England fights for this she will fight without allies.

SENATOR MATTHEWS'S PACIFIC-RAILROAD BILL.

WE have already pointed out the principal objection to the bill reported by Senator Matthews from the Senate Committee on Railroads to create a sinking fund for the liquidation of the Government bonds advanced to the Union and Central Pacific Railroad Companies—namely, that it proposes to enact a law now to meet a contingency occurring a long time hence, and that it extends for a further period of twenty-five years a subsidy which does not come due till about the year 1900. In other words, the bill projects itself over a period of forty-five years, and in such a manner that, once passed, Congress cannot again resume control of the matter except in the event that the railroad companies fail to comply with its terms. This is a violent and wide departure from the spirit of previous Pacific-Railroad legislation, every step of which has been guarded by reservations of absolute control on the part of Congress, the wisdom of which cannot be gainsaid. Whether without these reservations Congress would have such control may be a debatable question. That such control is now held was conclusively shown by Senator Davis, of Illinois, in his brief and lucid speech on the 12th inst. The drift of Senator Matthews's bill, and still more that of his speech, implies that it is a desirable thing that the Government should cease to be the master of these corporations and should descend to an equality with them in all future relations, provided they continue to give the Government a preference in the way of transportation, and to charge no higher rates to the Government than to private parties, and to make the contributions to the sinking fund stipulated in the bill. Upon these slender considerations the bill proposes that the United States shall abdicate its present attitude towards these companies, which is none other than that of a sovereign, and become merely the John Doe or Richard Roe of future lawsuits.

But this is not all. The bill provides that the payments mentioned shall be in lieu of all payments now required from these companies on account of the subsidy bonds. That is, it makes a very considerable change in the relations which have existed between the Government and the companies since the year 1862. The payments now required to be made (not for sinking-fund purposes but for actual reimbursement) are five per cent. of the net earnings and one half of the Government transportation account, amounting at the present time to $666,000 per annum for the Union Pacific and $500,000 per annum for the Central Pacific. This sum of $1,166,000 per annum the bill proposes to release to the companies by turning it into a sinking fund, and allowing them six per cent. interest upon it compounded semi-annually. The inexpediency of radically changing the terms and mode of payment after they have been in operation more than fifteen years—that is, more than half the lifetime of the subsidy—ought to be apparent to any lawyer. No change should be made except upon the gravest consideration; yet the only one which appears upon the face of the bill is that the companies are thereby released from very considerable payments which they are required to make under existing laws, *pari passu* with the disbursements from the Treasury of interest on the subsidy bonds.

The public are not disposed to deal harshly with these companies. Notwithstanding some very considerable provocations, among which may be recalled the Crédit-Mobilier transactions, the refusal of the companies to pay the 5 per cent. quota of their net earnings, and the evil spectacle they present with their crowd of lobbyists every year in Washington, there seems to be no disposition anywhere to take vengeance upon them or to subject them to any injustice. But we question whether public opinion will sanction any measure which extends the present subsidy beyond its maturity. It is difficult to see upon what ground opposition to railroad subsidies in general could be based if a subsidy to two wealthy corporations having twenty years to run were now extended twenty-five years longer, or even one year. After the existing subsidy comes due, any extension of it is a new subsidy, the same as the subsidy now asked by the Texas Pacific Company. The voice of the country is distinctly against this subsidy; but what better claim has the opposing corporation, the Central Pacific Railway Company of California, to a subsidy commencing in the year 1900 and running to 1925? Many bills to accomplish this end have been before Congress at various times, but none has been so objectionable in this regard as that of Senator Matthews. The Gordon Bill in the last Congress, which the railroad lobbyists used every exertion to pass, granted an extension of only ten or twelve years, and it was understood they were willing to compromise on seven. Under the Gordon Bill, it is true, they received the benefit of compound interest during the extended time, while under the Matthews Bill they receive it only till the year 1900. Under the Matthews Bill, however, they are to receive compound interest till the year 1900 on payments which they are required to make now, by virtue of the Act of 1862; and for this concession we can see no defence whatever.

The rational method of dealing with this subject is to leave existing laws as they are, and to require the companies to set apart a portion of their earnings each year to ensure the ultimate payment of the subsidy. This the companies will consent to do, unless they intend to cheat; and if they intend to cheat they should be dealt with as other cheats are dealt with. To leave existing laws as they are is to leave the 5 per cent. clause, the Government transportation clause, and the clause relating to the maturity of the subsidy undisturbed. What it may be wise to do when the subsidy matures the present generation cannot know, and it is only a very presumptuous person who will undertake to legislate for so remote an eventuality. We may fairly suppose that our children will be able to extend these subsidies when the time comes, if extension is desirable. All we can properly do is to take such measures that the mortgaged property shall continue to be worth the debt, that the earnings shall not be wasted, that the roads shall not go to ruin, and that the security shall not be impaired. These principles are embodied in the bill of the Senate Judiciary Committee with great care, and, we may add, with great moderation. The Matthews bill, reported by the Railroad Committee, is a subsequent conception apparently hostile to the Judiciary Committee's bill, and evidently satisfactory to the two railroad corporations concerned, because it is not to take effect at all without their written consent. Consequently, the public may look for an animated and perhaps angry controversy in the Senate, for it is seldom that so much money as these bills involve comes into dispute without leading to exhibitions of bad temper. Under the circumstances we can only consider the Matthews bill as the railroad companies' bill, not meaning that it is exactly the kind of bill they would draw if the matter were left wholly to them, but that as between the two bills pending this is the one they will exert themselves to pass. A strong presumption exists therefore that it is not favorable to the Government, and this presumption is fully warranted by an examination of the text.

THE POSITION OF AUSTRIA IN THE EASTERN CRISIS.

THE European news appears to indicate that Austria is placed, if possible, in a position of greater difficulty by the Turco-Russian Treaty than England herself, and that this difficulty has been considerably aggravated by Prince Bismarck's late speech. The Treaty is objectionable to Austria on various grounds. She dislikes the retrocession of the piece of Bessarabia to Russia, as giving her, in combination with the creation of the Bulgarian Principality, the control of the Lower Danube. Then, the new Principality bids fair to be a close dependence of Russia. It is already in the hands of a Russian administrator, and is being organized on the Russian plan. The newly-appointed officials are Bulgarians who have been educated in Russia. The new native army or militia is to be officered largely, if not wholly, by Russians, and the Russian troops are to remain in occupation for six months at least. The enlargement of Servia, too, is not welcome, as strengthening another Slavic principality which will be largely under Russian influence. Finally, the proposal to give Montenegro the port of Antivari is looked on as simply another way of providing Russia with a naval station on the Adriatic.

In considering the best mode of dealing with these difficulties,

Count Andrássy finds himself met by the fact that the Slavs of the Empire are quite ready to have him plunge into the fray and take everything Slavic that Russia is willing to let him have. The Magyars, on the other hand, would fain have him join England in depriving Russia of her conquests, while the Germans would like him to imitate the waiting policy of the German Empire. It was natural that under these circumstances Prince Bismarck's speech should have been looked for with considerable anxiety at Vienna. That it should have been expected to contain some words of comfort for Austria was inevitable, in view of the Chancellor's explicit declaration at the close of 1875 that Austria's interests were those of Germany, and that "if war should arise out of the Turkish complications German neutrality would cease if Austria were to be involved or vitally wounded in the struggle," in which case "Germany would intervene to preserve the existence of the Hapsburg Empire in its present shape and extent"; for "the unimpaired existence of the Austrian Empire was indispensable for the security of Germany." He wound up by saying that "were the Eastern question to kindle a war between Austria and Russia, whatever the issue of the campaign, Austria might count on their [our] arms for the preservation of her integrity." Count Andrássy, on the 19th of February, communicated formally to the Austrian and Hungarian parliaments the belief of the Ministry that Austrian interests *were* vitally menaced by the Turco-Russian Treaty, which would be treated by Austria as null and void unless approved by the Powers in Congress. On the same day, however, Prince Bismarck made his speech to the German Parliament, of which we have already given a summary, in which he said, with the utmost frankness, that the Treaty was not, and was not likely in any way to become, a German affair, and that at all events if there was to be a fight over it Germany would keep out of it. Curiously enough, this was accompanied or followed by numerous courteous articles in the semi-official or "inspired" press, advising Austria to enter on her great mission of civilizing the semi-barbarous peoples of Eastern Europe.

Bismarck's oratory is so novel, and at the same time so pregnant, that the analysis and interpretation of it have become a sort of specialty among Continental politicians, and may almost be said to have produced a school of commentators. Its ruggedness and directness, and almost savage indifference to the old *convenances*, have given his speeches somewhat the air of a pugilist's practice with the clubs; so that most people crowd to listen to him more for the sake of seeing the play of the great muscles under the silken skin than in the expectation of learning anything. The one thing he makes plain is that he is looking after German interests, and that Germany neither fears nor has any reason to fear anybody. But a good many critics are of opinion that by observing him closely, year by year, a fair estimate of his foreign policy may be got at, and the deduction that these experts now draw from the apparent contradiction between his language in 1875 and his recent declarations is that he does not look for any trouble between Austria and Russia—that is, he knows that one or the other, and probably Russia, will yield whatever Austria requires, and that therefore there is no need to declare himself on either side, or mar that cordial understanding which he says still exists between the three Emperors; and his reticence counts for more than Andrássy's outspokenness. His phrase, "beati possidentes," applied to Russia, excited a good deal of alarm in England, as it looked as if he had been reading the Bible in the Vulgate in his retirement at Varzin, many people supposing the phrase to have been extracted from some obscure portion of the Hebrew Scriptures, and used cynically to express his heartfelt sympathy with the strong man who has got what he wants and means to keep it. It turns out, however, to be merely a phrase from Heineccius, the German law-student's Blackstone, and is but a terse rendering of our phrase that "possession is nine points of the law."

There is, in fact, no reason as yet to abandon the theory which we reproduced in these columns at an early period in the war, that he expects to use the present crisis in making Austria a more distinctly Slavic power than she is now. Russian demands at the Conference will probably be supported sufficiently to reconcile Austria to the idea of seeking compensation, say, in Bosnia and Herzegovina, the Turkish retention of which, when cut off by the intervening territory of Bulgaria, will hereafter seem quite shadowy, and which must in the natural order of things fall into Austrian hands. Already there are ominous stories of meetings of the Bosnian beys, or great Mussulman land-holders, for the purpose of seeking annexation to Austria. It is added, by way of making the scheme seem more feasible, that as these gentlemen are all of Slavic blood, and only became Mussulmans at the time of the Turkish conquest to save their estates, and have never been very fanatical in their devotion to the Prophet, though full of hatred for the rayahs, they would have no great difficulty now in going back to the faith of their ancestors. This plan is rendered all the more attractive by the fact, which is generally perceived, that Austria's constitution is not equal to the strain of such a situation as that through which she is now passing, and its weakness must show itself still more markedly in war than in peace. The Austrian army, even when it has had a united government at its back, has been since the beginning of the century the most unfortunate, considering its bravery and discipline, in Europe. A very competent critic, Major Adams, an Englishman, who served for many years under the Austrian flag, and was afterwards Professor of Military History at the Staff College in England, explains in his recently-published, valuable work, 'Great Campaigns in Europe,' the causes of its weakness, and they are causes which in a conflict with Russia must tell more seriously than ever before. They are, he says, the heterogeneous character of the material which fills the ranks; the absence of national spirit; the want of individual independence, and the difficulties of language which separate the soldier from his officers. The admirable qualities shown by the Austrian army in defeat he attributes to the "high spirit, devotion, and *esprit de corps* of the regimental officers." The troops, he says, vary greatly in quality, however, the best being those recruited in the German provinces. All these defects would probably come out more strongly in a contest with Russia than with any other power. The only portion of the population which would enter into it heartily would be the Magyars and Poles, who are but a handful. The Bohemians, Croats, and other Slavs would display either their old indifference or positive hostility to the struggle, which, in case of victory, must, too, in any case, result in annexation on the side of Turkey, or else the assumption by Austria of the task Russia now has on her hands, and which, it must be remembered, would be equivalent to annexation; for Turkey cannot be restored. Though last not least, the peace has given Russia ports on the Black Sea, or, in other words, a secure maritime base, which takes away from Austria the power, which during the war made her so formidable, of acting directly on the Russian communications.

TWO LONDON PLAYS.

LONDON, March 2, 1878.

IT is not often that an Englishman can honestly praise a dramatic performance given by English actors and actresses. The genius of the country is unfavorable to the stage. The countrymen of Shakspere and of Sheridan can no longer compose, and the countrymen and countrywomen of Garrick and of Mrs. Siddons can no longer act. We have no first-rate performer in any of the departments of the mimetic art in Britain. The delineation of tragedy died with Macready. Comedy, now that Alfred Wigan has retired, has no worthy representative. In opera we have never succeeded, never even reached the second order of art. Farce and burlesque have many votaries and some successes; but the successes have owed their reputation rather to their physical than their intellectual qualities. And, after all, it is a poor country, dramatically speaking, that trusts to farce and burlesque for its greatest modern dramatic achievements. Yet it is so with us. France, Italy, Germany, Sweden, have all in recent years produced great performers in some department of this art. England has produced none. In the other arts—in painting, in poetry, in music, in fiction—we have fairly held our own. But we have not done this in acting. And while we have fallen away in this department we have not made up for it by our compositions for the

stage. As the power of performing seems to have deserted us, so the power of writing anything worthy of being performed has gone also. Whether the indifferent acting is the cause of the indifferent writing, or the indifferent writing of the acting, is a nice question. The mystery of cause and effect is not in this case easy to unravel. The fact remains that we have very little original talent in the way of acting, and none in the way of writing. We go to France for our plays, and the most original actor we have had for a long time is Mr. Jefferson, an American. Some people explain away our shortcomings in this respect by throwing the obloquy on the theatrical managers. They take no pains. All they want is something that will suit the taste—not a sensitive or highly-trained taste—of the English public, and fill the houses, and have a run of many nights. There is one piece at the present time that has had an uninterrupted run of more than one thousand nights, or some three years and a half. It is a silly, vulgar piece, with little humor, and it is indifferently acted. But it has hit the mark, and solid tradesmen and their giggling daughters go night after night to see the representation of one of their own class aping the airs and ways of a man of a different social class, and night after night they appear to enjoy the wretched man's discomfiture. In this case the manager has achieved a success. But this is an accident. As a rule these potentates do not go about their business in a business-like way. They do not engage a playwright to produce a play some twelve months hence, which shall be carefully and frequently rehearsed and appropriately put upon the stage. They suddenly find their audiences diminishing, and it dawns upon them that they want something new. They order a play to be ready in six weeks, very much as they would order a suit of clothes. The unfortunate playwright casts about for an inspiration, and rushes off to Paris, where he sees something that may be toned down to suit British prejudices. He makes his arrangements, adapts the piece, and brings it to his manager. The latter throws it on the stage without adequate preparation, in a half-cooked fashion. He trusts to his luck and to the friendly criticism of not impartial newspapers, and hurries the thing through without forethought or preparation, and it is either a hit or a miss, as circumstances turn up.

But amid all this theatrical chaos one of our theatres—the Prince of Wales's—stands out as a sample of successful management. It is conducted on radically different principles. In this house everything, down to the smallest detail, is attended to with intelligence and carried out with taste and enterprise. If anything might be said against the management, it is that attention to detail is sometimes overdone, and little knick-knackeries of furniture and upholstery are introduced in excess into the scenery and stage decorations. This, however, is a fault on the right side. This house is owned, I believe, as well as managed, by Mrs. Bancroft, who, as Miss Marie Wilton, has been long a favorite, and deservedly so, of the theatre-going public. No one can call Mrs. Bancroft a great comedian; but, for an Englishwoman of our degenerate—theatrically degenerate—days, she has talent, and, if she manages the theatre by her own unaided exertions, she has high administrative faculties. For some time this house has been esteemed the best in London. It earned its reputation by its successful performances of modern English comedy as exhibited by the late Mr. Robertson, whose plays, "Caste," "School," "Ours," and "Play," commonplace though they are when put alongside of the higher efforts of the last century, hold a fair place among the dramatic results of late years. The company of the Prince of Wales's has absorbed whatever talent there is on the London boards, and the management has secured what does not exist in any other house in England—namely, that every part, even the most subordinate, shall be well rendered. And it is here and in the careful arrangement and furnishing of the stage that this house excels. A dialogue between a housemaid and a boy in buttons is as well given as an emotional scene between the hero and heroine, and the arrangement of the Chippendale chairs and the old china of a modern English room is as minutely cared for as the marshalling of a great tableau at the Grand Opera in Paris. Mrs. Bancroft herself not unfrequently takes the humblest parts, and her husband, who ranks high among such comedians as we have, made a successful hit in a recent play given in this house by his rendering of the subordinate character of an English butler on the Continent—a small part for a man of his position in the theatrical world, but well worth doing, even as an example of the way in which the management is conducted.

Of late years English adaptations of successful French pieces have been the staple performances in this house. The company made one attempt at the "legitimate drama." They tried the "Merchant of Venice," but it was a conspicuous failure. The audiences who delight in Robertson and in Anglicized editions of Sardou, are too critical to appreciate Shakspere reduced to the Robertsonian level and looked at through Robertsonian spectacles. The "Merchant of Venice" died almost still-born, and the management with great good sense appreciated the situation and replaced the "legitimate drama" by something more congenial to and more within the compass of the company. At present they are giving Sardou's "Dora" in an English dress and under an English title, "Diplomacy." It has been in preparation for many months; it is elaborately put upon the stage, finished to the minutest detail, even to the mechanical fittings of the French shutters in the morning-room at Monte Carlo, and it promises to have an unprecedented run. It has hit the prevailing sentiment of the hour—distrust and suspicion of Russia—and night after night the most fashionable people in town go to watch, with the intensest interest, the entanglement of the English attaché's wife in the meshes of a web of political intrigue woven by a Russian agent in the pay of the Russian Government, and the extravagant dénouement of the plot by means of a pair of scented kid gloves. Stalls and boxes are engaged for weeks ahead; indeed, now on the 2d of March, it is almost impossible to get seats till well on in the spring. The Eastern question may be solved and the Russian troops back at St. Petersburg before the London public will be tired of seeing the discomfiture of the wiles of Russian diplomacy as given at the Prince of Wales's.

This unusual success has afforded an opportunity to one of our farce-writers, Mr. Burnand, the author of "Happy Thoughts," to bring out a parody of "Diplomacy" as played at the Prince of Wales's, and at the obscure little theatre called "The Strand" he has brought out a musical skit on "Diplomacy," which he calls "Dora and Diplomacy; or, a Woman of Uncommon Scents." The story goes that Mr. Burnand "assisted" at a performance of "Diplomacy" and went home and wrote his parody straight off at a single sitting, occupying him all night. I cannot vouch for the truth of this story, but judging by the texture of the parody I can easily believe it. Yet it is amazingly clever, full of points, and puns and plays on words, and is acted by three or four of the parodists with spirit and success. It promises to have as good a run as the original. But, clever though it undoubtedly is, and amusing in its way, it leaves a melancholy feeling on the mind that, if this is the best sort of thing the London theatres can produce, Mr. Matthew Arnold is not far off the truth when, speaking of one considerable section of the middle and lower classes in England, he says, in the *Fortnightly Review* of this month: "We may partly judge its standard of life, and the needs of its nature, by the modern English theatre, perhaps the most contemptible in Europe."

SAINTE-BEUVE'S CORRESPONDENCE.

PARIS, February 22, 1878.

THE influence of Sainte-Beuve has been so important in French literature that even the scraps of his work are considered important. His literary executor, M. Troubat, has already published his correspondence with a princess (Princess Mathilde, the sister of Prince Napoleon, the daughter of King Jerome), and this first volume contained some very interesting letters. He is beginning now to publish the whole correspondence of Sainte-Beuve, and has given us a first volume, which extends from 1822 to 1869. Two other volumes will, I am informed, soon appear. There is no preface to the collection of letters; we therefore do not know on what principle M. Troubat has undertaken his work. We can only believe that he has adopted a merely chronological order; but we are surprised that Sainte-Beuve's correspondence between 1822 and 1869 has only furnished him the materials for a duodecimo volume. Such as it is, it deserves to be read, and it furnishes the proof that Sainte-Beuve was during his whole lifetime in a continuous state of development. The history of his mind is a long *werden*, to use a familiar expression of the Hegelian philosophy. He is always rising higher, always becoming more critical, more exacting towards himself; his intellectual horizon is always expanding. The Sainte-Beuve of 1822 is as different from the Sainte-Beuve of the latter part as a schoolboy from a well-formed and well-instructed man.

Sainte-Beuve began life as one of the minor *Romantiques*, to use a word much employed during the French Restoration. Full of affectations, a copyist rather than an original mind, he ended as a great critic, capable of judging Romanticists as well as Classicists, invigorated by the study of science; and he gave not only to literature, but to historical science, to philosophy, an impetus which is still felt and will be felt for many years. In the year 1822 he was only eighteen years old, and was still at school, attending the lectures of the Collége Bourbon. We find

him in correspondence at that age with an English classmate, who afterwards became a fellow at the University of Oxford. We see him under the influence of what was called then the spiritualist philosophy represented by M. Cousin, who was giving eloquent lectures at the Sorbonne. Spiritualism, under the Restoration, was a reaction against the sensualism of the eighteenth century and of the Revolution. "Cousin has begun the struggle against this hard and vivacious philosophy called sensualism." In 1838 Sainte-Beuve was of a quite different opinion. He wrote in his 'Causeries du Lundi':

"A philosophical iniquity was introduced in 1817 and consecrated in the following years. Cousin called the school of the eighteenth century, which attached ideas to sensations, the sensualist school. To be exact, he ought to have said sensationalist. The word sensualism implies the notion of a practical materialism which sacrifices to the senses; if this was true of some philosophers of the eighteenth century, of La Mettrie or Helvetius, it could not be applied to Condillac and to his honorable disciples, to the ideologues of Auteuil, the Thurots, the Daunous, who were sobriety itself.* But it is always well to dishonor your adversary; something of it will stick. A more scrupulous philosophical honesty would have disdained such means, but the audacious personage did not care for such trifles."

A bitter hatred of Cousin will be found in all the correspondence of Sainte-Beuve, and I could not help being struck, while perusing attentively the first two volumes of the 'Correspondence of Charles Sumner,' which have been sent to me, by the disagreeable impression which Sumner received from his first contact with Cousin. Sumner's nature was naturally open to admiration and sympathy; but he seems to have disliked Cousin as soon as he saw him. The most extraordinary letter of the new volume of Sainte-Beuve is probably the one which he wrote to Cousin in 1843, and in which he accuses him of having cut the ground from under his feet and used documents which he had himself furnished him almost confidentially:

"It is evident to all those who have read my second volume of 'Port Royal' that if you had allowed me to continue the study of Pascal I should have said on the 'Pensées' many of the things which you have so impetuously seized." . . . "It was from my hand that you received the manuscript in which you read for the first time the letters of Madame de Longueville."

Cousin published these letters, which Sainte-Beuve intended to use, and Sainte-Beuve says to him: "Now you lay hands on me again and help yourself at your convenience." Cousin, when this letter was written, considered himself the benefactor of Sainte-Beuve, as he had procured for him the place of librarian at the Mazarine Library; nevertheless, Sainte-Beuve says:

"Because I consented to be helped by you on an important occasion, which I cannot forget, I cannot bear such a want of courtesy. At any rate, I will complain to yourself and tell you what I feel on the subject. All these documents belong to everybody, and everybody is free to publish them; but the circumstances under which you have done so are such that if you had wished to discourage me in a work for which I have never asked the encouragement of anybody, you would not have acted differently."

This letter was a "tickler," which M. Cousin could not forgive; the philosopher and the critic became from that time secret enemies. It is rather painful to go behind the scenes of literature as we witness such a struggle; but on this occasion we cannot help siding with Sainte-Beuve, though there is not dignity enough in his legitimate anger.

We could find many other proofs of a certain want of breeding in the *Romantique* of former years. M. Dubois, professor of rhetoric at the Collége Charlemagne, who had had Sainte-Beuve among his pupils, became one of the founders of the *Globe*, a paper which had considerable reputation during the Restoration. He enlisted Sainte-Beuve among his contributors in 1828. Sainte-Beuve sold his first volume of poetry at that epoch for four hundred francs; he had written also in the *Revue de Paris*. His 'Joseph Delorme' had some success. Mme. de Broglie deigned to say that it was immoral; M. Guizot, that it was "du Werther jacobin et carabin." (We give the name of *carabin*, in France, to medical students who enter the army as surgeons.) The friends of Sainte-Beuve, or rather his patrons of the *Globe*, all became important personages after the Revolution of 1830. This revolution was partly their work. Sainte-Beuve remained in the shade: "To be and to remain out of everything is my wish and my destiny. From time to time, in a critical moment, I throw myself on the decisive spot, and then I return to my own paths." He could not choose a more deserted path than Port Royal; he left for years his active friends, his old Republican friends as well as the *doctrinaires* (such was the name given to the theorizers on constitutional government), and lived chiefly with the *solitaires* of Port Royal. In this moral solitude he did not gain the calm and the serenity of the "saints." He became more pugnacious, more jealous of his independence. In 1839 he writes to M. Villemain:

"Years even more than travel have taught me to do without my neighbors, even when the neighbor is full of graces; to believe less than ever in effective friendship, in disinterestedness; to see in all a great play with which many are contented, but which often makes me more impatient than I ought to be. Friendship, through all this, is surely sweet, and it can alone console. But friendship ought to be safe and not complicated with the ticklings of good or bad praise. And you have shown me that in your case, probably by my own fault, it becomes so complicated."

I have no doubt that such remarks were only a just retort. Sainte-Beuve was far superior to M. Villemain, and Villemain probably would treat him to the end like a schoolboy. He could not even bear that Sainte-Beuve should, at the request of the Countess Christina de Fontanes, write a laudatory article on M. de Fontanes, who had been grand master of the French University under Napoleon I., because he, Villemain, was grand master of the University. Sainte-Beuve tried to flatter with discretion, and thought, like Horace, that praise ought not to be flattery:

"Et admissus circum præcordia ludit."

"But," he remarks to Villemain, "I have been a *lourdaud* (a blockhead). To speak frankly, all our great men are a little spoiled. Coarse praise does not disgust them, not even the most delicate of them."

The study on 'Port Royal,' which, with all its defects, remains, in my opinion, the most solid title to glory of Sainte-Beuve, made of him a sort of *émigré*, or exile, during the years in which all his former friends and companions, Thiers, Cousin, Villemain, Guizot, grew to be the leaders of opinion in France. Paris had become for Sainte-Beuve merely the best place in which to judge the comedy. He was not an actor, he was a mere witness; and he knew the actors too well, he knew what was going on behind the scenes, and what petty passions were concealed under the tragic costumes and masks. He was contented with some modest post of observation. He had been named *conservateur* at the Mazarine Library; in 1844 he was elected to the French Academy. Villemain, who was his enemy as well as his Minister (the librarians of the Mazarine depend on the Minister of Public Instruction), sent him on this occasion the decoration of the Legion of Honor, which Sainte-Beuve had refused from his hands three years before. "You are," said Villemain, "the only Academician without the decoration, and the public who will be present at your reception would be astonished." Upon which Sainte-Beuve replies by a new refusal. "I cannot," he says, "see the affair in any other light than this, that I contradict myself publicly, and do so because I am forced. It is impossible for me, sir, to accept. I have lived with men (the Jansenists) who sacrificed all in order not to sign a formulary; it seemed childish, but they had their idea. I understand these men very well." At the same time Sainte-Beuve sent to M. Villemain his resignation as librarian. The resignation was not accepted, and Sainte-Beuve kept his post of librarian till 1848, without wearing the decoration of the Legion of Honor. His conduct would be more defensible if he had not accepted from Napoleon III. the dignity of officer, and even commander, of the Legion of Honor. He had, of course, the right to take from Napoleon III. what he would not take from Louis Philippe's ministers; but he would have been more consistent if he had refused everything from the hands of the mild sovereign who had the great defect in his eyes of choosing his Ministers of Public Instruction among men to whom Sainte-Beuve felt or thought himself superior.

His opposition to Louis Philippe was only half owing to his republicanism; it half proceeded from personal animosities and enmities which were only partly justified. It is painful to see Sainte-Beuve in dishabille in this correspondence, to hear the echo of his disputes with the terrible Buloz, of the *Revue des Deux Mondes*. He broke off his connection with the *Revue* in 1846, and found himself in consequence in a temporary embarrassment. He hoped for a moment to make a paper, or review, in which he would be completely independent; this dream was never realized. Fortunately, Sainte-Beuve needed very little; he lived till 1840 in a student's room. When he became, in 1843, a member of the Commission of the French Dictionary, lodged as he was at the Institute, as librarian of the Mazarine, he found it difficult to spend his revenue, and had to buy rare and curious books. He never wrote a line of politics after 1834, when he left the *National;* he was accused, however, after 1848 of having received sums of money from the secret funds; but he proved that the sum found with his name in the papers of M. de Montalivet was for the repairs of a chimney, which smoked, in the Mazarine Library. This miserable affair (the sum in question was only one hundred francs) caused

Sainte-Beuve infinite trouble; for a moment his honor was in danger, because his chimney had smoked and because M. de Montalivet had not made any mention of the nature of the expenses which he had ordered.

When you begin with Sainte-Beuve you cannot help being interested; I have not gone over more than one-half of the correspondence of this first volume, but as the two others will soon appear I shall be able to return to the same subject.

Correspondence.

PRESIDENT ELIOT ON PRELIMINARY EXAMINATIONS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Will you allow me to call attention in your journal to a very interesting and suggestive change in the educational ideas of a very eminent educationist?

In the year 1870 the University of Michigan announced that on the application of any high-school in Michigan the Faculty would send a committee for the purpose of examining such school, and that, if the amount and quality of instruction were found to be in all respects satisfactory, students presenting at the University certificates of having fully completed the prescribed course in any such accepted school might be admitted to the University without an entrance examination. Three years later an announcement identical in spirit and purpose, and almost identical in form, was made by the universities of Oxford and Cambridge to preparatory schools in England. It is to certain comments on these announcements that I desire to call attention.

In President Eliot's annual report for 1873–74, p. 11, the following words were used:

"The University of Michigan, which has no preparatory department, admits graduates of the public schools of Michigan without examination, upon certificates given by the local school-boards. The only check upon the school-boards retained by the University is the annual visit by a committee of the faculty to every public high-school in Michigan which desires to use this privilege of sending its graduates to the University without examination. The faculty must be satisfied from the report of this committee that the school is in good condition. *All teachers will feel that such a check upon the action of school-boards must necessarily prove ineffective. That the University should have been willing to try so unpromising an experiment proves that the lack of connection between the secondary and the higher instruction in Michigan must have been painfully felt.*"

In the last number of the *North American Review*, p. 225, President Eliot's comments on the corresponding announcement of the English universities are as follows:

"Much more interesting than the local examinations are the examinations of schools and the examinations for certificates recently instituted by Oxford and Cambridge acting together through a board made up of fourteen members from each university. The schools examined are schools which are competent to prepare boys for the universities, and the certificates exempt their holders from the college entrance examination at Oxford and Cambridge. This work, though elementary, is strictly relevant to the object of the universities so far as it is done for schools which prepare for the universities. . . . *American teachers will find these school and certificate examinations very suggestive; their method is one which, with some modifications, would be in many respects applicable to those schools in the United States, whether private, endowed, or public, which prepare boys for college.*"

Is President Eliot here graciously retracting his hasty condemnation of the Michigan method, or is this merely an interesting reciprocation of what Mr. Lowell so felicitously described as "a certain condescension in foreigners"?

C. K.

Ann Arbor, Mich., March 15, 1878.

SILVER-MEN'S FINANCE.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: A friend of mine heard, a few days since, a conversation which was so thoroughly characteristic of the silver-men's loose methods of thought, and at the same time so absurd, that I take the liberty of sending you an account of it.

The scene was a hotel dining-room in Toronto, and the actors an American gentleman, and a Canadian lady in search of information in regard to United States securities.

She enquired as to the probable effect of the passage of the Silver Bill on the value of United States bonds. He told her she need not be alarmed in regard to that, as all the United States bonds were payable in London, and the Government would, of course, be obliged to pay them in gold coin. She then asked how the Government could get the necessary amount of gold coin, if the duties were paid in silver. He told her that a plentiful supply of gold would easily be obtained in the Clearing-house. She looked a little surprised at this, and asked what the Clearing-house was and where it was situated; upon which he said that he believed it was in London, and was an office to which different governments sent representatives at stated periods, who settled in gold coin the balances due from one country to another, on account of the balance of trade. Of course, as the balance of trade between the United States and England was now largely in our favor, a large amount in gold would be due us, which the Government could easily use for paying the interest on its bonds.

Before finishing the conversation, the gentleman said that he was a silver-man, and represented his town in the legislature; but unfortunately my friend was unable to learn where he lived.

I remain, dear sir, yours very respectfully,

Charles E. Brooks.

Cleveland, O., March 12, 1878.

THE NEW FIELD FOR COUNTERFEITERS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: I believe that no mention has been made by the press, in the discussion of the silver question, of an element which may become important, viz.: the inducement offered by the present law for surreptitious coinage of silver dollars of full standard value. Under the law, the Government realizes a scigniorage of eight or nine per cent. The small amount to be issued by the Mint will keep up nearly to par for some time, continuing this high rate of profit. With so large a margin of profit, and so little danger of detection of a counterfeit equal in weight and value to the genuine, surreptitious coinage will be highly remunerative, and will undoubtedly occur, both in our own and in foreign countries. The expense of coinage is very slight, as indicated by the fact that our nickel coins have been counterfeited with profit.

Canada and Mexico offer convenient fields of operation, whence the coin could be readily distributed with comparative immunity from punishment. Large quantities of Mexican* silver dollars have been introduced into the United States, during the present winter, in exchange for greenbacks wanted for purposes of exchange in Mexico, yielding a handsome percentage to the brokers and manufacturers through whom they found their way into circulation.

Is it not probable that this form of counterfeiting will be so extensive as to increase materially the $48,000,000 per annum provided for by law, and produce a marked effect on the final results of the silver legislation?

H. H. Hart.

Cambridge, Mass., March 13, 1878.

Notes.

D. APPLETON & CO. will shortly publish a new work by Mr. George B. Prescott, author of 'Electricity and the Electric Telegraph,' on 'The Speaking Telephone and Other Electrical Novelties,' a subject which he also treats, more briefly, in the current *Scribner's*. The press can hardly keep pace with these marvellous inventions.——Vol. XV. of *Scribner's* is equipped with an eight-page index, more minute than any of its predecessors. A further improvement would be an indexing by authors, however condensed (and it would not require much space). For instance, Robert Dale Owen's "Recallings from a Public Life" would most naturally be sought for under his name.—— *Church's Musical Visitor*, Cincinnati, has begun publishing a translation of Karasowski's 'Life of Chopin,' which we noticed last summer.——Architects, sculptors, builders, druggists, wall-paper makers and other manufacturers, as well as all those who have caught the ceramic contagion of the day, ought to possess themselves of the information contained in the last volume of the Geological Survey of New Jersey. Prof. Cook's 'Report on the Clay Deposits of Woodbridge, South Amboy, and Other Places in New Jersey, together with their uses for fire-brick, pottery, etc.,' makes an octavo volume of nearly 400 pages, and is accompanied by a large map of the clay district nearest New York, which gives ample promise of being the Staffordshire of America.——The General Meeting of the American Social Science Association for 1878 will be held in Cincinnati, beginning Saturday, May

18. The topics of papers already announced are largely politico-economical, the silver question being set down for Tuesday, and taxation, banking, post-office savings-banks, the relation of Government to railways, restricted suffrage, the patent system, intellectual property, etc., occupying the rest of the time. Prof. Benjamin Peirce, Prof. T. M. Cooley, Prof. N. S. Shaler, W. T. Groesbeck, S. Dana Horton, Horace White, Simon Sterne, Gamaliel Bradford, and F. B. Sanborn are amongst the best-known names of the participants.—Moore's 'Poetical Works,' six volumes in three, and Chatterton's, two volumes in one, with the usual prefatory memoirs, are the latest issues of the Riverside edition of the British Poets.

—Lockwood, Brooks & Co., Boston, write us as follows:

"In the review of the 'Primer of Piano-Forte Playing,' in your last issue, regret is expressed that no translation has ever been made of Wieck's 'Clavier und Gesang.' Evidently the *Nation* has nodded. We beg to call your attention to our 'Piano and Song,' a copy of which we mail you to-day. As the infallibility of the *Nation* is generally unquestioned, we shall hope to see last week's mistake corrected, and should be pleased to see in your columns a review of our translation of 'Clavier und Gesang.'"

We instantly comply with this request for a review by pronouncing the translation in question poor and unsatisfactory; and we save our infallibility by asserting that we were familiar with 'Piano and Song,' and that we weighed our words, when we wrote—not that "no translation has ever been made" of Wieck's manual, but that "we have often wished that some *competent* person would undertake the task of translating it."

—Mrs. Wister wrote us, March 12, too late for insertion last week, as follows:

"At a meeting of the Philadelphia Local Committee, held yesterday, the first since my letter of February 4 to the *Nation*, the secretary was directed by the committee to request me to state in your columns that it was written without the knowledge of the committee. I have only to confirm this myself; the letter was written entirely on my own responsibility and shown to no one before its publication. You will oblige me extremely by giving this note a place this week if possible."

. . . . . .

"Since I last wrote to you I have made a very mortifying discovery, viz.: that chemistry *is* mentioned among the studies of the University of Pennsylvania in the Catalogue for 1876–7. I cannot tell how I came to overlook it in the scores of times that I read over the "Course of Instruction"; I opened the catalogue the other day and there it was as if somebody had put it there since I last looked, the last study in the Sophomore year: 'Chemistry, Introduction to Modern Chemistry, Lectures.'

"I can account for it only in the same way that I do for enumerating nine branches as required by the Harvard female examination and then speaking of them as seven, by my having been constantly indisposed since New Year, and very unfit for this correspondence. It is a matter of no consequence in itself, or to you, or the public, but of some to me and my adversaries."

—A curious instance of the self-preserving skill with which society manages to repair the errors of law-makers is to be seen in the protection accorded in this country to foreign plays, in spite of the absence of international copyright. A foreign novel can be published here by any one, but a foreign play cannot be performed here by any one as long as the author cares to protect it. As long as a literary work is unpublished it is the personal property of its author, protected by the common law, and needing no copyright legislation. As soon as it is "dedicated to the public"—*i. e.*, published—it ceases to be the author's except in so far as a copyright act may have given him the control of it; beyond the reach of the copyright law he has no rights. This dedication requires that it shall be printed and sold over the counter, like any other book. As long, then, as a foreign author keeps his play in MS., he or his assignee can control its performance here. Such was the view of the law generally held, and it has just been forcibly affirmed in the United States Circuit Court in Baltimore. Messrs. Shook and Palmer, as assignees of M. Dennery, a Frenchman, and the author of the "Celebrated Case," a play now running at their theatre, the Union Square, in this city, sought to enjoin Gilmore from producing a version of the same play in Baltimore. Gilmore alleged that his play was elaborated from the reports and criticisms of the French play in the newspapers, and that the plaintiffs and their assignor had by permitting these newspaper reports in so far published the play. The court paid no attention to this plea, and granted a perpetual injunction against the performing by Gilmore of the "Celebrated Case," or any colorable imitation of it; so that Messrs. Shook and Palmer are assured of the enjoyment of their purchase until M. Dennery shall publish the play, when it will at once become public property in this country. A second case of superficial similarity has been decided in the courts of this city. Messrs. Tompkins and Hill, of Boston, sought to enjoin the performance of the "Exiles" at the Broadway Theatre, alleging that they were the assignees of the French authors, MM. Nus, Sardou, and Lubomirski, whose play was not published. The injunction was denied, because, although the defendant did not contest plaintiffs' title to their play, a dramatization by MM. Nus and Sardou of a novel by Prince Lubomirski, he showed that his play was an independent adaptation of the same novel, the novel being published, and therefore public property.

—The January number of the *Law Review* contains an article on the Parliaments of France, by Mr. James B. Perkins. It is mainly descriptive, but suggests speculations of an interesting kind as to the causes of the early decay and death in France of all institutions which appear to have contained the germs of a healthy and well-balanced constitution. From the French Parliaments there seemed, at one time, to be reason to expect a good deal. They were ancient courts, their origin dating back to feudal times, but had been at the same time modernized by an infusion of professional blood. Their members were wealthy and powerful, and at different times engaged in a struggle with the monarchy which ought to have promised something for popular rights. But the struggle always ended badly for the Parliaments that engaged in it, and the monarchy went on increasing in power. Mr. Chauncey Smith contributes a valuable article on the amendment of the patent laws, in which he makes several suggestions to which his distinguished position as a patent-lawyer lends great weight. The most important of these is with a view to diminishing the number of useless patents issued. Three-quarters of the patents taken out are for inventions that, for one reason or another, are never introduced to the public by the inventor; he has no means of pushing them, or he finds that they are old or not needed in the market. Hence the Patent Office is clogged with inventions of no use to anybody, but which make the investigation of all questions of facts connected with patents very difficult. To remedy this Mr. Smith suggests the adoption of the English law which requires the payment of a small fee within a certain time from the issue of the patent, the patent lapsing altogether if the fee is not paid. This simple provision in England causes the disappearance of most of the patents issued within a few years of their issue. Of course if the patent is likely to be of any value, the inventor will pay the fee; if not, it is for the interest of every other inventor and of the public that his patent should be dropped from the rolls, while to him it makes no difference what is done with it.

—The *International Review* for March-April contains a reply by Mr. A. H. Stephens to some remarks of a disparaging character with reference to himself contained in General Richard Taylor's war reminiscences in the *North American*. General Taylor's feelings towards certain Confederate politicians bear a close resemblance, the difference of latitude being taken into account, to those entertained on the Northern side by stanch supporters of McClellan towards certain politicians at Washington. Most of all, he seems to have had a grudge against Mr. Stephens, whose statesmanship he calls in question for his proclamation of slavery as "the corner-stone of the Confederacy," and whose knowledge of the art of war he describes as being very limited. The view taken of the war by the Vice-President of the Confederacy General Taylor describes as follows: "The war was for principles and rights. It was in the defence of these and of their property that the people had taken up arms. They could always be relied upon when a battle was imminent; but when there was no fighting to be done, they had best be at home attending to their families and interests. As their intelligence was equal to their patriotism, they were as capable of judging of the necessity of their presence with the 'colors' as the commanders of armies, who were but professional soldiers, fighting for rank and pay—most of them without property in the South." He further accused Mr. Stephens of displaying in July, 1865, and in Washington, a reprehensible coldness and indifference to the fate of Jefferson Davis, then a prisoner at Fortress Monroe. To all these charges Mr. Stephens now replies in the solemn political manner much used in the South a generation ago. He begins by admitting that reminiscences such as General Taylor's are "usually interesting," and, when accurate, are useful; that the facts they contain are "footlights" which illumine the stage of history; but he intimates that when not accurate they serve no such purpose. He then proceeds to light up the scene with what he says are "not mere footlights" but "mid-dome chandeliers," in the shape of certain public records which demonstrate that he was himself one of the foremost promoters of the war, and proceeds to declare that the military theories of a defence of the South by voluntary rallies and agricultural dispersals of troops attributed to him are but the fig-

ments of a disordered imagination." Not satisfied with this, he goes on to explain his "corner-stone" speech, which was, he says, nothing more than a laudable effort to show that in this country there was no such thing as slavery," but only "a legal subordination of the admitted inferior to the superior." Lastly, he declares that the story of his chilly indifference to the sufferings of Jefferson Davis is "a perfect Munchausenism," he (Mr. Stephens) being at the time mentioned himself in prison at Fort Warren. On this last point the venerable ex-Vice-President of the Confederacy seems to have been guilty of a little quibble, inasmuch as the point of the accusation, if it can be said to have had any point, lay in the fact of such an interview having taken place—not the particular date of it. As to this, General Taylor now admits that he was mistaken. It is a very pretty symposium as it stands.

—One of the "signs of the times" which has long attracted attention in the ecclesiastical world is the tendency to a more liturgical way of doing things in the Puritan churches. The liturgical spirit has found its chief revelling-place in the Sunday-school, in which a series of "concert exercises" has been prepared and performed during the past ten or fifteen years sufficient to make the most aggressive liturgical reformer stand aghast. One can readily imagine how much has been done in this way to cultivate the æsthetic nature of the youthful Christians of America. But it was reserved for the year of grace 1878 to give to the world a "concert exercise" combining in proper proportions the æsthetic and the practical. It comes to us from a village in Massachusetts, and is circulated in behalf of a prominent missionary society which has its headquarters in this city. The programme consists of twenty-four items, including five hymns, each with a chorus, all of them selected from the latest hymn-book of the season, 'Gospel Songs, No. 2.' The "exercise" begins as follows: "1. Singing: Rescue the Perishing. 2. Read in concert or responsive [*sic*] Psalm lxxii. 3. Prayer." And then it plunges *in medias res*, with a superb disregard of the ecclesiastical tone and spirit, by asking: "4. What is the American Missionary Association?" To this the answer is given by Scholar "A" that "it is an association of Christian men, organized in 1846, to diffuse a knowledge," etc., etc. Then follows: "5. What is it doing at the present time?" to which Scholar "B" replies: "It sustains fifty-nine churches among the freedmen at the South, one church in Africa," etc. After each scholar, down to "G," has contributed an item to this impressive summary, the second hymn is sung, "I have a Saviour, he's pleading in glory," and the next question is sprung upon us: "7. How is the money raised?" to which "H" replies: "Last year the association received from bequests and from churches . . . a little more than $200,000; but they needed more than $300,000 to carry on their work successfully"; and "I" adds: "The greatest sacrifices are made in the Southern States. In one colored Sunday-school every pupil gives five cents a month. . . . Little colored children, who have hardly respectable clothing, have such a love for this association that they save the pennies to give into its treasury." This aspect of the "work" seems to have grown upon the compiler of the "exercise," for at this point he introduces an entire page of "incidents from the work among the freedmen," in the well-known style of the missionary magazines; after which this new Socratic method is applied to the case of the Indians. It is in this division that we find the most beautiful instance of adaptation of part to part afforded by the entire programme. The question is: "14. Does it pay, from the Government standpoint, to Christianize the Indians?" Little-boy "Q" replies: "It has cost the Government $12,000,000 a year on the average for forty years to fight the unchristian tribes"; and little-boy "R" answers in prompt response: "It has cost almost nothing to control the Christian tribes"; whereupon follows "singing by the children (with chorus): 'The mistakes of my life have been many'!" The adaptation, as we have said, is very neat indeed, but there remains a doubt whether this musical statement about mistakes applies to the Government or to the aborigines. The song, however, is followed immediately by "16. Prayer for the Indians"; after which the worshipping assembly, under the lead of our missionary liturgist, marches unthinkingly forward to "17. Can the Chinese be Christianized?"—a conundrum which we leave without its answer, somewhat on the same principle that periodicals which publish serial stories make the week's instalment end at the most exciting point. The programme is issued, as any one can see, not for liturgical reasons, but to "replenish the treasury of the A. M. A." We therefore add a further statement, which we find on the printed slip accompanying it: "To make this a success, you ought to have thirty copies." Whether the treasury of the A. M. A. will receive a replenishing remains to be seen; but, meantime, what is the effect of such productions as this upon the tastes and the reverence, and therefore upon the morals, of those who are passing to-day through the Sunday-school into the arena of a busy life?

—The ninth volume of the 'Archives de la Bastille' (Paris, 1877), edited by François Ravaisson, relates to the years 1687-92 of the reign of Louis XIV. The documents consist principally of reports of the police, extracts from the journal of the lieutenant of the Bastille, and letters of the king and his ministers. At this time a large proportion of the prisoners were either persons confined for their religious opinions or English spies. The best known of the former class, whose name appears in this volume, is the famous quietist, Mme. Guyon. Though not actually sent to the Bastille till 1698, proceedings commenced against her in 1687. The letters and memoranda in regard to her case, and the controversy between Fénelon and Bossuet which grew out of it, are numerous. We have room but for one, a note of the king to Mme. Maintenon, dated "Mars 1699, à midi": "There has just come a courier from Rome, who brings the condemnation of the Archbishop of Cambray. I send it to you in this packet that you may see the full details. It is Latin; some Father of the Mission will explain it to you. There's an affair finished happily. I hope that it will have no more painful consequences for any one. I shall say nothing more of it to you at this time; it shall be for this evening." The most of this class, however, were Protestants. For some time previous the provisions of the Edict of Nantes had been but laxly enforced, and a large number of Protestant pastors especially took advantage of this to come from England and Holland to visit their former flocks, to confirm their faith, and to administer the religious rites. Not unnaturally Louis regarded them as very likely to prove spies of his most formidable enemy, William of Orange, and great numbers were arrested and put to death or imprisoned. One of the more interesting miscellaneous cases was that of Herse, a tailor's apprentice, described as "un petit garçon," who was condemned to a life imprisonment for saying that he would like to kill the king.

—The larger part of the volume is devoted to the English spies, and considerable light is thrown upon the life of the court at St. Germain. It is very evident from these documents that William was far better served than James, some of the latter's most trusted spies being in William's pay, as were also the chief counsellors of the banished king. A striking picture is drawn of one of these pretended Jacobite spies, Jones Simpson, a Scotchman, making his report to William at Kensington. One is rather surprised to find amongst them also the name of Vanbrugh, the dramatist and architect. He was arrested at Calais for travelling without a passport, and though nothing seems to have been proved against him, he was confined nearly two years, being allowed in the last few months to walk in the court-yard on giving £10,000 security that he would not attempt to escape. The most singular case is, perhaps, that of Broomfield, described as "quaker ou trembleur," who is imprisoned as a "suspect" three or four times within ten years. The following is an extract from the journal of M. Du Junca, the lieutenant of the tower, concerning him: "On Thursday, January 22, 1702, at 4 P.M., the governor having received a command to set M. Broomfield, English and quaker, at liberty, on condition that he promise to leave the kingdom as soon as possible; but the king having been informed that he had a valuable secret for the construction of boats with machinery for moving them rapidly (*pour aller fort vite*) without oars, sails, or horses on the rivers, the king desires that he should remain in order to carry out with M. de Pointis (*chef d'escadre*) this enterprise and the construction of the boats." Nothing seems to have come of this secret, for we find Broomfield again in the Bastille three months later. In 1711 he was still a prisoner. The tortures used in the Bastille were confined to the "boots" and "water," the latter consisting in the pouring successive pints of water into the mouth of the victim.

—After an interval of four years, Karl Goedeke has published the tenth part of his great work 'Grundriss zur Geschichte der deutschen Dichtung' (Dresden, 1862-77). In this is concluded the bibliography of the German drama down to 1830, and the lyric poets of the first half of the century are taken up. The authors are arranged in a somewhat arbitrary order under their various countries, with short biographical sketches. The lists of their writings in some cases extend to their magazine pieces.——The *Rundschau* for February publishes "Letters from Paris by Graf von Moltke." They were written in December, 1856, when he accompanied, as adjutant, the Crown Prince in his journey to London and Paris. Like the "Letters from Russia" they originally appeared some years ago in a Danish translation in the *Dagens Nyheder*. The

letters in the *Rundschau* are printed from a manuscript furnished to the editors by Von Moltke himself.——Prof. Dr. Daniel Sanders intends issuing this year the first instalments of a Supplement to his Dictionary of the German Language (*Ergänzungswörterbuch der deutschen Sprache*), and desires to be informed of any errors or omissions in the original work, or of any desirable improvements of any kind. His address is Altstrelitz, Mecklenburg. Sanders's 'Aus den besten Lebensstunden' is to be brought out by the same publisher (Abenheim of Stuttgart) in gift-book style.——The first German periodical ever published in Holland appears this year in the interest of the German population of the Netherlands. It is called *Holländische Nachrichten. Noord en Zuid* is the name of a new philological quarterly, of a popular character, edited by T. H. de Beer, of Amsterdam, and published at Eulemborg by Blom & Olivierse. ——From B. Westermann & Co. we have Part 19 of 'Spruner's Historical Atlas.' Three of the four maps show the Mongolian and Ottoman dominions prior to the taking of Constantinople. The previous number was wholly devoted to the Orient, of which the series is now finished, and embraces fifteen sheets and forty-nine side-maps. Four more numbers will complete this invaluable atlas. The German publisher is Justus Perthes, Gotha.

INGLEBY'S SHAKESPEARE.*

DR. C. M. INGLEBY, the well-known Shakespeare scholar, has been reminded by a letter of Faraday that "it is useful to get one's scattered papers together, with an index," and he has begun the work by a collection of ten chapters, six on "Shakespeare the Man," and four on "Shakespeare the Book." The first chapter treats of the spelling of the poet's surname, and the second of its meaning. There ought to be a third on its pronunciation. So far as the printed literature of the poet's age is concerned the whole matter is plain. The books of the poet himself, of Ben Jonson, and all the rest give us his name as a compound of *Shake* and *spear* (*speare*). They all spell it so. They sometimes put a hyphen between the parts, and they play upon its meaning. They evidently pronounced it as the separate words were pronounced in London, with what we may call the French sounds of the vowels. But when we pry into the written records of the time we learn that all this is literary or polite interpretation. The real name as spoken in Stratford and thereabouts sounded in the mouths of the family and their friends *Shăkspĕr, Sĭkspĕr, Shĭgspir, Shăkuspr, Sĭckesper, Shackespher*, and the like. The rustic clerks have exemplified very handsomely the capacities of the English alphabet, and have left in the records some scores of spellings, of which Mr. Ingleby gives a couple of pages of specimens. The last will and testament of the poet still lies there, a little faded and worn since it left his hands in 1616, but with his final signature unmarred and now understood to be *Shakspere*, though quite illegible to the uninitiated, and long read by the antiquaries as *Shakspeare*. In this state of facts it was not to be supposed that modern criticism would rest in the old ways and opinions of the age of Elizabeth and James. The pronunciation, indeed, of the Stratford folks no one has proposed to revert to, unless, perhaps, "High Life below Stairs" may be taken in that sense, when Lady Bab asks, "Did you never read Shikspur?" "Shikspur? Shikspur? Who wrote it?" But the etymologists have been busy. Mr. Ingleby thinks five new derivations worth mentioning. According to these the Stratford name was a corruption of the French *Jacques Pierre, i.e. James Peter*, or of the Saxon *Sigisbert* (the Frenchman who printed in 1777 *Saxespeart* on his title-page, and the forger of the 'Revels-Books' of 1605, who writes *Shaxberd*, spelt wiser than they knew), or it may have been the German *Schachsburh, i.e. Isaac's-bury*, or Celtic *Schacspeir, i.e. Dry-legs*, or *Lapus Biragus*, the name of a Florentine historian from whom the etymologist hopes the family were descended.

The biographical antiquarians are, however, the most successful innovators. As long as they read the signature of the poet's will *Shakspeare*, many of them insisted on using that spelling; and now they insist on *Shakspere*. Mr. Furnivall, the director of the "New Shakspere Society," has the following remarks, as a sort of christening speech in the prospectus of his new society: "Though it has hitherto been too much to ask people to suppose that Shakspere knew how to spell his own name, I hope the demand may not prove too great for the imagination of the members of the new society." And he finds this flout worth repeating in his introduction to the 'Leopold Shakspere.' Mr. Ingleby makes serious answer that there was no such thing as orthography or standard spelling in the poet's time, and gives variant spellings by the dozen, which he has found of *Jonson, Raleigh, Decker, Hall*, and others, as well as those of *Shakspere* from the poet's brother Gilbert, the records, and the printed poems. In view of all these it would seem to be something better than giving Mr. Furnivall a quillet for his quip, if one were to answer him that it is really too much to ask of a student of these times to suppose Shakespeare such a dullard as to know only one way of spelling his name. Most such students will agree with Mr. Ingleby to use the form which was bequeathed us by the poet's friends, approved by himself in his two printed dedications to Lord Southampton, and which, with hardly an exception, was adopted by his printers, viz., Shakespeare. So says Halliwell, and with him, in our generation, are the great Cambridge edition; the American editions of White, Hudson, Furness; the English "Shakespeare Society," the German "Shakespeare-gesellschaft," and the great host. Nevertheless, there will always be some, and those of the best, who will prefer to follow the Stratford spelling and their own eyesight, just as there are those who always write *Chauvin* for *Calvin*, and *Schwarzerd* for *Melanchthon*. As we find the matter discussed, it does not seem to be worth contending about.

There is, however, a point of view which we do not find discussed, from which a ray of light seems to be thrown by the change of spelling deep into the character of the poet. We country folk in America know well the man who comes back from the city with his signature of as new a fashion as his coat, the Smith who has become Smyth, the Delano who has become De Laney, the Kittle who has become Kettelle. Had the great dramatist some of that blood in his veins? He tried to get the Herald's College to issue a coat of arms to his father down in Stratford. Was the change from *Shaxper* to *Shake-speare* another case of Tromes turned to Atrometus, so that his name might, like his muse, heroically sound?

Mr. Ingleby's third chapter is on the poet's birthday, defending the tradition. Chapter iv. points out that a large part of the plays are made out of earlier plays, or other works, with so free a hand that the earlier authors might in some sense lay claim to them. Chapter v. is on "the portraiture of Shakespeare." Mr. Ingleby here gives us mainly destructive criticism. He holds that a large part of every portrait is subjective, contributed by the painter from his own ideals, and that no one has given us a Shakespeare from a worthy ideal. He rejects as a monstrosity the engraving whose likeness Ben Jonson vouches for, pronounces the Stratford bust *clownish*, and the late American portraiture by Ward feeble and untrue. "We ne'er shall look upon his like again." The artists will not fail to retort that what a critic sees in a work of art is largely subjective, contributed by the critic from ideals of his own; and if Mr. Ingleby cannot see Shakespeare in accredited portraitures, so much the worse for Mr. Ingleby. It would be a good work for the New Shakspere Society to give us copies of all the portraitures of the poet, with complete accounts of all that is known and all that has been conjectured about them. Is it sacrilegious to ask whether it is wholly impossible to verify the supposition that the Stratford bust is from a death-mask? Would not the present age permit a tender and reverential scientific examination of the grave of Shakespeare?

One of Mr. Ingleby's incidental remarks in this chapter is quite as suggestive as the main discussion. "There is scarcely a poet of Shakespeare's time," he says, "above mediocrity who has not written commendatory verses on his fellows. We do not know of a single copy of such verses by Shakespeare." "Can it be," he adds, "that the poor player was evidently despised; that he was too humble to be selected as the subject of much eulogy in those early times, or to be invited to become the eulogist of another?" Another solution may be hazarded—heterodox, certainly, but perhaps worth printing—that the great dramatist was not fertile in that kind of production. He was certainly accessible both by position and temper. If he had been facile and happy, throwing off such brave lines of praise as we should look for from him who in *Midsummer Night's Dream* described the poet and complimented the queen, it is not in human nature to neglect them. The fact is, let us say, that a sense of fitness, of congruity between character, circumstances, and speech tyrannized over his imagination, and that the Stratford peasant and London actor speaking in his own person about real matters was not on any lofty plane, and could not talk as if he were. The sonnet was the key with which he unlocked his heart. But the sonnets are on the whole unimaginative, repetitious, barren. The poems are also on a low plane; their most striking quality is elaborate and accurate realistic observation. They seem to come hard, like Thackeray's early work. It is only when Shakespeare

* 'Shakespeare: The Man and the Book. Being a Collection of Occasional Papers on the Bard and his Writings. Part I. By C. M. Ingleby, M.A., LL.D., V.P.R.S.L.' London: Trübner & Co. 1877.

takes on some other character that he can erect himself above himself and use his wings freely. And so eulogistic verses were not much in his line. Besides, a man that wrote such an abominable hand must have hated to touch a pen.

Mr. Ingleby's last chapter, on "The man, Shakespeare," treats of the disappearance of his papers, and suggests that he may have left them with Jonson and that they were destroyed by fire with Jonson's own manuscripts. He also traces up the myth of Shakespeare's lameness.

The four chapters on "Shakespeare, the book" discuss the danger of mangling him by revising his text into conformity with modern grammar rules—a danger, we judge, now fast passing away; "the idiosyncrasy of Hamlet," the most striking part of which is a comparison of *Hamlet's* "madness" to Byron's; and six passages which are expounded and defended: "As You Like It," ii. 1:

"Here feele we not the penaltie of *Adam*"—

where for *not* he suggests *now*, which makes perfect sense. The text as it stands will, however, give nearly the same sense if read as a question, and it be taken for granted that it is a privilege to feel the "penaltie of Adam"—*i.e.*, the change of seasons, a mode of thinking not unnatural in Arcadia or in the forest of Arden. Somewhat in this vein runs the old hymn of Abelard:

"Sole calet in hieme
Qui caret ignis munere.

In vera cœli camera
Pauper jacet pulcherrima"

Then there is a discussion of Sonnet cxlvi. 1, 2:

"Poore soule the center of my sinfull earth,
My sinfull earth these rebbel powres that thee array."

For *My sinfull earth* he proposes, on the suggestion of Mr. Brae, to read *Leagued with*, carrying out the thought in *sinful* with a certain barren elaboration perhaps not altogether out of place in interpreting the sonnets. But Mr. Ingleby's own suggestion, *Seat of*, is far better. The talk afterwards is of a *mansion* and its *walls*, and *seat* is also Shakespearian here in jingle of sound. Mr. Ingleby's main point is, however, that *array* means *ill-treat*. In the other passages he defends difficult readings of the folio, if not always quite conclusively, yet so as to show that they make some sort of sense, which is good work. Our thanks to Mr. Ingleby.

RECENT NOVELS.*

'THE Story of Avis' is mainly an account of the unhappy married life of a young New-England woman who was fond of painting. She had not the usual feminine accomplishments—or, at least, what are commonly considered the usual accomplishments, a knowledge of cooking, housekeeping, managing servants, etc.—and consequently she made the acquaintance of various forms of misery that she would never have known if she had lived in her father's house and let her Martha-like aunt see about the dinners and the faults of the "help." She was well aware of her ignorance of practical things, and after six years of study abroad she came back to this country with the intention of eschewing matrimony and of leading her own independent life of artistic work; but fate prevailed over this resolution in its usual way. It was the handsome young tutor in the college in the town who won her hand; and it was not so much the charm of his appearance, and of his "musical," "vibrant," "delirious" voice, as the fact that he went to the wars on her account and was wounded, that persuaded her reluctantly to marry him. This man, Philip Ostrander, turned out after the wedding to have a nature that corresponded but ill with his fair exterior. He was selfish; he asked men unexpectedly to dinner; he let his wife pay the bills by selling her pictures; he complained of his food on no greater provocation than that the cream was sour, the steak cold, and the cracked wheat soggy. When the babies came, Avis had no time for painting. Moreover, it transpired that Ostrander had been engaged to a girl in his country home, who, after he had jilted her, had married another man who maltreated her, so that her professional calls as a book-agent at the Ostrander's were doubly terrible. Worse than this, Ostrander flirted with a young woman, a friend of his wife's, when that lady was sick up-stairs; and then things came to a crisis.

This brief recital by no means exhausts the gloomy incidents of the story, which ends with Avis's married life a failure and her power of painting gone. Under the guise of fiction the book is really a protest against marriage. If Avis had not accepted Ostrander, she might have painted pictures and become famous, instead of wasting her life in struggles with cook's bills, her babies' clothes, and her husband's selfishness. As it was, she sacrificed her life by a great mistake, and not only is the world poorer in not having her paintings, but her married life was not of a sort to cheer the sentimental reader. Miss Phelps has shown herself an apt pupil of George Eliot, not so much in point of style (for the American author, although she apparently strives to get the right expressions and the accurate epithet, is more frequently eccentric and provincial than successful), but with regard to detestations of modern society. The influence of the greater novelist is to be seen on every page, so that it may be fair to wonder whether this novel would have been written if 'Middlemarch' had not appeared. Not that Miss Phelps is a plagiarist; she has merely seen the literary value of men's selfishness and has written her book to condemn it as it deserves. The incidents are all probable enough; no ordinary observer can have failed to collect a large mass of corroborative testimony of the unhappiness of many marriages, but what Miss Phelps gives no place to is the fact that Avis's own love for her husband, which survived his careless treatment of her, could not have failed to give her some consolation. Then, too, there is a monotony in her misery which is without interlude of affection, humor, or cheerfulness, so that the reader's sympathy for the New-England Dorothea is perpetually on the rack.

In spite of their unfortunate setting, the passages which describe Avis's reluctance to lose her unwedded freedom are excellently done. There are bursts of truth, and of rarely expressed truth, which lift the book far above the mere record of conjugal infelicity. And, although invention is in no way the author's strong point, her imagination relieves the sombre monotony of the sordid incidents she has strung together for the confusion of men. Avis was a fine woman, and she married a man who was but a poor creature, but it will be hard by writing novels to prevent men from wanting to marry, and if women make the wrong choice it is not fair to throw all the blame on the men. In fact, Avis ought to have applied for a divorce the moment "he came home from the lecture-room over-wearied, holding out his still thin hands, and asked her to strike a few chords for him upon the piano, saying, as he did so:

"Harmony, harmony! Avis, I am spent for a touch of harmony.'"

No one could have been happy with such an affected man. But, seriously, the story, although a painful one and full of petty exaggeration, rests on the solid ground of fact; it is only a pity that the effect of the whole should be so much injured as it is by the unnaturalness of Ostrander, who has all the faults, this side of wife-beating and vice, of a married man, and by the unrelieved wretchedness of the heroine. The days have gone by, apparently, when young people will get romantic ideas of life from novels.

Nevertheless Mr. Justin McCarthy plods the beaten track. He turns off a novel as patiently as a bricklayer will lay bricks, and it is curious to see what a lifeless history of inanimate beings he puts together for the entertainment of readers. It seems hardly polite to call the book "wooden," yet there is no available adjective that so nearly sums up the impression that Mr. McCarthy's novels leave. He brings young people into his books who fall in love with one another, and he introduces all the "local color" which he has at his command. He writes easily, and turns neat paragraphs with a little quotation from Uhland, or Tibullus, or the last French novel with perfect ease, and still the story never rises above an arid level. The puppets are all dressed in the newest fashion; the play of the "Danicheffs" is mentioned, bringing the events described down to the very latest times, but these factitious aids breathe no life into the unreal beings whose loves are here recorded. There is one chapter, describing an election riot, which is comparatively life-like, but the rest of the story, which is without any imagination and is put together by careful invention and with painful literalness, seems more unreal than a fairy-tale.

'The World Well Lost' is not exactly pleasant reading. Its author, Mrs. E. Lynn Linton, has already in other books shown her dislike of English society, but in this novel it takes the form of almost violent abuse, and although the incidents she describes doubtless find frequent confirmation in fact, the impression the reader receives is rather of the writer's virulence than of her careful study of mankind. There is a worldly mother whose worldliness, in the lack of other human qualities, becomes monotonous; there are young girls who are not wholly worldly,

* 'The Story of Avis. By Elizabeth Stuart Phelps, author of 'The Gates Ajar.'' Boston: James R. Osgood & Co. 1877.

'Miss Misanthrope: A Novel. By Justin McCarthy, author of 'A Fair Saxon,' 'Lady Judith,' 'Linley Rochford,' etc., etc.' New York: Sheldon & Company. 1877.

'The World Well Lost: A Novel. By Mrs. E. Lynn Linton, author of 'The Atonement of Leam Dundas,' 'Patricia Kemball,' etc. With illustrations.' Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott & Co. 1878.

and there is indeed a young man who is courageous enough to marry the penniless daughter of not over-reputable parents; but it is much more Mrs. Linton's disdain for English matrons and their victims that the story illustrates than the power of sincerity and simplicity. It tells of a lady who makes her appearance in an English county with an attractive son and daughter, who both fall in love with young neighbors. The father of the family is away, and from the first it is an easily-guessed secret that he is in prison. The discovery of this disgrace, after he has served out his sentence and returned home, complicates what plenty of love-making has already made, a confused state of affairs, and nearly breaks a number of young hearts. In one of the cases, however, fidelity wins the day, and the young couple start off to the convenient colonies to begin life there; for in parts of Australia a previous condition of servitude is possibly not considered to entail disgrace. The revolt of these people against social laws by no means undoes the impression of general worthlessness and corruption that the book leaves on the reader's mind, and it is hard to avoid feeling that Mrs. Linton's pen has been more venomous than was actually necessary. Her asperity resembles the spite of a clever woman more than it does righteous indignation against great wrong. In point of literary skill Mrs. Linton overtops most of the writers of the ordinary run of novels, but it may be questioned whether this sort of composition gives her the best opportunity to express what she has to say. Her cleverness, however, often inspires her with inventions that duller novelists struggle for in vain.

Merely to call '"Cherry Ripe"' one of the poorest of recent novels by no means does justice to the exceptional qualities that have contributed to the composition of this extraordinary book. It gets its name from what the author calls "the old talismanic song," which rises to the heroine's lips at almost every important crisis of her eventful life. It would be hard to contradict the assertion that this young woman was absolutely feeble-minded. Her words and deeds were probably meant for the tokens of tender innocence, but they are absolutely incredible. The reader is kept in a state of indignation or guilty enjoyment over some enormous scandal, which proves in the end to be nothing—after the fashion of some old French stories, in which the interludes are enlivened by merry riddles that shock the hardiest reader, but are all in turn shown to be free from any taint of offence. Adam Montrose marries suddenly the heroine, who appears to be in love with a dashing *roué*, and when she finally elopes with him the husband's indignation seems only too well founded. He determines never to see her again, and tries to forget her; but it is only by her appearance in his rooms at the same time with her supposed lover that the truth becomes known. She has, meanwhile, gone mad, and the vicious lover is at the point of death; but before he breathes his last he manages to set matters straight. The precise complication that he unravels need not be stated here, but the reader can rest assured that for the small sum of fifty cents he will get a large and varied assortment of silly talk, vicious love-making, and second-rate fashionable gossip of the disreputable sort. As to the style in which the book is written, it can be made clear by a single short quotation. It is thus, for instance, that the Parisians are described in an outburst of eloquence concerning Paris:

"And so it is that her children, though oftentimes in their mad and senseless fury they turn upon and rend the bosom that warmed and nourished them, yet love her with a deep and exceeding love that is stronger than the love of wife and home and children; that she is the idol of their youth, maturity, and old age; and that she is the very core of their heart; so do they die with her name upon their lips."

'Erema; or, My Father's Sin,' is a very different sort of novel. It contains a most ingenious plot concerning a young girl who, before she is twenty-one years old, baffles some most accomplished villains and clears her dead father's name from the suspicion of murder. The reader's interest in the heroine carries him through the languid pages in which Mr. Blackmore leisurely narrates the obstacles that stood in her path, and the means she took to get round them. Most of the light that is thrown on the mystery comes from people who are particularly long-winded in saying their say, so that it is a tolerably sandy road that the reader has to plod along. It is also a devious one. The scene changes from the Rocky Mountains to various parts of England, and back again to this country, and there is a great multitude of persons introduced; but it is neither Mr. Blackmore's style, much as that has been praised, nor yet the variety of characters, that will secure the reader's attention. The plot alone does that.

Mr. William Black has also honored this country by making it the scene of a good part of his last novel, 'Green Pastures and Piccadilly.' He can hardly be said, however, to have improved the novel by this device, for although he called to his aid an American writer who seems to have been familiar with the time-table of the trains running between this city and San Francisco, it can hardly be denied that the part of the book which treats of this country is not much more than a hasty record of a hasty journey. To be sure there is a certain amount of conversation thrown in, but the change from the regular course of an interesting novel to the cursory description of a trip to the West is violent and disappointing. If it had not been for this interruption the book would have deserved nothing but praise. It begins well with its account of the love and subsequent misunderstanding of the hard-headed young member of Parliament and daughter of the disreputable nobleman, and the reader will probably find it pleasant to meet again his old friends out of 'The Strange Adventures of a Phaëton,' now of somewhat riper years. But on the whole the book is disappointing. Mr. Black has not strengthened himself by joining hands with a new man, to whom probably is due the full credit for this sentence: "The women would not hear of this proposal in its entirety," which is to be found on p. 301, at the end of chapter xii.

In 'Hector Servadac' M. Jules Verne is even wilder than usual. No reader cares for a miracle or two more or less in this author's pseudo-scientific jugglery, so long as he is interested in the generally pretty thrilling plot, although there are parents and guardians who zealously keep their sons and wards from looking at Verne's enticing volumes. Perhaps they are right; but the present story could not deceive a babe in arms, and is amusing enough to disarm any one's wrath. A comet, it is stated, comes into collision with the earth, and chips off a bit of the south-western Mediterranean with some of the adjacent shores. A few men survive this accident, and are whirled through space on this comet, which fortunately carries with it a satisfactory supply of atmospheric air. A volcano supplies these travellers with heat, while a professor who goes along with them gives the reader instruction in astronomy, physics, etc., which probably would not be satisfactory to most watchers in observatories. After all, it is probably the melodramatic side of Jules Verne's writing that does harm.

M. Léon Cahun is a writer who seeks distinction in the same field with his better-known countryman. But, although he writes books full of incident and adventure, there are plenty of people who go bail for his accuracy and even for his erudition, and the reader of this book at least, 'The Blue Banner,' gets the impression that it is pretty solid meat that is offered him. The story describes the adventures of a follower of Jinghis Khan, and, as was only to be expected, it is crammed with accounts of bloody fights. This will commend it to the young reader, and the pains that have been taken to secure accuracy will disarm the objections of their elders. Those who care for the subtleties of the modern novel will probably not be attracted by the tumultuous head-breaking and profuse slaughter of this one. It may be our fault that the story seems to us rather confused, but what is to be expected of an account of Jinghis Khan?

If any one who has taken up 'Grey Abbey' has read that novel with delight, let him at once go to the nearest bookseller's and buy 'Harry Holbrooke'; the course to be pursued by those who have been pleased by 'Harry Holbrooke' is obvious. These two stories are as like as possible. They have both been written by men who are fond of horses, fishing, shooting, etc., and they contain a gossiping account of the good and bad deeds of English people. The author of 'Grey Abbey' gives us no mere crumbs of gossip that have fallen from the tables of the great and good, as is sometimes done by ignobler writers; he serves up huge lumps of entertainment in the shape of elopements, smuggling, and various kinds of villany, which are all narrated in a good-natured, amusing fashion, and Sir Randal Roberts follows in just the same track. What the book shows more conclusively than anything else is the extreme

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'"Cherry Ripe!" A Romance. By the author of 'Comin' Thro' the Rye,' 'The Token of the Silver Lily.'' New York: D. Appleton & Co. 1878.

'Erema; or, My Father's Sin: A Novel. By R. D. Blackmore, author of 'Lorna Doone,' 'The Maid of Sker,' 'Cripps, the Carrier,' etc, etc.' New York: Harper & Brothers. 1878.

'Green Pastures and Piccadilly: A Novel. By Wm. Black, author of 'The Strange Adventures of a Phaëton,' 'Kilmeny,' etc., etc.' New York: Harper & Brothers. 1878.

'Hector Servadac. By Jules Verne, author of 'From the Earth to the Moon,' 'Journey to the Centre of the Earth,' etc., etc.' Translated by Ellen E. Frewer. With numerous illustrations. New York: Scribner, Armstrong & Co. 1878.

'The Blue Banner; or, The Adventures of a Mussulman, a Christian, and a Pagan, in the Time of the Crusades and Mongol Conquest. By Léon Cahun. Translated from the French by W. Collett Sandars. With seventy-six wood engravings by J. Lix.' Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott & Co. 1878.

'Grey Abbey: A Novel. By the author of 'Won in a Canter,' etc. The Star Series.' Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott & Co. 1878.

prevalence among Englishmen of the habit of novel-writing. Americans who write novels form a small class who live apart from the rest of the world and devote themselves especially to literature, but here are two books which are as unliterary as sign-painting is unartistic, that owe their existence to the general greed for fiction.

'Doubleday's Children' is a novel that would have been much better if it could have been divided into half-a-dozen separate volumes. As it stands now, the story strays somewhat uncertainly from the fate of one child to that of another, so that confusion is the result; and an amusing, old-fashioned novel, written with considerable humor, fails to leave the most satisfactory impression upon the reader. Doubleday himself was a sort of Micawber who died in a debtor's prison, leaving his children to make their way in the world as best they could. Their experiences are crowded incongruously together and make a thick, incoherent book, of a kind that was more common a few years ago than it is now. Still, there is a good deal of entertainment to be got from it by those whose tastes are not wholly enslaved by the most recent records of violent flirtations.

'Souci,' on the other hand, is a novel of the modern school filled with rapturous passion and high-strung romance, and colored by a good deal of what is called "word-painting." There is hardly a character in the book who is not the victim of some tremendous emotion, and often of two or three at the same time, so that the reader is kept for ever on the rack of uncertainty as to whether the straying lovers, who are for the most part wonderful hands at singing and playing the violin, are going to meet. It is, perhaps, fair to say that the story reads something like the work of a chastened "Ouida"—in other words, of a writer who prefers to write about great geniuses, but with moderation unknown to the more famous writer.

'Mignon' tells how Sir Tristram Bergholt, aged forty-six but sound in wind and limb, fell in love with the youthful Mignon, and, by means of promising to help her brother, married her. She cares nothing for him, however, and flirts in a way that would fill Miss Irene MacGillicuddy's soul with horror. The young minx is as hard and unloving a creature as can be found in fiction until her beauty is destroyed by a painful accident. She takes this occasion to reform—her lover fleeing from her after this—and when her good looks are marvellously restored she persists in avoiding mischief. The whole book is decidedly rowdyish in tone, but it contains some not bad sketches of fast society. It belongs to a set of novels that have one stereotyped form of character, plot, and incident; and it is not a form that deserves praise, but it is sure to find favor with a class of people who will overlook loudness of tone in a book if they can only find description of flirtation and amusing conversation.

It may safely be assumed that the author of 'Behind the Arras' is a young writer. A practised littérateur does not lavish two mysterious strangers, two disappearances, a murder and a trial on one plot. The writer is as evidently an American, who for reasons sufficient to her own mind selects her characters and lays her scene in England among people of rank and fortune. It is, however, given to few of us to construct giraffes out of the depths of our moral consciousness, and it is manifest that Miss Neville has not seen the society she describes. We believe it was Sir Walter Scott who, while he was writing 'Rokeby,' went to the scene of his poem that he might examine most carefully the external aspect of the place, its rocks, trees, foliage, wild-flowers, and all those things which in Scotland he knew by heart, not trusting to his general knowledge of the country to secure him from anachronisms. For lack of such care the first description of English scenery in this book fails in verisimilitude, and the same defect disables the accounts of habits and manners. Young English ladies of wealth and title rarely "tidy" their rooms or make their own beds; they have not the habit of steady sewing or of making their own dresses, and girls of seventeen do not lead the conversation at their father's table. It is common in America—not among the English peerage—that children should be "adopted" and brought up in families not their own, yet Miss Neville's heroine and one of her minor personages are in that position. Altogether it is an unreal work to which we are introduced, and the characters are "such stuff as dreams are made of." This is inevitable under the circumstances, and we invite Miss Neville, in future writings, to use her facility in testifying of that which she has seen. If she will go deep enough into the sub-soil of human life and human nature she will find abundant springs of interest; whereas, though cleverness is shown, this book is mere drift.

It really would be simpler for critics, and no doubt equally instructive to their readers, if novels were classed and numbered, with due description of each category—as, for instance, we should simply say of a certain book: "This is a No. 1 novel," and, turning to his list of references, the reader would find "No. 1—an old-fashioned love-story," and, running his eye along, would see "No. 2—unnatural view of life and events, supposed to be adapted for Sunday-schools and serious readers"; "No. 3—originality and freedom of thought the intention; vulgarity and slang the result"; or, "No. 4—discussion of moral and social problems, without reference to facts of any kind." This simple plan not being yet in general use, we are obliged to say that 'An American Girl and her Four Years in a Boys' College' describes the triumphs of a young lady who has beauty, wonderful health and strength, and noble faculties, so that she makes her way unimpeded (the slight disagreeablenesses which she encounters are hardly impediments) through all hindrances of creed and custom, and obtains a distinguished position in "one of our best colleges." She skates, shoots, rescues young men from drowning, chops wood for exercise, refuses hapless young tutors who fall victims to her charms, is struck by lightning and consequently engaged to be married. Her lover proves a weak worldling, who would prefer that her gowns and her hair should be longer, misbehaves, and she frees herself from him and enters a medical school. There are some peculiarities of expression about the book, as where the American girl's eyes are described as "blue in the skylight and gray in the shadow"; and it may be briefly ranked as a No. 4.

Prose and Verse: Humorous, satirical, and sentimental. By Thomas Moore. With Notes edited by Richard Herne Shepherd, and a Preface by Richard Henry Stoddard. (New York: Scribner, Armstrong & Co. 1877.)—Time's revenge upon an author may be regarded as complete when his poorest things are reprinted to punish him for having written good ones. Two editors have done their best for Moore's "uncollected writings," but they have, after all, brought forward no good reason for the collection. The verse in this book is of the poorest—the very lees of wit and fancy; while the prose consists largely, as Shelley said of Southey's conversation, of "long extracts from forgotten writers on unimportant subjects." There is scarcely a man now living who can take an honest interest in the claims of Lord Thurlow as a poet, or of Madame de Souza as a novelist; and though the Greek Fathers are intrinsically more interesting, the dapper little Irish poet treats them as if they were not. Mr. Stoddard, indeed, musters courage to pronounce this contribution "excellent"; but though we regret to differ from that gentleman in a matter of theological literature, we should call it a trivial and valueless essay. Poorer than any of the reviews, even, is the comedy of "M. P.; or, The Blue-Stocking"; and the reader's respect for Moore revives a little on being told (p. vii.) that he himself called this play "contemptible." The only part of the book that deserves printing or reading is comprised in the last thirty pages, containing "Notes for Life of Lord Byron, printed from the original MS." These notes are of much interest; they were deciphered with great difficulty, it is stated, from a quarto manuscript book of Moore's; and every student of Byron will be glad that they are preserved. Could these few pages have constituted the whole book, its value would have been more than doubled; for, as it is, many readers will fall asleep by the way, and never reach them.

'Harry Holbrooke of Holbrooke Hall. By Sir Randal H. Roberts, Bart. Illustrations by the author. The Wayside Series.' Boston: Lockwood, Brooks & Co. 1877.

'Doubleday's Children. By Dutton Cook.' New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons. 1877.

'Souci: A Novel. By Mrs. J. H. Twells, author of 'The Mills of the Gods.'' Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott & Co. 1878.

'Mignon. By Mrs. Forrester, author of 'Diana Carew,' 'Fair Women,' etc.' Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott & Co. 1878.

'Behind the Arras. By C. M. Neville.' San Francisco: A. L. Bancroft & Co.

'An American Girl and her Four Years in a Boys' College.' New York: D. Appleton & Co.

*** Publishers will confer a favor by always marking the price of their books on the wrapper.*

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Authors.—Titles.	*Publishers.—Prices.*
Castlemon (H.), The Buried Treasure	(Porter & Coates)
Catalogue of the Public Library of the City of Taunton, Mass.	(Taunton)
Chatterton (T.), Poetical Works	(Houghton, Osgood & Co.) $1 75
Codman (J.), Free Ships, swd	(G. P. Putnam's Sons) 25
Collins (J. H.), Mineralogy	" 1 50
Farrar (Rev. F. W.), Language and Languages	(E. P. Dutton & Co.) 2 50
Life of Christ, Parts 11-20, swd	(Cassell, Petter & Galpin) 25
Gréville (H.), Dosia	(Estes & Lauriat) 1 50
Harding (E. J.), Cothurnus and Lyre	(Author's Pub. Co.)
Kettlewell (Rev. S.), Catechism on Gospel History, 3d ed	(Rivingtons)
Lewes (G. H.), On Actors and Acting	(Henry Holt & Co.) 1 50
Lockyer (J. N.), Stargazing, Past and Present	(Macmillan & Co.) 7 50
Memminger (Rev. R. W.), Reflections of a Recluse	(Claxton, Remsen & Haffelfinger) 1 25
Moore (T.), Poetical Works, 3 vols	(Houghton, Osgood & Co.) 5 25
Morley (Susan) Margaret Chetwynd: a Tale	(J. B. Lippincott & Co.)
New Dictionary of the Latin and English Languages	(Henry Holt & Co.) 1 00
Phillips (H., jr.), Poems from the Spanish and German	(Philadelphia)
Southall (J. C.), Epoch of the Mammoth	(J. B. Lippincott & Co.)
Stewart (J. H.), New Jersey Digest, 1790-1876, 2 vols	(Geo. B. Adams)
Sweet (H.), Handbook of Phonetics	(Macmillan & Co.) 1 75
Tulloch (J.), Pascal	(J. B. Lippincott & Co.)
Walker (Prof. F. A.), Reports and Awards, International Exhibition, 1876, Groups IV., IX., XII., XV., XVII., swd	(J. B. Lippincott & Co.)

The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, MARCH 28, 1878.

The Week.

WE have discussed elsewhere Secretary Sherman's conversation with the Senate Committee, without, however, going over his statements *seriatim*. One of them, on which we have not touched, is remarkable for the illustration it affords of the facility and rapidity with which the Secretary can reconcile himself to even gross violations of the national faith. The statute of February 25, 1862, creating the Sinking Fund, which has never been repealed, provides that "all duties on imported goods shall be paid in coin [or in demand notes, no longer in existence], . . . and the coin so paid shall be set apart as a special fund, and shall be applied as follows: first to the payment in coin of the interest on the bonds and notes of the United States, and, second, to the purchase or payment of one per cent. of the entire debt of the United States, etc." This act has constituted a pledge of the most solemn kind to all creditors of the United States on loans contracted since that date. Nevertheless, when asked at the late interview what Congress could do to aid resumption, he calmly said that "he would recommend one thing—that on the first of October next he should be allowed to receive notes for duties." It ought to be said that he thinks the notes will be then at par in gold; but he has no right to ask the public creditor to accept the prophecy of an individual in lieu of a national pledge. Too much financial legislation has been already based on prophecy.

The correspondence between Sir Edward Thornton and Mr. Fish about the appointment of the umpire in the Fisheries Commission shows beyond question that M. Delfosse was mentioned by Lord Ripon at Washington, during the negotiation of the Treaty, as a person to whom the United States would probably, and justifiably, object on account of the peculiar political relations existing between Great Britain and Belgium; that this objection was made and adhered to by Mr. Fish during the three months within which it was open to the two parties to agree on the third arbitrator, and the names of six other foreign ministers accredited to Washington were suggested by him and rejected by Lord Granville, who did urge M. Delfosse; that finally, through non-agreement, the choice fell to Count Beust, the Austrian Minister at London, who appointed M. Delfosse, and then no further objection was made by the United States. If it was believed, however, that M. Delfosse was so disqualified as to be unlikely to make a fair decision, his appointment ought to have been then protested against, and the litigation ought not to have been entered on before him. No such protest was, however, made, and the case was submitted to him. There can, therefore, be but one valid excuse now for disputing his judgment, or refusing to abide by it, and that is the belief that he decided corruptly. No such charge is made; in fact, those who propose to disregard his verdict at the same time express high respect for his character, so that the meaning of the discontent is really that we do not like to pay so much money, and this is what ought to be said frankly.

It was shown very conclusively in the debate in the Senate last week that the Senators who were attacking Mr. Schurz about the timber depredations neither knew what the law was nor what the practice of the Department in times past had been. In fact, they were overthrown at every point. Secretary Schurz has been executing the law, and they did not like it, but did not know what ailed them, and thought their suffering was caused, not by their having thieves as their protégés, but by his having been born in Prussia. They have now endeavored to apply a remedy, by enacting, not that the Secretary of the Interior must be a native American, but that the appropriation for the prosecution of timber-thefts shall be so small that no such proceedings can take place; and they also provide that the cutting of Government timber shall not be unlawful unless for export from the Territory in which it occurs; and this intent to export is, of course, in the region where these depredations are committed, almost incapable of proof. So that in one way or another they have paralyzed the efforts of the Department to protect public property, and this through low demagogy and blind hatred of the Administration; and they evidently think the people of the United States like or admire tactics of this sort.

The public will recognize, apropos of the above, an old and now familiar friend in this "story" of the Washington correspondent of the *Tribune*—that Senator Howe was about to make "some very severe attacks on the Southern policy of the Administration; that this speech is to be followed by others in the same strain, and that, in order to prevent the Republican party in Congress from placing itself in open antagonism to the Administration, the President will, in deference to what is believed to be the general sentiment, call to his Cabinet some representative of the more radical wing of the party. To do this it would, of course, be necessary to ask the resignation of one of his present Cabinet Ministers." We are able to add to this interesting narrative something that we found out ourselves by merely guessing—and that is, that the Cabinet Minister whose resignation will be asked in the contingency aforesaid is a man named Schurz, German by birth, and justly obnoxious to innumerable "active and intelligent" rascals. This story is not, however, as valuable as it seems at first sight, and the correspondent judiciously calls it "sensational." We believe that the President was fully prepared for Senator Howe's speech, as well as for those that are "to follow," and all their horrible consequences. He is a pious man, and feels that he is in the hands of Providence, and, like Mr. Evarts, who when solemnly warned by an officious friend against using coffee after drinking Saratoga water, on the ground that it would "precipitate the salts," declared that "he liked to have his salts precipitated," would apparently rather enjoy seeing "the Republican party in Congress placing itself in open antagonism to the Administration."

The attack by Senator Howe came in due course on Monday. It was three hours long, and was carefully written out, and was in the main a very dull history of the Republican party, seasoned with denunciation of the President's policy, of the South, and of Secretary Schurz. By far the greater part would not repay the reading, much less the criticism, of anybody engaged in an honest calling. For the errors of the President's policy, if errors there are, he offered no remedy whatever. For the improvement of the condition of the South, as Mr. Howe describes it, he suggested a course of hate and annoyance on the part of the North, but then acknowledged ruefully that as the Democrats were coming into power there would be no chance of pursuing any such course. The attack on Mr. Schurz was very personal and bitter and carefully prepared. It would, of course, never have been delivered if Mr. Schurz had been in the Senate and able to reply to it. The *Tribune* says the assault will "attract attention," which is quite true—its own attacks on Mr. Schurz have attracted "attention"; but the question is, Whom does "the attention" most damage?

The Senate's achievements during the week have been the passage of a bill to encourage tree-planting on Government lands, and the passage, three days afterwards, of the so-called Little Deficiency Bill, ingeniously contrived to perpetuate the present wholesale destruction of timber. The net result of the week's work is therefore almost invisible. The House has passed a useful bill to reform the advertising of mail contracts, and the Naval Appropriation Bill,

whose specifications are minute beyond precedent, and therefore well calculated to prevent abuses in the expenditure, by one department, of moneys intended for another, and in other ways. Finally, the House refused on Monday the necessary two-thirds to three efforts to commit it to an extension of its financial meddling on behalf of silver, an irredeemable currency, and inflation. Mr. Springer's motion was to suspend the rules in order to fix a day for the consideration of his bill authorizing the coinage of gold and silver on the same terms, and the issue of certificates alike on gold and silver deposits in the Treasury. This failed by 140 yeas to 102 nays. Mr. Goode moved to suspend the rules in order to pass the bill suspending the operation of the Sinking Fund Act for five years; lost by 123 yeas to 112 nays. Mr. Durham moved to suspend the rules in order to fix a day for the consideration of Mr. Stephens's bill to secure bullion certificates for silver; lost by 142 yeas to 96 nays. The Tariff Bill was reported to the House on Tuesday, and by an almost party vote was assigned to the Committee of the Whole for April 4; yeas, 137; nays, 114, of whom only 13 were Democrats. The "free-ships" section has been struck out.

The judgment of the Louisiana Supreme Court in Anderson's case calls attention in very proper and dignified language to the fact that an open letter of certain "visiting statesmen," including Mr. John Sherman, Mr. Stanley Mathews, and others, addressed to the prisoner, had been printed and spread before the court in his counsel's brief, "in which the public and the people from whom the jurors were to be drawn were informed that he was falsely accused and maliciously persecuted." The court then went on to say that a somewhat similar incident occurred in England during the Tichborne case, which produced such extraordinary excitement, both in political and social life, that during the trial Mr. Onslow, a member of Parliament, wrote a letter saying the claimant was falsely accused and maliciously persecuted, whereupon the Lord Chief-Justice had him (Onslow) arrested, fined him $1,200, and sent him to the county jail in default of payment, and the House of Commons, though then in session, sanctioned the punishment. The court leaves the application of the story to the public, and we must say that if it could have got at a "visiting statesman" and locked him up for a short period, it would have done service to the administration of justice and helped in the purification of public morals.

Another report of the South Carolina Fraud Committee has been made, containing more testimony seriously involving the reputation of Mr. D. H. Chamberlain. A ring was formed in 1870, the committee report, to get control of the Greenville & Columbia Railroad, a corporation the stock of which was mostly owned by the State. The "ground-floor" of this venture was divided into twelve shares of $20,000 each, of which Senator Patterson took one; Niles G. Parker, State Treasurer, one; George W. Waterman, representing Governor Scott, two; Reuben Tomlinson, State Auditor, one-half of one; Kimpton, the financial agent, two; Cardozo, Secretary of State, one-half of one; Neagle, Comptroller-General, one and a half; and Chamberlain, Attorney-General, one-half of one. Parker swears that, according to his understanding of the matter, Chamberlain's share was paid for by Kimpton; and that Kimpton would be selected as Chamberlain's go-between is antecedently probable, as it was on Chamberlain's recommendation that Kimpton, who was his classmate, but an unknown and penniless adventurer, was made financial agent of the State, without being obliged to give any security save his own bond. This Ring, it will be observed, consisted of all the chief officers of the State. On its formation measures were at once taken to secure legislation authorizing the sale of the State stock in the railroads, and for this purpose an act was passed creating a commission, composed of Scott, Chamberlain, Neagle, the Chairman of the House Committee of Ways and Means, and the Chairman of the Finance Committee of the Senate, to sell all the "unproductive property" of the State. Ostensibly, the object of the bill was to dispose of a quantity of damaged granite and marble; but the commission at once turned its attention to quite another quarter, and sold 21,698 shares of stock in the Greenville & Columbia Railroad (which cost the State $433,960) for $59,669 50. The committee say that this was followed by a sacrifice of the interest of the State in all the other railroads in which it was interested, and the accumulation of a fund which was transferred to the financial agent and lost by "hypothecation" and "general bond-swindling." The stock was sold without advertisement, and without even the formality of an authorization by the commission, or any limitation as to price. The act, it is needless to add, was passed by bribery.

The stock having thus been acquired, more legislation for the purpose of selling bonds was needed, and another bill, drawn up by Chamberlain, was introduced on February 17, 1871. By the existing laws the State had a first lien for her endorsement of the bonds of the company, which made subsequent bonds of little value. A section of Chamberlain's bill therefore provided that the State's lien should be changed from a first to a second mortgage, thus enabling the Ring to float their own bonds, and to saddle the State with the liability for them. It appears further that the Ring did not, by any means, "put up" the $240,000 required as the basis of this operation in money of their own, but that this was obtained, at any rate in great part, by Kimpton's sales of State bonds. The money for Chamberlain's share appears to have been obtained in this way; according to Parker's testimony the understanding was that "the amount of these expenditures and many others should be realized from State bonds, and covered by the difference between the actual amounts for which the bonds were sold by Kimpton, and the amount which he should report that he had sold them for." It will be remembered that Chamberlain, when first accused of complicity with the Ring, had a great deal to say about the "Finance Board" and the "Financial Agent." The Board consisted simply of three members of the Ring, and the agent's operations are tersely described by the committee as follows: He sold over $8,000,000 of bonds, and "for nine-tenths of this enormous amount there is no mention even of the rates of sales"; $2,843,000 bonds are reported by him as all sold on one day, and $4,214,500 on another. Some of the testimony appended to the report is very amusing. Kimpton in one of his letters to Parker urges him to hurry up the "collection of taxes," so as to stop a panic in the bonds on the New York market, which he is afraid will exhaust his "collaterals" if it is not stopped. Moses, who was Speaker of the House, made a very handsome profit out of the Ring's railroad legislation, first selling the appointment of the committees for $25,000, and then stopping the passage of one of the Ring's bills by "recognizing" two reformers, who were fighting the bill tooth and nail by making dilatory motions, until he secured $10,000 more; after which the two reformers found that, for some reason or other, the Speaker's attention could not be got. The South Carolina House of Representatives has passed a concurrent resolution authorizing the Governor to have any of the Ring prosecutions *not prossed* at his discretion; the object being, of course, to get some of the lesser rogues to turn State's evidence.

Both branches of the Iowa Legislature have passed an act repealing the Granger legislation of that State fixing freight charges. The legislation has, of course, aroused great hostility, and proved impracticable in operation. Probably in a few years all the Granger acts will be swept off the statute-books of the Western States, and no trace will be left of the great Granger movement save the reports of some very extraordinary decisions by the courts made under the influence of the excitement, which will gradually be "qualified" and "distinguished" by new judges in such a way as to deprive them of the baleful effect which seemed at one time to be their necessary consequences. Probably a few years hence it will hardly be believed that, under the influence of the Granger craze, courts of last resort decided that laws fixing the price to be paid by merchants for a particular kind of service rendered by private individuals were constitutional, even though they affected the value of securities issued under

a tacit agreement with the State that the basis of their value should be those very services; just as it will probably require an effort to realize the fact that, in the present year of grace, the same community which devised these laws also invented the theory that the power to coin money included the right to debase the coinage.

The Attorney-General of this State has, in response to a resolution of the Assembly, given an opinion with regard to the constitutionality of the Board of Estimate and Apportionment, which fixes the annual city budget. This Board consists of the Mayor, the President of the Board of Aldermen, the Comptroller, and the President of the Department of Taxes and Assessments, and, under the present charter, it makes annually, by a vote required to be unanimous, a "provisional estimate" of the expenses of the city government for the ensuing year, which is then submitted to the Aldermen for their consideration; but, inasmuch as the Board have the power of overruling any objection made by the Aldermen, and as their action is final, and the estimates as passed by them become, without any further action, the budget for the year, and must be passed by the Aldermen, no objections of the latter are of much avail. The Attorney-General says that this is all constitutional, as being only a "restriction" upon the taxing power of the city, and that the Board of Estimate and Apportionment is not actually vested with the power of taxation. But, practically, of course, a Board which "restricts" the taxing power in this way has all the taxing power that any body has, and the object of the statute creating the Board is, as every one knows, to prevent the Aldermen from taxing us.

The whole question will shortly come before the courts, so we express no opinion on its legal aspects. But the matter has a practical bearing of great importance. The creation of what the *World* calls this "Council of Four," with only two elective members, and only one representing the legislative body of the municipal corporation, is merely the final step in a long series which have gradually vested the powers originally enjoyed by the corporation in a number of executive boards removed as far as possible from the popular constituency, which is allowed to go on year after year electing a simulacrum of a city legislature without character or power. To try to revivify this simulacrum and make it a real government, with two houses having general legislative powers, would be as ridiculous as to go back to town-pumps and volunteer firemen. To those who have supported the Constitutional Amendments (which merely altered the method of selecting the Board of Estimate and Apportionment by putting it in the hands of the tax-payers) there is something very amusing in seeing the Kelly Democrats, headed by the Boss's new Attorney-General, engaged in an active defence of a Board which has absolute authority over the taxes, and which exists for the express purpose of preventing universal suffrage from having its usual effect on the local tax-levy; or, in other words, of "robbing the poor man" of the legitimate influence of "his vote."

The importations of U. S. bonds from Europe continue in sufficient volume to take up all the bills made against the enormous exports of domestic products, and to maintain the rates for bills on London just a little below the point at which gold coin can be profitably exported. The nominal rates, 4.89½ for demand bills and 4.87½ for 60-day, are at the shipping point, but though they were reached early in the week the actual rates are yet ¼ of a cent below. There seems to be but one opinion as to specie exports, and that is that they will begin very soon, and will be continued, perhaps with interruptions, until the gold in the market (now about $40,000,000) is exported. Some bankers think that this will occur before September, while others think that not more than $25,000,000 will have been shipped by that time. The purchase in London of silver for coinage into 412½-grain dollars has not advanced the price there; it closed at 54½*d.* to 54¼*d.* per oz. The market here has been strong, however, and closed at a price that makes the bullion in one of these dollars worth about 92½ cents gold.

The Paris *Temps*, one of the soberest and most influential of the French papers, remarks on our Silver Law: "There is in the second section a singular economical error. The American legislator believes it to be possible to fix by law, without regard to market price, the relative value of gold and silver, and with this view he asks the Latin Union for a concurrence and agreement, which he cannot get." The foolish "gold-bug" evidently had not heard "the noise of the captains and the shouting" in Cincinnati and Chicago. Why, millions in the Mississippi valley say that this relative value can be fixed, and millions more say it makes no difference whether it can or not. Does a good loud yell count for nothing in a matter of this kind?

It is impossible to extract any new certainty from the jumble of conflicting reports about the negotiations for the European Congress. Appearances, however, all point to a strong determination on the part of Russia to prevent an Anglo-Austrian alliance, cost what it may in concessions to Austria. That this policy is telling on Austria, too, seems very probable; and it also seems probable that Bismarck is chuckling over the way the thing is working, and is surer than ever that all will "come out right in the end." There is perfect confidence in Russia that England without Austria is not a formidable antagonist to a power in Russia's present position, and the perception of this seems to be growing in England. The feeling in Russia, too, against England is becoming very bitter and defiant, which is quite natural, whether the Russian policy be honest or knavish. Lord Derby has made a somewhat despondent speech in Parliament about the Congress, and there is an uncomfortable suspicion out of doors that the Ministry is at the end of its resources, and that Lord Beaconsfield has, after all, no great *coup* in store. It would not be at all surprising now if the warlike preparations ended in a refusal by England to take part in the Congress, and the holding of it by the three Emperors, and the settlement of the Eastern question by them on a basis to be submitted to England afterwards for her approval, and which she will accept sulkily if it leaves the Dardanelles open, and so the whole cloud will blow over. The chances of war, in spite of the military preparations, seem to diminish every day. The great obstacle to it is that it could have no definite object, considered attainable by any rational man. The time to have gone to war was before Plevna fell.

Bismarck is having a good deal of trouble in the internal affairs of the Empire, which probably in some degree distracts his attention from the Eastern question. He has long been annoyed by the covert hostility of the Prussian officials to the Imperial Administration of which he is the head, and some increase of control over them has been rendered all the more necessary because the Empire is not yet wholly independent of the individual states in the matter of finance. Its direct revenue levied by itself is derived from the customs, the telegraph, and the post-office; if its receipts from these sources are not sufficient, it has to rely on votes of the states legislatures to meet the deficiency; so that to get control of the situation he had a bill introduced in the Federal Council allowing him to appoint substitutes for himself in the various departments of the Empire, and these substitutes, it was understood, were to be the corresponding members of the Prussian Cabinet, who would in this way be brought under his direct orders. At the same time he proposed, by way of increasing the revenue, to increase the tax on tobacco, and to win over the Liberals to these changes by giving places in the Ministry to several leading members of the party. The scheme has broken down, however, owing to the refusal of the Liberals to make any change, unless the Government surrenders both in the Prussian and German Parliaments its present right to the permanency of every tax once voted; that is, under the present usage every tax is voted for all coming time, and the only power the legislature possesses over it is to increase it. The Liberals ask that hereafter taxes shall, as in England and America and France, be voted for only one year; but this would so seriously diminish the power of the Crown, particularly in military matters, that it is not likely to accede to it without a severe struggle.

SECRETARY SHERMAN ON RESUMPTION.

WE presume nobody who is acquainted with Secretary Sherman's career as a financier, supposed for one moment that his adaptation of himself and his policy to a new situation would be a pleasing spectacle for a moralist. We shall, therefore, not take the trouble to point out his inconsistencies in the remarkable conversation held by him with the Committee of the Senate on Tuesday, the 19th. We shall discuss his statements as if they were a financial programme emanating from a gentleman who has never been heard of until now—that is, on their merits solely, and without any reference to those of their author—and if we seem over-censorious in judging what many will consider a well-meaning attempt to solve a very difficult problem, our excuse is that, if there be one thing in the world about which self-deception or word-painting is dangerous, it is finance; if there be one thing about which it is not permissible to delude one's self or to shirk unpleasant facts, it is about the mode of meeting pecuniary obligations.

The Secretary was asked his opinion as to the effect of the Silver Law on resumption. He said it was in part favorable, in part unfavorable. He described the unfavorable effects first. It had stopped the sale of the four-per-cent. bonds, he said; it had stopped the accumulation of coin in the Treasury, and it had caused heavy returns of our bonds from Europe. These are simple statements of facts, and he was quite clear about them. Their meaning is obvious. The sale of the four-per-cent. bonds has stopped because such a shock has been given to the national credit that we have ceased to be a four-per-cent. nation—or, in other words, people will no longer lend to us at that rate of interest. Our bonds are coming back from Europe because large numbers of the holders doubt whether we shall long maintain our position as a six-per-cent. nation. They fear that the Silver Law will be followed by other laws of a still more mischievous character, and think, therefore, to use the language of the London *Times*, "that if the Americans are to try experiments on their credit, they had much better do so with the debt held at home than in English hands."

The immediate effect of this on the resumption problem is this: that the Europeans, in so far as they send bonds here for sale, pay for our products in bonds instead of gold, and may, by so doing, should our exports diminish at all, compel us to pay gold out instead of receiving it. In fact, they have very nearly brought us to that point already. Thus far there is a tolerably good market for the bonds here, owing to the badness of other investments and the abundance of money lying idle through the general want of confidence in the future. The existence of this market led the "Sycamore of the Wabash" to interject the remark that "capital seeks our bonds when this bi-metallic basis is declared"; but then the Sycamore's observations on financial questions, although he was one of the leaders of the silver movement, only call for Charles Lamb's reply to a person of similar calibre—that is, an examination of his bumps with a lighted candle. The unfavorable effects, then, of the Silver Law are that it has seriously injured our credit while we are still heavily in debt, and threatens to diminish our stock of gold on which we are relying for resumption, and cause the withdrawal of large bodies of capital which would otherwise be available for our domestic enterprises, by the sale of our securities by foreign bondholders. Financially speaking, it would be hard for the effect of anything to be more unfavorable.

The favorable effects of the Silver Law are, according to Mr. Sherman, first, that it has "satisfied a strong public demand for bi-metallic money, and, in a Government like ours, it is always good to obey the popular current." This would be a good enough remark coming from a politician who is getting ready for the fall election; but a financier cannot say that it is well to satisfy a popular demand for bi-metallic money by anything but two metals in circulation. A *promise* of bi-metallic circulation is not honest satisfaction, and an honest financier ought not to talk of it as such unless he believes that it will be fulfilled. That Mr. Sherman believes this is hardly possible. He knows, we venture to assert, that as silver coin grows abundant, unless the price of silver bullion rises nine per cent., gold coin will disappear. If he believes that any such rise will take place in silver, he ought to have said so, and we have no doubt that had he believed it he would have said so. As matters stand, passing the Silver Law to satisfy "a popular demand for a bi-metallic currency" is very like Micawber's plan of settling a debt by giving a note.

Secondly, he says "resumption can be more readily maintained upon a double standard than on a single standard." This means, we presume (it cannot mean anything else), that it will be easier to redeem United States notes in gold *or* silver than in gold alone. This is true, in case gold and silver are at par; but if they are at par, it does not make any difference whether we have a double standard or not. If one can be had in the market at the same price as the other, it does not make any difference to a debtor whether both are a legal tender or only one, because with one he can buy an equivalent amount of the other. If they are not at par, Mr. Sherman will not resume or maintain resumption on a double standard; he will resume and maintain resumption on a single standard, composed of the cheaper metal of the two. So that his prospects as a resumer do not depend on the silver legislation, but on the market price of bullion. If by January 1, 1879, silver is as good as gold, he can resume on which he pleases; if silver is not as good as gold, he can only resume and maintain resumption in silver, because his gold will leave him for exportation. So that if he had given the Committee his views as to the course of the silver market, he would have gone to the core of the whole matter; but this he did not do.

The most important thing in the conversation was, however, the Secretary's entirely new definition of resumption; and to this we must ask the serious attention of our readers, for it is probably the most singular phenomenon of the present financial crisis. Resumption, as it has been understood, we venture to assert without fear of contradiction, ever since the close of the war has meant, in the eyes of all friends of honest government and sound currency, the redemption in coin of the promissory notes called greenbacks, issued and made legal tender by the Government to meet its necessities during the Rebellion. The evils, both public and private, of the existence of these notes have been fully demonstrated, and the object of the Resumption Act was to call them in and destroy them, and take the Government once for all out of the position both of an insolvent debtor and of an issuer of paper money. The resumption problem, therefore, as it has presented itself to the minds of those who have supported and fought for that Act, is to accumulate, and keep on hand in the Treasury, coin—we care not whether gold or silver—in sufficient quantity after Jan. 1, 1879, to pay the Government notes as they are from time to time presented, until they are all withdrawn and cancelled, and the Government is thus relegated to its old Constitutional function of issuing gold and silver coin, and this only, for currency. Mr. Sherman has maintained all along that he would be able to do this work of redemption in gold coin alone if Congress did not meddle with him. He now says he can do it better in gold *and* silver; but he has promulgated an entirely new definition of resumption. He says there are $348,618,000 legal-tender notes outstanding, and, of course, presentable, but not likely to be presented, on the first of next January. To meet these he has or is likely to have, in round numbers, $62,000,000 in gold and about $9,000,000 in silver, or $71,000,000. Being asked whether this was enough, he said no; that he could not resume with this, unless he used the power, which he believes he possesses, to reissue, or, in other words, keep afloat, $300,000,000; and this power, he calmly announced, he meant to exercise. So that what he means by "resumption" is that about $25,000,000 of greenbacks being always on deposit with the Treasurer for the redemption of bank-bills, and about $20,000,000 more being likely to be withdrawn before January 1 by fresh issues of bank-bills, he would deal with the remaining $300,000,000 by paying them on presentation, and then promptly reissuing them. In other words, he proposes to make three hundred millions of Government notes a permanent part of our circulation, and to add to this all the gold and silver that are put afloat.

It is true he thinks he will be able to pay these $300,000,000 whenever they are presented, and they will therefore not, strictly speaking, possess the character of inconvertible paper; but there are, nevertheless, these serious and, indeed, fatal objections to his plan: It will be the imposition on the Government of the issue of paper money, or, in other words, of the functions of a national bank, as a permanent and normal duty, without any real authority of law, and by what it is not too strong language to call a trick or perversion of law on the part of an executive officer. It will keep in the arena of national politics and within the reach of Congress one of the most dangerous questions of our time, and the one which has done most to bring about the widespread financial disaster from which we are suffering—viz., the question whether the legislature has not the power to alter the standard of value, or even to issue money of no intrinsic value. Finally, it will furnish a constant incentive to high-handed attempts at inflation. The $300,000,000 notes will be regarded by the ignorant as the "poor man's money," as distinguished from coin and bank-bills, or "rich man's money," and the pressure on the Government from the growing communistic element in the population to procure fresh issues of them whenever the times were hard, would convert our politics into a simple, constant struggle to save property from confiscation and the machinery of exchange from total derangement.

There is one merit in Mr. Sherman's talk with the Committee. Its evasiveness and vagueness, and the dexterity of its concessions to all schools of finance, will undoubtedly go a good way to quiet the extreme silver-men, and cause the Treasury to be let alone between now and next January; and that this is a gain we do not deny. But it is none the less true that were the President a financier the conversation would fill him with genuine alarm.

OUR DIPLOMATISTS.

MR. HEWITT'S sharp comments on our diplomatic establishment, and his sweeping proposal that our ministers in Europe should be cut down to two, and the places of the others taken by consuls, coupled with the recent appointment of Mr. Taylor to the German mission, have revived a discussion which has raged with short intermissions since the foundation of the Government, and which is apparently likely to last for another century. We have less diplomatic work to do than any other Power in the world, and yet no other Power has nearly as much trouble about its diplomatic machinery. The machinery is a copy, and in many ways a very absurd one, of that of European states, and were our foreign relations as complicated and as important as theirs it would probably have been remodelled or swept away long ago, just as the militia was remodelled and the elective officers swept away in the late war. Its defects have been largely concealed by the fact that the questions between us and foreign states which call for diplomatic treatment are few in number and for the most part trivial. When a really serious one arises our practice has been to put it into the hands of exceptionally able men who do not belong to the diplomatic calling in the strict sense of the term. The success of this plan has been very great, and has thrown a kind of glamour over our diplomatic system. We have, too, as a general rule, carried our point in disputing with European Powers; but this has been due in the main to agencies but slightly connected with the quality of our negotiators. In the first place, almost all our foreign controversies have arisen out of affairs on this continent, which are of comparatively small interest or importance to European governments, and about which they therefore defend themselves feebly—very feebly in contrast with American vigor and pertinacity. They are generally ready to yield or compromise about them, as troublesome rather than grave things. This weakness of theirs, too, is aggravated by the fact that while our powers of offence or annoyance in war would be very great, we are practically harder to get at than any civilized state. We cannot be invaded, and our ports are three thousand miles distant from every government which would dream of molesting them. Americans have, ever since 1812, enjoyed a reputation, which the late war has greatly increased, for extraordinary ingenuity in being unpleasant to their enemies—for, in short, an originality in hostility which no Power cares to test. Finally, American abstinence from interference in European affairs deprives us of all weight in the calculations of European statesmen touching the more serious and pressing problems of their foreign policy. They have constantly to consider what almost every other civilized Power will think or do under such and such circumstances; but they hardly ever have to consider what the United States will say or do, and they are thankful for it, and, as a general rule, are not desirous that we should change our practice.

These things, and others which we have not space to mention, really make our diplomacy a good deal of a simulacrum. Our ministers play somewhat the part of the Swiss Guard at the Vatican. They may be armed, and tall, and brave, and well drilled; but everybody knows, and they know, that they will never have to attack anybody or defend anybody; that if there was a riot it would be suppressed by the police with clubs. Among European diplomats the American minister is not looked on as belonging, strictly speaking, to the corps. *They* are a professional body, with rules of promotion and of pay, and of fixity of tenure, like the army or navy, while he is an amateur, who has taken the business up for a short period as a sort of holiday, and he has none of the advantages of a professional position. The estimation in which he is held depends entirely on his personal qualities. Wherever he goes he has to make his own position, while all his colleagues have been long known in the diplomatic body, and have reached a mission or an embassy after long service in subordinate places. He is, therefore, very likely to be recalled before anybody begins to mind very much what he says or care when he goes. If, therefore, he had real diplomatic work to do; if he had to keep a genuine watch on his country's foreign relations, and her safety or welfare were really dependent on his influence or perspicacity, the system would, of course, have broken down utterly long ago. The country would never have allowed the politicians to use it as it has been used, as a reward for successful stump-speaking, or as a compensation for the loss of a seat in Congress, or for a heavy contribution to a campaign fund, any more than in actual war they would allow the army and navy to be commanded by successful musicians or skilful whist-players.

Our diplomatists having for the most part no serious duties, we have fallen not unnaturally into the way of looking at them as social representatives of the country in foreign capitals—that is, as persons whose principal business it is to give foreigners a fair idea of what we consider our best society. The difference between the United States and foreign governments here is that what to these is simply a means is to us an end. They make their minister at a foreign court a great "swell," with polished manners, a good house, and a large salary, and tried capacity for entertaining, in order to increase his influence with the governing class of the country to which he is accredited. We do the same thing, though in a minor degree, not for its effect on our foreign relations—for nobody really expects it to have any—but in order to show Europeans that we can turn out fine ladies and gentlemen too, if we please. As long as this function of social representation is the principal one of American diplomatists, and as long as American diplomatists have to rely for their weight and consideration at foreign courts on their position at home before they took to diplomacy, or, in other words, on their personal qualities, the bestowal of missions on men of literary distinction will, *pace* Mr. Hewitt, be as wise a thing as the Government can do. The appointments of such men as Mr. Marsh, Mr. Bancroft, Mr. Adams (who was neither a "practical politician" nor a lawyer), Mr. Lowell, and Mr. Taylor are the most creditable on the whole, and under existing circumstances, which it can make. Mr. Adams, who, although he had been in public life, was more "a scholar and a gentleman" than anything else, yet stood with complete success the severest business test to which the foreign minister of any power has been subjected for half a century. The others certainly give foreigners a far better opinion of American society than ap-

pointments made under the ordinary political usages would be likely to give, and have in virtue of their reputation at home a consideration as soon as they arrive which an obscure or unknown man, in the absence of professional status, would take a long time to acquire.

It has to be borne in mind, too, that even in the most democratic countries of Europe—France, for instance—practical politics are not yet divorced from mental culture. The men whom the French peasants, with all their passion for equality, are most eager to put in office are the most cultivated men in the nation. It is not uncommon either there or in England or Germany for prominent politicians to be men of high attainments in literature and science. Here, on the contrary, the very idea of a practical politician having anything to say worth listening to about literary, scientific, or historical matters excites a smile. An article or book by Conkling or Blaine or Hendricks or Voorhees on anything but "the machine" or "Hell" would be treated as a dull comedy. The politicians, on their side, repay this contempt of the public for their intellectual accomplishments by treating literary culture as a positive disqualification for participation in public affairs, and take it for granted that a literary man, or a man of literary tastes, whether a producer or not, will be sure to fail in any executive capacity. In Europe this is considered a barbarian's notion. The fact that a man has distinguished himself in any civilized art raises the presumption, only to be rebutted by experiment, that he will succeed in others; and such a man gets an earlier and more careful hearing and creates a better impression about his country than any obscure lawyer, politician, or merchant could do. In fact, if Mr. Hewitt's suggestion, which should include a thorough reform of the consular service, be not adopted, the very best change to make would be the exclusion from all the higher diplomatic posts of all persons who had made no reputation outside the United States. This would, of course, indicate that we "cared for abroad" a good deal; but the diplomatic service, as now organized, shows that we "care for abroad," but do not know how to show it properly. The use to the people of the United States of paying an unknown American lawyer or merchant—ignorant of the world, of foreign languages, of literature, science, and art, dumb and ill at ease in all the social circles in which he finds himself, and thoroughly conversant with nothing but "the mechanism of government" in his own country—for lounging in a foreign capital, is something which nobody has explained or ever will explain.

DU CAMP'S 'CONVULSIONS OF PARIS.'

PARIS, March 8, 1878.

M. MAXIME DU CAMP is one of those men whom the French call "originals." He was born with a good fortune, and spent many years of his youth in long travels in Egypt and elsewhere. He wrote a few novels, which are now deservedly forgotten, such as 'L'Homme au bracelet d'argent.' He thought himself a man of imagination, and in that capacity he joined Garibaldi in the famous expedition of the "Mille" in Sicily, and entered Naples triumphantly on the staff of the famous hero of the red shirt. But the Italian hero did not much appreciate his French aide-de-camp, who came back to France and wrote an account of his expedition. Maxime du Camp suffered a sort of transformation after it; he suddenly became, from a man of imagination, a man of numbers, of statistics, an economist. He began to collect materials with as much care as a member of some "social congress." Taking Paris for the subject of his study, he published a work under the somewhat extraordinary title of 'Paris, its Organs, its Functions, its Life in the second half of the Eighteenth Century.' In six big volumes he described what may be called the anatomy of the capital of France, and there is no doubt that this work, while it now possesses great interest for all the administrators of great cities, will hereafter be a very curious historical document.

Since the war Maxime du Camp has published in the *Revue des Deux Mondes* a series of articles on the Commune, and he has now republished a part of them under the singular title 'The Convulsions of Paris.' After having described Paris in its normal state, such as it appears to the eye in regular times, M. du Camp has had occasion to see it in what he calls a "convulsion"; he has proceeded like the physiologist who studies an organ first in its normal condition, then in pathological states. Before the Commune, during the Commune, was it not always the same Paris, the same million-headed hydra? The work of years, of centuries, can be almost undone in a few hours. I remember how different Paris was from itself even on the 7th of September, three days after the revolution which followed the capitulation of Sedan. The police had almost vanished; the various ministries were in the hands of the members of the so-called Government of National Defence, but the new ministers felt themselves strangers in the palaces which had been abandoned to them; there was no authority left; everybody could go in and out. Paris was arming, bands of men were seen on the boulevards with guns on their shoulders; the streets were already dirty and great heaps of rubbish were seen before every door. The railway stations were crowded to suffocation; the wine-shops were full of working-men, of soldiers, of *moblots*. Paris smelt of wine. Bands of men, women, and children were going to the Place de la Concorde, and left great crowns of "immortelles" before the gigantic statue of Strasbourg. The Hôtel de Ville, which had become the seat of the Government, was a pandemonium. General Trochu was meditating on his "plan" while the lawyers of the Government (almost all its members were lawyers) quarrelled among themselves, or addressed the deputations which came every half-hour and expressed the wishes of "the people." But Paris on the eve of the siege was nothing to Paris on the eve of the Commune, or to Paris after the Commune; there was a gradation of horrors which culminated in the terrible eight days' war in the streets from house to house, in the wholesale massacre of the hostages, in the murders in the prisons. Alas! this is all forgotten. If it were not for the ruins of a few palaces, who would remember the Commune? Paris is gay, it is as brilliant as in its most brilliant days; it adds to its illumination by gas every night the new electrical illumination; the Place de l'Opéra seems in the purple and vivid light of the new invention like some fantastic decoration. The long galleries and the high towers of the Exhibition Palace are filled with the treasures of the whole world. The ruins themselves, with the rosy tints left by the petroleum, softened and rounded by time, adorn the magnificent capital. Was not Rome sacked eight times, and Rome is still admirable.

Maxime du Camp's book produces a singular effect on the mind. We do not like to hear so much truth. Go to that great banker, who lives in a palace and who enjoys universal consideration, and whisper in his ear that some thirty years ago he was engaged in a very mean transaction, that he had much difficulty then in saving his honor and disentangling himself from the consequences of his error; he will not believe you. Tell the old general, covered with wounds, that on such a day, in such a year, in such an affair, he was not a hero, that he acted like a coward; he will not believe you. What can be more horrible to the sinner than the truth? And still "the truth shall save thee." Maxime du Camp has said nothing except what was founded on the most authentic documents; he has patiently consulted all the papers of the police, of the *mairies*, of the councils of war. "I have told nothing but the truth, but I have not told the whole truth. It is at times so particularly monstrous, it reveals such acts of ferocity, of debauchery, of horrible depravity, that in many cases I have been silent out of respect for myself and respect for my readers. All the menagerie of bad passions had broken its cage during the Commune. . . . It cannot be said that the Commune was hypocritical; it was very frank. It was like a prostitute without any shame." It cannot be said that such a work as 'The Convulsions of Paris' has any political character; it cannot be invoked against any particular form of government, as the Commune was in reality the absence of government, the absence of law, the absence of any constitutional, administrative, or judicial guarantees. It was the reign of brute force; still it shows how easily a small number of men can govern a great capital by terror and by corruption. We cannot, or at least we ought not, to forget that for two months force reigned supreme in Paris. The Commune had an artillery of more than a thousand guns; it had twenty legions, composed of 254 battalions; the army counted from 140,000 to 150,000 men; out of this number we may say that only 25,000 men really fought, but the others received their pay of one and a half francs a day, and they were in consequence real accomplices of the Commune. This number of 150,000, which represents the paid army of the Commune, is not much inferior to the number of the registered electors of Paris.

The time may come when some writer, in order to please or flatter the electors of Paris, will try to describe a theoretical Commune, to surround it with the halo of some socialist doctrine. I read very attentively at the time all the proclamations of the Commune, of the Committee of the National Guard, the articles of the official *Moniteur* of the Commune, and I confess that I could never arrive at any result as to the ideas and

principles which guided the leaders of this popular movement. I came to the conclusion that it was a physiological movement, the mere outburst of animal passions which were left unrestrained. There was no patriotism mixed up with it, as the Communist leaders showed themselves remarkably humble before the Prussian commanders ; they hated the "Versaillais" much more than the Germans, because the Versaillais were determined to shorten their orgies. The Communists professed to be Republicans, and tried to represent the Republic as threatened by the royalist Chamber of Versailles ; but they must have known that M. Thiers had no intention of establishing a monarchy. The most important Republican leaders were in Versailles, on the side of Thiers. Gambetta alone had gone to San Sebastian in Spain during the civil war, under pretext of ill-health.

Even now it is difficult, however, to say with any exactitude how much political considerations entered into the beginning of the Communist movement. Once begun, it outgrew the domain of politics ; it became a mere socialist agitation. Its heroes were of a two-fold kind—some were men without any culture, mere brutes ; the others were well-educated men who for some reason or other had been unable to make their way in the world—men in a state of revolt against society. More than half the members of the Commune were taken at random from what has been called in England the "residuum" ; but these men became the instruments of a few educated and corrupt individuals, such as Pascal Grousset and Raoul Rigault. This Raoul Rigault is thus described by Du Camp :

"He was a heavy boy, with uncouth hair and beard, solid shoulders, short legs ; near-sighted, with a firm eye, an impudent nose, a sensual mouth ; fond of good wine ; talking, screaming, gesticulating, snuffing tobacco between two phrases, astonishing the young men by his talk, almost famous in the Quartier des Écoles. Half-student, half-journalist, repeating as sublime truths the stupidities picked up in the *Ami du peuple* [the paper of Marat] and in the *Père Duchêne*, he seemed strong because he was rude, energetic because he was cruel, intelligent because he was an audacious talker. He was the chief of a small group which recognized but one master, the man whom they familiarly called "le sieur" Blanqui. Blanqui knew Rigault well, and said of him : 'As a man he is a mere boy, but he is a first-rate policeman.' It was true ; Rigault had the genius of the police, and if he had lived he would probably have become a formidable detective—as old poachers become the best game-keepers. He had studied all the agents of the prefecture of police ; he knew who belonged to the division "des mœurs," who to the division of "sûreté" ; to the "furnished apartments," to the "research brigade." He feared mostly those of the "contrôle," and he played tricks on the men of Lagrange, who was charged with the political service of the prefecture of police. His joy was to follow them, to make their acquaintance, to take them to some beer-shop, and to leave them completely drunk."

Rigault had made pupils, he had formed a sort of counter-police. He never spoke of liberty, of equality, of fraternity. Even during the Empire he said, "When we shall be masters, . . . when we shall be in power." After the 4th September he took the place of his pet enemy, Lagrange. The siege was a preparation for him. He spoke little of Bismarck, of the Germans. He spoke of Marat. He became furious at the sight of a church or a priest. He never said the "Rue Saint-Hyacinthe-Saint-Michel." He said "Hya-Michel." He did not believe in saints. On the 18th of March he entered the Prefecture of Police—his day had come. He made himself "procureur," that is, "public accuser," of the Commune. His dream was to imitate the Hébert of the first Revolution. The dream of the ferocious Ferré (who executed the hostages) was to imitate Rigault. Crime must have models, like virtue. Ferré, a miserable, sickly man, with ecstatic eyes, small, ridiculous, looked with envy and admiration on Rigault, who was robust, who drank copiously (the account of Rigault's table during the Commune amounted to about 200 francs a day). Ferré and Rigault are good types of the Commune. Ferré represents the "residuum," Rigault the outcast of society—the vain and lazy student who will not patiently make a career, and who prefers to prey upon society.

"It cannot be said," writes Maxime du Camp, "that Raoul Rigault and Ferré were the men of the Commune. The Commune had no men—it had spectres, phantoms lost in the clouds of the past, whom the instinct of imitation led to violence, and who could formulate no new idea. But they were the expression of the Commune. They represented its coarseness, its vanity, its cruelty, its ignorance, its debauchery. These two *cabotins* [*cabotin* is the word applied to a contemptible actor] did incalculable harm by inciting constantly the mass of dreamers to excessive measures."

How is it possible to give an account of a book like this book on the 'Convulsions of Paris'? The whole interest of it lies in its infinite details. Du Camp devotes this first volume to the prisons of Paris and to the prison-life during the terrible days which followed the 18th of March. The Circles of Dante cannot be more infernal than these prisons, to which the prisoners were taken arbitrarily, and where they enjoyed none of the prerogatives which attend a prisoner in all civilized countries. M. du Camp takes one prison after the other—the famous "Dépôt," near the Prefecture, where the Archbishop of Paris and M. Bonjean were first taken, the Maison de Justice, the Sainte-Lazare, the Sainte-Pélagie, the "Santé," Mazas, the Grande-Roquette. I have gone again through all the stations of Calvary. I can only advise a few to read this account of what the depravity of man can do when it is not only unbridled, but when it becomes the law itself. There are days in history when the murderer becomes the judge. The Commune was one of those evil days. The memory of it will never be lost. It will remain in history like a mark of infamy—one of those dates which continue to shine when all else has become vague and misty, like the date of St. Bartholomew, like the days of 1793.

Correspondence.

PRESIDENT ELIOT'S CONSISTENCY.

To the Editor of The Nation :

Sir : In your last issue a correspondent signing himself C. K., and writing from Ann Arbor, asserts that "a very interesting and suggestive change" has come over my mind on the subject of the method adopted by the University of Michigan in 1870 of admitting students, without examination, on certificates from the authorities of approved schools. His evidence of this change of opinion on my part is, that in the last number of the *North American Review* I have commended to the attention of American teachers the examinations conducted by the "Oxford and Cambridge Schools Examination Board," whereas in 1874 I expressed, in my annual report, my disbelief in the method adopted by the University of Michigan.

The unwary reader would naturally infer that there is a close resemblance between the Ann Arbor method and the Oxford and Cambridge method, so that it must be inconsistent to condemn the one and praise the other. Indeed, C. K. virtually affirms that the two systems are "identical in spirit and purpose, and almost identical in form." He even implies that the University of Michigan anticipated by three years the Universities of Oxford and Cambridge in the adoption of the policy of examining schools, and then admitting pupils of these schools to the University without examination. Now, the fact is, that the English method bears no resemblance whatever to the Michigan method, but, on the contrary, has a wholly different procedure and a diametrically opposite tendency.

The English Board conducts actual examinations, both written and oral, on specific subjects, through competent examiners of its own choice ; and retains absolute control of these examinations in every respect. It examines persons, not programmes ; pupils, not teachers ; and it takes no account of school testimonials or diplomas. The Board holds examinations of two sorts : 1, examinations of schools—that is, of the pupils of any school upon their school work ; 2, examinations of individuals for certificates which give exemption from the entrance or matriculation examinations of the colleges at Oxford and Cambridge, from the first examinations in the University course at Oxford and Cambridge, from the preliminary examinations of the College of Surgeons, the Institute of Architects, the Council of Medical Education, and the Incorporated Law Society, and from portions of the examinations prescribed for first appointments in the army, and for admission to the Military Academy at Woolwich. The examinations of schools are held at the schools, upon request of the school desiring to be examined, and exclusively for its benefit and at its expense ; and these examinations have, in themselves, no effect whatever to admit pupils of the examined schools to the Universities, either with or without testimonials or diplomas given by the schools. The examinations of individuals for the Board's certificates cover all the subjects included in the various examinations from which the certificates give exemption ; they are conducted simultaneously at numerous places in England with the precision, fairness, and publicity which characterize all the English university examinations ; every candidate must pay, at least two months in advance, a fee of £2 ; the papers set are annually published, as are also the names of all the persons who receive certificates, with the subjects in which they respectively passed and the schools from which they came. [See the "Regulations of the Oxford and Cambridge Schools Examination Board for the year 1878.

Price 6*d*." The Annual Report of the Board (the first in 1874). The Annual List of Candidates who obtained certificates (the first in July, 1874). Price 6*d*. The "Papers set in the Examination for Certificates, July, 1876. Price 1*s*." These publications can be obtained through Macmillan & Co, New York City.]

In sharp contrast with this admirable system is the method of the University of Michigan as described in its official publications:

"A committee of the faculty will visit, once a year, any public high-school in Michigan, on request of its School Board, and report its condition to the Faculty. If the Faculty shall be satisfied, from such report, that the school is taught by competent instructors, and is furnishing a good preparation for any one or more of our regular courses, then the graduates from such preparatory course or courses will be admitted to the freshman class of the University without examination. . . . "—*Catalogue for* 1876-77, p. 36.

The President of the University, in his report for the year ending June 30, 1876, p. 6, speaks of this method as "the plan of receiving students from certain approved high-schools on diploma and without examination by us." The Oxford and Cambridge system is, on the one hand, an emphatic assertion, and, on the other, a striking recognition, of the supremacy of the universities over the institutions of secondary education; the Michigan method is a partial surrender of the authority of the university. The one is a strict, precise, and comprehensive system of publicly examining individuals in specified subjects; the other a lax, equivocal method of visiting schools once a year. The natural tendency of the one is to hold the secondary institutions up, of the other to let the university down. The two plans are so utterly different that it is hard to imagine how any one could approve both. He who admires the one must almost necessarily disapprove the other.

I am obliged to your correspondent for procuring for me, through your courtesy, this opportunity of again expressing my opinion—an opinion which time has only strengthened—that the Michigan method is an innovation of injurious tendency, and of again inviting public attention to the service which the two great English universities are rendering to English education through the action of their combined "Schools Examination Board."

Your obedient servant, CHARLES W. ELIOT.

CAMBRIDGE, MASS., March 25, 1878.

THE FINANCIAL FUTURE.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Silver dollars having now become an unlimited legal tender, it will be interesting to consider the probable results. To simplify the question, let us assume that the Resumption Act will not be repealed, and that silver certificates, if issued at all by the Treasury, will be issued only in exchange for actual deposits of coined dollars, with perhaps a margin of credit similar to that now provided for in the issue of gold certificates.

(1) At present there are practically no silver dollars in circulation, excepting trade-dollars, which are not a legal tender, and some few very old or very new coins, which need not be taken into account. As specie payments are not yet authorized, the Secretary of the Treasury has no right to pay out silver dollars in exchange for greenbacks. To pay them out for the purchase of silver bullion would be unwise and unwarrantable: first, because a gold dollar, which will now pay no more debt than a silver dollar, will purchase one-tenth more silver bullion than the latter; and, secondly, because the silver dollars so paid out would at once return to the Treasury through the Custom-House, thereby diminishing to that extent the revenue of the Government, and its ability to continue the payment of interest on its bonds in gold. Apparently, therefore, the only proper course for the Secretary of the Treasury to pursue is to hoard the silver dollars in the Treasury as fast as they are coined.

(2) On the first of January, 1879, greenbacks will be payable in coin, and by that time there will probably be, say, $30,000,000 of silver dollars available for their redemption. Of course, from that date all who have duties to pay at the Custom-House will obtain the coin for that purpose at par, in exchange for greenbacks; and as it is not likely that the balance of trade will turn against us so rapidly as to allow these silver dollars to be exported without loss, they will probably, for some months at least, continue to accumulate in the principal centres of trade, being too cumbrous for general circulation. Even the banks will not want to be encumbered with them, but will prefer to keep them on deposit in the Treasury, using greenbacks and silver certificates in their place.

(3) We shall thus have in circulation at least four different kinds of money, so-called, viz.: silver, silver certificates, greenbacks, and national bank notes, besides subsidiary silver coin. Gold will continue to be used as merchandise for purposes of export, but with an increased premium, and as all gold revenue will cease before many months, both the principal and interest of bonds must be paid in silver. So long as the balance of trade does not call for the export of silver coin, the above four kinds of money must apparently continue to circulate side by side, with continually increasing volume, until their depreciation becomes so great as to call for the export of silver coin. Any considerable advance or upward tendency in the price of silver bullion would, of course, hasten this result; but sooner or later it must come, and the longer it is delayed the more dangerous it will be.

(4) In the meantime it certainly seems probable that a period of inflation is close at hand. With our peculiar financial organization, and the sanguine and speculative temperament of our people, this continued plethora of circulating medium, especially when rendered apparently safe by the resumption of specie payments, must inevitably produce its usual effects. We must remember, however, that there has been as yet no real adjustment of the currency, no real equilibrium established between coin and paper; and if there is any virtue in statistics, and any wisdom to be drawn from past experience, the amount of paper money now in circulation is far beyond what can be maintained at par with specie under the pressure of an adverse balance of trade. How much more will this be the case when it is swelled by the issue of silver certificates and by the increase of bank credit which is sure to follow!

Perhaps, therefore, the best thing that can happen for us, though by no means the most agreeable, is that gold should rise gradually to a premium of ten per cent., and be carried off to Europe, that our bonds should be steadily returned upon our hands, thus absorbing our idle capital, and that our people, still so much impoverished by past extravagance, should be kept at work earning and saving money, and liquidating their foreign and domestic debts, without an opportunity of renewing the brilliant career of folly and waste which followed upon the close of the war. In that case, specie payment, at least in silver, may be not only resumed, but maintained, and the reign of irredeemable paper be ended, let us hope, for ever. J. S. R.

[The danger is, however, that silver not having brought back the happy days, the pressure for "fiat-money" would become stronger than ever. Experience has shown that all attempts to satisfy popular delusions in financial legislation have never ceased till the bottom was reached—that is, until the *reductio ad absurdum* had been performed, so that the most ignorant man in the community could understand it—until, for example, it took $100 or $1,000 to buy a quart of peanuts. Salvation through irredeemable paper money or any other kind of inflation is possible and has been achieved only where, as now in France, the management of the currency has been left in skilled hands. If the French people had taken hold of the financial problem after 1870, under the pressure of their burdens, and every voter had converted himself into a minister of finance, the bottom would have dropped out of French credit long ago. Our chance of escape lies in the possibility of rescuing our currency from the demagogues before the conservative and patriotic spirit which the war infused into our finance has been exhausted, and the final rush for the bridge begins. What we have to fear is the disgust which will be excited when it is discovered that silver, like gold, is "rich man's money"—that is, can only be procured for labor or goods. If this should not be guarded against, specie payments would not be maintained in silver any more than in gold.—ED. NATION.]

ACCEPTING THE SITUATION.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: I am the editor of a newspaper not "prominent" outside the State in which it is published. In its columns I have earnestly opposed all legislation intended to give us any other than a gold standard for our currency, not with the expectation that I could thereby exert influence at Washington, but with a view to preserving a sound public sentiment among the constituents of the Senator and Representative from this State who have firmly opposed all such legislation; yet, now that the deed is done, I feel some disposition to acquiesce and make the best of a bad busi-

ness, which disposition your article in the last *Nation* does not entirely remove.

The case appears to me thus: The original Bland Bill proposed to give, at once, a new meaning to the word "dollar," and thereby alter and impair every contract made before that date requiring the payment of "dollars." Its certain effect would have been to give to this country a single currency of silver, while the object of the bill—which was to enable public and private debtors to escape legally the payment of from eight to ten per cent. of their debts—was one of undisguised dishonesty. The Senate amendments only postponed the time when these necessary results would ensue, and made the descent a gradual instead of an abrupt one. The passage of the bill in either form made of this a rascal nation, naturally and properly injured our credit, and imposed on this and the next succeeding generation the burden of interest-payments one-third larger than we need have borne, for the sake of enabling some generation yet unborn to escape the payment of one-tenth of the principal of a debt the interest on which, at six per cent., will amount to more than its principal long before such final payment.

Yet, as one of the forty millions of rascals created by this act, I feel that there is a necessity that we shall still live, if for no better reason than that we may repent, and I am therefore disposed to accept the new definition of the word "dollar," and adapt business to the new basis, and also to try to prevent a still lower descent in the scale by opposing paper inflation. It will not take the world long to comprehend that the value expressed by the word "dollar," in the United States, is that measured by the silver five-franc piece, and such foreign trade as we have will be conducted on that basis. Whatever may be finally the purchasing power of that quantity of silver will be the purchasing power of the American dollar. No one claims, I believe, that it will not have some intrinsic value always. Is it not, then, the part of wisdom and prudence to join hands now with those of the silver advocates whom we believe honest but mistaken, in defeating the ultimate purpose of a majority of the silver agitators—the making of the silver legislation but the entering wedge for paper-money inflation?

I write under the conviction that the realization of all the results threatened by the original Bland Bill is only a question of time under the operation of the bill as it passed the Senate. If I am mistaken in this, I am, of course, wrong in my conclusions, but I see no reason to hope that I am mistaken. Many leading New York papers have urged bankers and other business men to put their business on a gold basis, but a careful scanning of their news-columns fails to show me that any concerted movement in that direction has taken place or is likely to take place. If it is not done in New York, it will not be done anywhere. There appears to be a practical submission among business men such as you censure newspapers for giving in words; but if they acquiesce and adapt themselves to the situation, of what value will lamentation and warning by the newspapers be? I put these questions in all earnestness, for I am sure that if you can point out even a "fighting chance" to save the country from the effects of the Bland Bill, the papers which have consistently and intelligently opposed it will be glad enough to continue to attack it; but if those results are as inevitable as they appear to be to me, I can see no good that can come from further agitation of the subject, and much positive harm to business, which it is our duty to avert if we honestly can.

Yours respectfully, W. T. Croasdale.

Wilmington, Del., March 18, 1878.

[If we knew exactly what Mr. Croasdale meant by "joining hands" with the honest portion of the silver agitators, we could better answer his questions. Our counsel to preachers is to preach the value of a stable standard of value, and try to get dealers in money and merchandise to help the preaching by using in their contracts the most stable standard known. There is to this, of course, the usual objection to all preaching—that it will produce no effect at all, or none for a very long time. But what other way is there, in our state of society, of meeting a widespread popular delusion on any subject? The extreme silver-men cannot be stopped or discouraged by agreeing or pretending to agree with them. On the contrary, every concession tempts them into fresh excesses. We believe their leading man, Senator Jones, who was a stanch opponent of paper inflation in 1875, is now in favor of "fiat-money"—that is, money composed of some worthless material, with a Government stamp on it. What these men are driving at is undoubtedly the repudiation of all debts, public and private, by the total breakdown of the currency, so that the country may "make a fresh start," free from all liabilities. It is a great mistake, to our mind, to suppose that agreeing to go part of the way with them, or pretending to think that their schemes ought to have a fair trial, will divert them in the least from their ultimate design. Nor is there any way under heaven of foiling them except by appealing to the honor and intelligence of the American people, through the press and the platform. It may be that the crisis is such that even this resource will fail us. But as long as there is even a hope of success we are bound to try it. If by "joining hands" or remaining silent we can raise the price of silver, by all means let us do it. But our correspondent does not suppose that silver would rise one penny per ounce because all the newspapers praised silver as currency, or that anybody fit to conduct business would use one cent more of it in his business, in order to give the Bland Bill a fair trial. We must all rid our heads of the notion that this matter is any longer within the reach of sentiment of any kind, or that the men who are now fixing the price of bullion are moved by dithyrambs about the "fathers' dollar" or Abraham's shekels. They dispose of whole yards of Cincinnati and Chicago rhetoric by a few figures on a broker's little pad.—Ed. Nation.]

Notes.

A VERY competent artist, Mr. S. A. Schoff, of Newtonville, Mass., proposes to make a line engraving from the crayon portrait of Emerson by Rowse. This portrait is not only one of Rowse's best works, but by far the finest of Mr. Emerson, and one of which the poet Clough wrote in 1859: "It is really, I think, without any question, the best portrait of any living and known-to-me man that I have ever seen." There will be five hundred artist proofs, and no more, at ten dollars each, and the work will be begun as soon as one hundred names are obtained. A year will be required for its completion. Subscriptions may be sent to Doll & Richards, 2 Park Street, Boston.——Prof. W. S. Tyler's article in the March *New Englander* on "The Teaching of Christ respecting the Duration of Future Punishment" is to be republished by A. D. F. Randolph & Co.——The Religious Newspaper Agency, 21 Barclay Street, will shortly issue 'The Complete Preacher,' a volume of thirty-two sermons by German, English, French, and American preachers of note.——Sheldon & Co. have in press a story of army life in America by Custer's biographer, Capt. Frederick Whittaker.——R. Worthington, 750 Broadway, has bought out the stock, plates, etc., of Lovell, Adam, Wesson & Co., Lovell Printing and Publishing Co., and Warwick & Co., and henceforth adds their publications to his lists.——Mr. Lawrence Buckley Thomas, 54 McCulloh Street, Baltimore, author of 'Genealogical Notes on the Thomas Family of Maryland,' has abandoned his intention of printing an elaborate supplement to this work, and adopts the novel plan of issuing a supplement of corrections and additions, with autographic fac-similes, by the papyrograph process. One hundred copies need to be subscribed for, at $1 10 each, postage included.——We have to record the untimely death last week of Prof. Charles Frederick Hartt, of Cornell University, in charge of the Brazilian Geological Survey. He was a native of Fredericton, N. B., where he was born in 1840; but his geological tastes were first exhibited in Nova Scotia. He became in 1862–65 a student under Agassiz, and accompanied him in his expedition to Brazil as first assistant-geologist. This determined his future connection with the Empire. His subsequent observations in the Amazon valley led him to differ from Agassiz as to the evidence of glacial action in that region. Prof. Hartt was also an ardent student of the Indian languages, and made a folk-lore collection of no little value. His work on the 'Geology and Physical Geography of Brazil' appeared in 1870. He died at Rio of yellow fever.——A chronological list of the books illustrated by Cruikshank is given in the London *Bookseller* of March 2. Descriptive notes of much interest are added in each case. In 1859 Cruikshank designed a frontispiece to Hotten's edition of the 'Biglow Papers'; in 1853 he illustrated 'Uncle Tom's Cabin' for English, French, and Welsh editions, of which the last is said to have a large sale still.——The November-December number of the *Library Journal*, belated for good reasons, contains the papers read at the English Library Conference. The proceedings will follow in the next number. Most striking among these papers is Mr. Henry Stevens's irreproachable plan of photo-bibliography, illustrated by

fac-similes of several curious title-pages. This idea deserves to bear fruit.——We correctly stated last week Governor Prescott's majority in New Hampshire, but, in comparing the total vote of 1877 and 1873, mistook some partial returns for complete ones, and so reported a falling off of sixteen thousand. In fact, it was less than a hundred.

—The second of the new series of Harvard College Library bulletins is even better than the first. Dr. Lodge concludes his note on American history. Mr. Winsor makes one on Puritans and Separatists, which will serve as a preface to Dr. Lodge's. Prof. Dunbar contributes a bibliographical sketch, of present interest, on gold and silver. Dr. Abbot comments on Martini's 'Pugio fidei adversus Judæos,' and the 'Hierobotanicon' of Olof Celsius, and pours forth a wealth of references apropos of Canon Farrar's 'Eternal Hope.' The longest note, however, is Dr. Emerton's "Authorities for the History of the Empire and the Papacy, 1056–1122," to which he has added a short but good list of books which would be of service to beginners in German. The last two articles, "Rarities of the Sumner Collection" (A–Autographs) and list of the principal books relating to the life and works of Michelangelo, with long and valuable and interesting notes by Mr. Norton, will be continued in future numbers—many future numbers we hope—and when finished will be issued separately in a small edition. We have also before us the Catalogue of the Public Library of the City of Taunton, Mass., a collection of 1,200 numbers made in the past dozen years, and so exclusively English that we have in a cursory examination found but three works in as many modern foreign languages; and though it contains a 'Dictionary of the Chinook Jargon,' it has neither a French, a German, a Spanish, nor an Italian dictionary. The catalogue is further distinguished by being printed on Manila paper, after the latest library economy, and the effect on the eye is not unpleasant. As a substitute for cross-references there is a classified index in addition to the authors' catalogue.

—One must be fastidious who cannot find something to interest him in the April *Atlantic*. In Mr. Bishop's "Detmold" the foreshadowed and foreseen comes duly to pass, leaving the next instalment to be awaited with rather more than the usual impatience. Mr. James's "Italy Revisited" falls a little short of its purpose to impress the reader with the modernization and materialization of Italy: at least the "Tuscan shrines fed with the Pennsylvanian fluid" (is Mr. James sure that the petroleum was not produced on the peninsula?), the Roman horse-cars, and a picturesque Communist, seem but superficial marks of a change which is really profound. But the descriptive portions of this paper, which show us Turin, Genoa, Spezia, Lerici, are in Mr. James's proper manner, and that is to say enough both by way of explanation and of praise. The copious extracts from Thoreau's journal, for the same month in many years, called "April Days," have a prime value as the field-notes of a naturalist in the latitude of Concord; their poetic value is secondary, but still not insignificant; and their philosophy we shall presume to rate third, though we make our only quotation from it:

"April 4, 1839. The atmosphere of morning gives a healthy hue to our prospects. Disease is a sluggard that overtakes, never encounters us. We have the start each day, and may fairly distance him before the dew is off; but if we recline in the bowers of noon, he will, after all, come up with us. The morning dew breeds no cold. We enjoy a diurnal reprieve in the beginning of each day's creation. In the morning we do not believe in expediency; we will start afresh, and have no patching, no temporary fixtures. In the afternoon man has an interest in the past; his eye is divided, and he sees indifferently well either way."

"Lincoln's Triumph in 1864" is the late Gideon Welles's title to a fresh discourse on the meanness and self-seeking of Chase, the readiness of Grant to appropriate the credit belonging to others (as in the case of the capture of Wilmington—"an Administration rather than a military measure"), and the resignation of Postmaster-General Blair at Lincoln's request, in accounting for which Mr. Stanton's previous character for integrity is assailed. One can imagine a ghostly session of Mr. Lincoln's cabinet, in which Mr. Welles would sigh for the refuge of a monitor. We can barely allude to Mr. Sedgwick's "The Lobby: its Cause and Cure." Its main points are that the lobby is a necessity, that it is now an irresponsible bar, that the occasion for it should be diminished by removing "claims" from Congress to the courts, and that its procedure before committees should be regulated by law.

—Of *Harper's* and *Lippincott's* for April it is to be said that they are both good numbers, without having any very salient articles. In *Harper's* Mr. Barnard leads off with an article on "The American Clyde," which contrasts graphically and instructively the Scottish iron-ship industry with its rival on the Delaware; and with the aid of numerous illustrations succeeds in giving a fair idea of the construction of a great steamship. Another paper on naval architecture, by Mr. W. L. Alden, touches the other end of the scale, for it treats of "The Perfect Canoe," meaning the pleasure-craft invented and made famous by Mr. John MacGregor. Mr. Alden humorously sets forth the merits and defects of the *Rob Roy*, *Nautilus*, and *Herald* varieties, and concludes by introducing a new model, first to take the water this season, and styled the *Shadow*, which he confidently ranks above them all. Views and diagrams make his descriptions clear, and he must be considered a benefactor if he succeeds in making two canoes paddle where one paddled before; for a more independent and healthful mode of recreation and travel has yet to be devised. One may read about Siena in *Harper's*, with the help of excellent designs after photographs, or about the Italian lakes, as Mr. R. A. McLeod describes them in *Lippincott's*, assisted by fewer and inferior cuts. In the latter magazine are also to be found "Recollections of Edward L. Davenport," by Mr. H. P. Goddard, who eulogizes the man as much as the actor, and an essay on "Home Harmonies," by Mr. Austen Pearce, who writes sensibly, as we conceive, if somewhat above the popular comprehension, on the cultivation of parlor music, with special regard to the combination of stringed instruments with the piano.

—The first part of Grove's 'Dictionary of Music and Musicians' has made its appearance (New York: Macmillan & Co.), bringing down the subject from A to Ballad. In 1764 J. J. Rousseau published his 'Dictionnaire de Musique,' which for many years remained the standard work of reference on its subject. Nothing could give one a better idea of the immense progress made in the art and science of music since that date than a comparison of these two works. The last hundred years have in fact formed the most important period in all the history of music, and in consequence Rousseau's 'Dictionnaire,' though in some respects still unsurpassed, is yet on the whole thoroughly antiquated, and of more value to the historian and the critic than to the amateur in search of practical information. Of more recent works Dommer's 'Musikalisches Lexicon' has long held the first place for accuracy and completeness, although it has its faults, consisting chiefly in a want of literary perspective, and a diffuse style common in German works of this kind, a tendency to empty metaphysico-æsthetic talk, and the omission of all biographical notices. The exhaustive 'Biographie Universelle des Musiciens,' by M. Fétis, on the other hand, is incomplete as a work of reference because limited to biographical notices. In the English language the only general musical dictionary we are acquainted with is Moore's 'Encyclopædia of Music,' a poor, uncritical American compilation, which can have been tolerated so long only because nothing better was in the field. About two years ago a Berlin publisher began to issue the parts of Mendel's very comprehensive 'Musikalisches Conversations-Lexicon,' and this admirable work may have suggested to Mr. Grove the idea of issuing a similar dictionary in English, with the aim of giving information on "musical history and biography, on the science and practice of composition, and the nature, construction, and use of musical instruments, explanations of musical terms, and general information on modern music since the fifteenth century." *Abbreviations, Académie de Musique, Accompaniment, Æolian Harp, Aloni, Adagio, Amati, American Organ, Anthem, Auber, Bach, Bachelor* (of music), are a few of the subjects, chosen at random, that will illustrate the scope and variety of this work, which, if the excellence of the first number is sustained throughout, may be safely placed on the same shelf with the new edition of the 'Encyclopædia Britannica.' And we have no doubt that such will be the case, as Mr. Grove has secured the services of the most eminent English, and some foreign, musicians, the list of contributors including such names as Benedict, Dannreuther, F. Hiller, F. Hueffer, John Hullah, Pauer, Prout, Sullivan, etc.; and there seems to be such a division of labor as will ensure each subject the best treatment.

—We have found this first part so interesting, so well written and free from pedantry, that we have read it through from beginning to end, omitting only the notices of the minor executive musicians, to whom altogether too much space is devoted. Very few people nowadays care to know much about the lives of trumpeters and flute-players of former times, and the few that do may go to Fétis for information. By omitting these notices more space might be reserved for the eminent composers. The article on *Bach* is good as far as it goes, but it scarcely points out with sufficient clearness and detail wherein consists that immense influence of his which induced Schumann to assert that to him "music owes almost as great a debt as a religion owes to its founder." Nor are the proportions of space always observed. *Arne* gets three, *Auber* three,

Bagpipe four, and *Bach* only nine columns! There are also some serious omissions. *Acoustics* is passed over, although that word would have been the proper place for giving an account of the important investigations of Helmholtz; and *Æsthetics* should have been introduced, if only for the purpose of giving a list of works on the musical branch of that science. We also miss the familiar name of Adam de la Hale. It is true, the Dictionary only pretends to go back to 1450, but St. Ambrose (600 A.D.) is introduced in his place, and if we are to miss the names of Gregory, Hucbaldus, Franco von Cöln, Marchettus, and others, just because they lived before that date, the Dictionary will lose much in value. The prominent names before Dufay could all be disposed of in half-a-dozen columns, and it would be better, as we have suggested, to leave out instead some of the minor musicians of more recent times. We must finally protest against the use, in a standard book like this, of the barbarous, old-fashioned habit of calling notes crotchets, quavers, semiquavers, etc. Why not say quarter-notes, eighth-notes, etc., which is much more simple and intelligible, and does not lead to such monstrosities of nomenclature as demi-demisemiquaver? In mediæval times there used to be a clef for almost every note of the scale. We have now happily reduced them to three or four, and the aim of all rational musicians ought to be to simplify musical notation and language in all respects as much as possible. The second part of the Dictionary is to appear April 1.

—Three pamphlets on tree-planting may here receive a seasonable notice. The first, reprinted from the Twenty-fifth Report of the Massachusetts Board of Agriculture, is by C. S. Sargent, Director of the Arnold Arboretum of Harvard University, and is supplementary to a former paper on the subject, to which we once called attention. In designating the trees from which planters on the barren soil and under the severe climate of New England must make their selection for profitable sylviculture, the white ash and the European larch were put foremost, and next to these hickories, sugar maple, and white oak. The trees now recommended as worthy of trial, on economical considerations alone, are the red or Norway pine, wild black cherry, American cork elm, and ailanthus. The cherry, to be of any account, would need a deep soil, such as could seldom be spared for it in New England, and Mr. Sargent does not omit to mention the great fondness of the tent caterpillar for its foliage. We may venture to predict that where these trees are plentifully planted apples will be scarce. As to the ailanthus, although in ill odor as an ornamental tree in streets and near dwellings, its growth even in poorest soils is so rapid, and its wood is so valuable for cabinet-work, that it may well be recommended for sylviculture, especially upon sand-dunes. The result of a fifty-seven years' trial in converting worn-out pasture into forest is given in detail at the close of the article. It has yielded within a small fraction of seven per cent. per annum, with the prospect of continuance, as the land is still well covered.

—'Economic Tree-Planting,' by the Hon. B. G. Northrop, from the Report of the Connecticut State Board of Agriculture, 1877-8, is a more general dissertation on the subject—its advantages, methods, influence upon rainfall and summer state of streams, choice of trees to plant, etc. Its best practical point is that which beseeches the New York, New Haven & Hartford Railroad to plant out "the sand-blow" between North Haven and Wallingford, now a literal eye-sore to travellers and an injury to much otherwise valuable land, but which has actually been caused by the destruction of a natural forest between it and the sea. Some accompanying pages on the weeping willow and its planting show that Mr. Northrop is not well up in the history of the tree; for he re-asserts that "there can be little doubt that the trees on which the captives of Israel hung their harps belonged to the species named *Salix Babylonica*," although "it is said now to be commoner in almost every country than in its native habitat near Babylon." Doubtless this is so; for the best of dendrologists, Karl Koch (as the *Nation* has already recorded), has already shown that the weeping willow is indigenous only in Japan or China, and never inhabited the valley of the Euphrates, at least in the days of the Captivity. It was a native poplar, doubtless, which the translators have made into a willow; and the legend that the willow grew with drooping branches after bearing the harps of the weeping Jews was fitted to this weeping Japanese variety, and Linnæus was misled by it. We mention, finally, 'Facts and Information in relation to the Catalpa-Tree, its Value and Importance,' etc.—the long title of a pamphlet by E. E. Barney, of Dayton, Ohio. The capital fact is that fence-posts, set two feet in the ground seventy-five years ago, on being taken up were found to be perfectly sound; that President Harrison's picket-fence of catalpa wood was in good order after forty years' service, and the portions under ground perfectly sound; all which is very wonderful for a fast-growing wood. Hence it is alleged that catalpa wood will be invaluable for railroad ties, and must be largely produced and used for this purpose in the Western States. Certainly it will be if these statements are borne out.

KITCHIN'S HISTORY OF FRANCE.*

"TWO or three thousand years hence, when civilization has passed on its western course, and when Europe is in the state in which we now see Asia Minor and Syria and Egypt, only two of her children will be remembered: one a sober, well-disposed good boy, the other a riotous, unmanageable spoilt child; and I am not sure that posterity will not like the naughty boy the best."

These words of Thiers afford the best text from which an Anglo-Saxon writer can criticise the history of France. Of the solid and rather uninteresting merits of the good boy, it is unnecessary to say much on either side the Atlantic. The constitutions he has made, the laws he has passed, the lands he has conquered, and the wealth he has acquired, are the ample reward and the overpowering evidence of his good sense and general good conduct. Of the faults of the spoilt child neither Englishmen nor Americans need at the present moment say anything. His follies and errors are visible to every man of common sense. They have brought their due punishment and are certain to receive more than their due blame. Our readers would not thank us for a superfluous homily on the political mistakes of the French nation. What is worth doing is to endeavor to see what are really the strong points in the character and career of Europe's bad boy. That any one bred up in the traditions of English history can ever fully sympathize with the real merits of a nation who have proved themselves weak where men of English race excel, and strong exactly where Englishmen are weak, is impossible; but a candid judge who wishes to see the truth may, even from the dry pages of Mr. Kitchin, catch some of those salient features in the history of France which, in the view of M. Thiers, would certainly gain for her the interest and, perhaps, the affection of posterity.

France, it may be urged in the first place, has never failed to display what is after all the greatest of all qualities both in men and in nations—superabundant vitality. The politician who, when asked at the end of the Reign of Terror what he had been doing, answered "J'ai vécu," said indirectly a good deal for his own force of character. To live when others fail in the struggle with death, is in some cases no mean achievement either for men or for nations. *J'ai vécu* might be the motto affixed to a history of France. Again and again the country has seemed at the last gasp, and again and again France has astonished the world by new life. The Hundred Years' War with England was the darkest of all the dark periods of French history, yet the Hundred Years' War laid the foundation for the greatness of the Monarchy. This struggle closed in the middle of the fifteenth century. Before the sixteenth had begun France had appeared in Italy as the greatest military power of the age. The political and religious contests of the Reformation tried the strength of France more severely than that of any other land except Germany. At the death of Henry III. a calm observer might well have believed that the total ruin of the country was at hand, yet under Henry IV. the country stood forth as the arbiter between the Powers of Europe. The contests of the Fronde wasted for a time, but certainly did not permanently damage, the force of the nation, and the brilliant grandeur of the court of Louis XIV. proved how great were the resources of the people who made him their idol. The policy, no doubt, of Louis led to immediate misery and future revolution; still, neither the fatal glories of Louis XIV. nor the equally fatal failures of his successor really ruined the country. The Revolution remains engraved on the memory of the world as a period of horror and bloodshed; but keen observers like Arthur Young perceived at once, what modern historians have gradually learnt, that the Revolution set free the latent forces of the country, and that France, even amidst confusion and civil war, was renewing her strength. The triumphs of Napoleon, though a curse to the world, were not achieved by the sons of a ruined or decrepit nation.

Nor is extraordinary vitality the characteristic only of the material side of the history of France. An exactly similar phenomenon may be traced in her literary annals. It was under Louis XV. that Voltaire made her the intellectual guide of Europe. If, however, we confine our attention to the material strength of France, it is impossible not to conclude that this extraordinary power of revival must itself depend on something strong in the foundations of French social life. A study of authors

* 'A History of France. By G. W. Kitchin, M.A.' Vol. II., 1453-1624; Vol. III., 1624-1793. New York: Macmillan & Co.

who, like Arthur Young in the last century or Mr. Hamerton in modern times, have known French life as it is seen not in Paris but in the country, suggests the conclusion that it is just in that portion of society which tourists never see and sensational novelists rarely describe that the secret of French strength is to be found. While revolutions displace dynasties and change forms of government at Paris, there is something in France which remains unchanged and almost unalterable. This something is the life of the small proprietors who inhabit the country, and the centre of their life is placed in the close bond of family union; for while the conventional notion of a Frenchman derived from novels is that he is a man given up to dissipation, and caring little for wife or children, the testimony of all persons whose evidence is worth noting, and certain features in French institutions, testify to the fact that family life has a strength in France which it has not either in England or America. Englishmen talk of their home and its sweetness, but their greatness as a nation has arisen from their readiness to leave their country for any land which attracts them by its riches. The so-called volatile and restless Frenchmen have never been able as a race to leave their homes in France. Englishmen and Americans, no doubt, make good husbands and fathers of families, but Englishmen and Americans have never felt it impossible to tolerate divorce. The wildest French Republicans would hesitate to introduce into France the divorce law of England or of Massachusetts. We all, again, are supposed at least to love our relations, but no member of the Anglo-Saxon race has ever cared to give to a "family council" the powers conceded to it with universal approval by the law of France. If to cling to your home and love your family be a virtue, the bad boy has, like other prodigals, always possessed this virtue in a higher degree than the respectable Anglo-Saxon youth who sings of sweet home and then leaves it for ever to found republics in the West and empires in the East.

France, again, has always admired intellectual eminence. Her trust in literary men has often been politically unfortunate, but bears witness to a noble trait of national character. Voltaire and Rousseau ruled the intellect and heart of France in the last century. Montesquieu's speculations influenced every member of the States-General. That assembly was filled with all the eminence of France. Books, it is true, had, in the opinion of De Tocqueville, ceased to sway the actions of ordinary Frenchmen; but his own career almost confutes his opinion. Printers' workmen, we are told, were interested in the publication of his 'Democracy in America.' Its appearance made its author an eminent writer, and therefore in France opened to him a political career. Universal suffrage is supposed to be hostile to the influence of intellectual capacity, but in 1848 the populace of France filled the Assembly with every man whose name added to the fame of the country. The parliaments of the Empire were for the most part deficient in men of distinction, but these assemblies represented the will of the Government, and not the wish of the people; and if the glories of French literature did not add lustre to the Imperial Senate or Chamber of Deputies, the cause lies in the absolute refusal of the men who adorned literature and science to support a government which had destroyed freedom. The Empire fell, and French veneration for talent again made itself felt. Thiers had originally gained notoriety as a journalist and his fame as an historian. During the whole of his long life he did not hold office for any length of time. Nevertheless, this representative of French talent and literary greatness was the man to whom France turned for guidance at the most desperate crisis of her fate. Political accident has made conservatism unusually influential in the constitution of the present Senate, yet the Senate numbered Lanfrey among its members and still contains Victor Hugo and Littré.

This admiration for talent, and especially for literary talent, has undoubtedly at times caused misfortunes to France; but a vulgar admiration for riches and contempt for intellect is a more despicable if politically less dangerous failing than an overestimate of the respect due to talent, and impartial observers may fancy that the political life, both of England and America, would gain something if the electors of London or of New York had some slight desire that their representatives were men whose names contributed to the glory of their country. For once in a generation Westminster fancied it would like to be represented by a man of European reputation. Within four years Westminster repented of this temporary deviation from the paths of good sense, and found in a captain and a successful newspaper-agent representatives far better suited to the taste of the constituency than the best-known economist and logician of his day. Mill's election and rejection were not merely local matters. What happened at Westminster might have happened in any other town within the United Kingdom, and might, with a mere change of names, take place any day either in New York or Boston. Of the feeling which, when pushed to an absurd extreme, led France in the last generation to proclaim Bentham and Priestley citizens of the French Republic, and which, when kept within due limits, ensures that a man like Littré shall not be banished from public life, Anglo-Saxons on either side the Atlantic know nothing. Yet this sentiment of veneration for eminence is one of the noblest a nation can cherish, and prevents the love of equality from degenerating into the meanest jealousy of greatness.

This desire for equality is by friends and foes alike admitted to be the predominant sentiment of the French people, and, as long as it is freed from the base feelings with which it is apt in vulgar democracies to be connected, it is a passion in which Frenchmen may rightly glory. It means at its best a conviction that the qualities common to humanity are of far more importance than the accidental or conventional differences which divide mankind into classes, and it implies an assertion of the principle that men should be estimated in accordance with their essential qualities, and not according to their wealth or rank. That a fanatical faith in this principle enabled France at the end of the last century to shatter the feudal institutions of Europe is patent to all men. That a genuine belief in equality in many respects raises the social relations of modern Frenchmen, will probably be admitted by all who have studied modern France either by direct observation or by reflecting on the observations of others. What is less obvious is, that the power of France to amalgamate into one country provinces occupied by people of different races and history, owes its origin to what may be termed the practice of equality. English writers, such as Mr. Freeman, feel and express indignation at the ease with which inhabitants of, for example, Alsace or Savoy come to consider themselves Frenchmen. It were far better if English historians would, instead of deploring a fact nowise specially deplorable, consider how it has happened that while England after centuries has not been able to form a genuine union with Ireland, and found it a work of infinite difficulty to make one country even with Scotland, France has so dealt with the Germans of Alsace that they still turn their eyes with longing to Paris in spite of all the menaces or bribes of Berlin. The solution of this, as of some other problems suggested by French history, is that the peoples joined to France have at once been treated as French citizens, and that France with all her faults has perceived and acted on the principle that the practice of equality conciliates affection more than the practice of legal justice.

The "naughty boy" is full of vivacity. He loves his home. He admires talent. He practises the social virtues suggested by a sense of human equality. His faults, let it be granted, have proved fatal to success in life, but even his sober-minded rivals may, on reflection, confess that the spoilt child has some attractive features.

The Dutch in the Arctic Seas. By S. R. Van Campen. Vol. I. A Dutch Arctic Expedition and Route. 8vo, 263 pp. and map.—*The Barents Relics.* Described and Explained by J. K. H. J. De Jonghe, etc. Translated, with a preface, by S. R. Van Campen. 8vo, illustrations and map. (London: Trübner & Co. 1877.)—In the first of these volumes will be found no new contributions to knowledge of the polar region, but a discussion of the routes by which a new expedition may reasonably hope to penetrate it, and an earnest appeal to the Dutch nation to resume that place among the promoters of arctic discovery to which the exploits of Barents, Vlaming, and Gilies once entitled them. In his enthusiastic desire that the Dutch should do their part in the work of exploration the author will have the sympathy of every investigator. Yet the absence of any reference to the book of Payer, the results of the English expedition under Nares, or the colonizing projects of Weyprecht and Howgate, as well as the line of argument pursued, show the work to be the product of a state of mind on arctic matters which is not in harmony with the most modern ideas on the subject. Experience and observation of late years, as pointed out by Payer, have all tended to establish the conviction that progress towards the Pole is only practicable along a more or less continuous line of land, or at least not in open ocean. It seems tolerably certain that rifts and patches of open water (Polynia) may occur in any part of the arctic region, and may be brought about even in winter by the agency of currents and winds; but not a particle of evidence exists that an open polar ocean may even be hoped for. Here, however, the open polar sea is treated rather as an accepted fact than as an unverified hypothesis, and in only too many instances arguments which investigation of long-known facts would have shown to be doubtful, and which the latest investigations have exploded entirely, are quoted with the confidence with which one accepts a definition from a dictionary. By the Spitz-

bergen and Novaia Zemlia routes, advocated by the author, we might hope for additions to knowledge, and a favorable season might permit of fresh northward progress to some extent; but it is not to be supposed that, in the anticipations of the practical arctic navigator who may make the attempt, "thermometric gateways" leading to a warm and open polar sea will play any important part. Theories, however plausible, count for very little by the side of repeated experience, which in the author's arguments we find too little referred to. The author pays a warm tribute to Gustave Lambert, and calls deserved attention to his plan of exploration via Behring Strait. This, if it does not offer strong hopes of reaching very high latitudes, at least affords a most promising field for extending our geographical knowledge of the polar region, and has been too much neglected. The volume closes with a convenient table of arctic voyages chronologically arranged; it possesses a good index, and is neatly printed.

The second work above mentioned is a translation by Mr. Van Campen of an official document prepared at the Hague by De Jonghe on the relics discovered at Ice Haven, Novaia Zemlia, and which formed part of the articles left by Barents and Heemskerck on quitting their winter quarters, June 13, 1597. It will be remembered that after the crushing of their vessel by the ice these navigators erected a small house on the shore, where they wintered, losing two of their number by death, and that in the attempt to return around the northern end of the island Barents and two of his companions succumbed to sickness and exposure. Two hundred and seventy-four years after, the Norwegian captain, Carlsen, doubled Cape Mauritius, and subsequently discovered Barents's house, bringing away with him a number of relics, which were finally obtained by the Dutch Government from an English purchaser. A visit by another Norwegian skipper occurred in 1875, but he found little. In 1876 an adventurous English yachtsman, Mr. C. L. W. Gardiner, made a final search, with important results. The relics he obtained were presented by him to the Dutch Government, and form the subject of this brochure. The most important "find" was the remains of a writing by the hand of Barents, which he had "placed in a bandoleer and hanged it up in the chimney . . . that if any man chanced to come thither they might know what we had met with," etc. (De Veer's journal). With infinite pains this precious relic was unfolded and deciphered, and its contents, signed by the two navigators, clearly made out. A fac-simile in photolithography is given. The other articles, beside some undecipherable manuscripts, were the ordinary odds and ends of a ship's forecastle in those days, together with some old books containing quaint Dutch sacred poetry, coins, a flute, six pounds of candles, some quill-pens (still good), and other matters, all in a wonderful state of preservation, considering that the storms of nearly three centuries had passed over them. The hut became a total ruin some time since, and the report closes with a suggestion that a permanent monument to these ancient arctic heroes be placed at the locality by the Government of their fatherland.

Home Interiors. By E. C. Gardner, author of 'Homes, and How to Make Them,' 'Illustrated Homes,' etc. With illustrations. (Boston: Houghton, Osgood & Co. 1877. Pp. 268.)—Mr. Gardner's mission to be a mediator between the architect and those who distrust the profession has been shown, we think, to better advantage in his previous works. We have heretofore found his doctrine sounder in regard to general principles of construction and to broad relations than to details. Into his present subject taste, of course, enters largely, and to get down to the "common-sense" level in discussing matters of taste is attended with no little hazard. For instance, shall there be carpets in a house or not? Mr. Gardner pronounces against them, saying (p. 44): "I know it is not a matter of taste merely, but of common-sense and of eternal fitness," and then fortifies himself "from an artistic point of view," only to return in the next sentence to "the first principles of common-sense." The artistic view is that it is incongruous for "walls of hard-wood and plaster, solid wainscot of oak or maple, pilasters and columns, heavy furniture, piano, book-case, and table, marble mantel, busts, and bronzes," to rest, or appear to rest, "on a soft cushion of spun and woven wool." Art, however, which does not disdain to depict solid-looking gods and goddesses resting on clouds or floating in mid-air, is surely here mistakenly appealed to; while common-sense tells us that we are not shut up to the superficies of visible objects, but that we may be mindful at the same time of substance and substratum also. A wainscot resting on a Wilton carpet need not make us forget the inch-plank and twelve-inch joist underneath the carpet; and we shall be as little concerned for the stability of the house as we are for the safety of a weighty friend who sits down upon a chair enveloped in chintz, or of bronzes and vases standing on a mantel hung all over with lambrequins.

Mr. Gardner earnestly insists on the door being an article of furniture, and not a part of the construction. This comes, apparently, from his conviction that the door is a nuisance, and from his therefore usually conceiving of it as standing open, and so being an obstacle to wall-decoration. The result is that he would have young ladies set to work and decorate the door itself—a justifiable treatment, certainly, but a corollary from a doubtful or false theorem.

There are some good remarks on screens on page 123, but we cannot say that we have been impressed by the praise of the Worcester "prophet" and his works.

Genealogical Notes: Concerning the pedigree of the Thomas Family of Maryland, and of the following connected families: Snowden, Buckley, Lawrence, Chew, Ellicott, Hopkins, Johnson, Rutherford, Fairfax, Schieffelin, Tyson, and others. Illustrated by Views and Coats of Arms. By Lawrence Buckley Thomas. (Baltimore: Lawrence B. Thomas. 1877. 4to, pp. 182.)—Notwithstanding our desire to welcome all attempts to record the history of Southern families, and the plea of the author as to the paucity of material, we cannot find it in our heart to say much in praise of this volume. It is well printed, expensively prepared, but badly arranged and defective in its essential authorities. The main stem is, of course, the Thomas family, descended from Philip Thomas of Maryland, a settler there in 1651, and one of some prominence in his generation. His will mentions two houses which he had in Bristol and lands in this country. The author says that this Philip was in the East India Company's service in 1621, and was the son of Evan Thomas of Swansea, whose pedigree was as follows:

Rice ap Griffith, of an illustrious Welsh family, married a daughter of the Duke of Norfolk, and was beheaded as a rebel in 1532. His oldest son was restored in blood and was the ancestor of the present Lord Dynevor. Thomas, younger son of Rice ap Griffith, is said to have been brought back to Wales, and to have married there, having a son, John Philip Thomas, lessee of mills at Kenchurch, County Monmouth, in 1591. This John Philip Thomas was father of Evan Thomas and grandfather of the emigrant.

We have looked in vain for the proof of this distinguished pedigree, though it may lurk in the mass of matter here collected. Until the evidence is given we can pronounce no judgment on the claim, but one page of proofs would be worth the score of pages devoted to irrelevant matters. The same criticism will apply to many of the other minor genealogies annexed to the main family record. Doubtless some of the affiliations are right, but we have no criterion by which to decide. Thus, we have the Buckley arms, and a pedigree from Phineas B. of Philadelphia, "supposed to be a cadet of the Lancashire family"; the Chew arms and the descendants of John Chew, "said to be a cadet of the family of Chew of Chewton." Then the De Zeng arms and pedigree, probably authentic, are followed by the Ellicott arms of no authority. The Fairfaxes are a part of our history, but the Georges and Gilpins are equally favored with coats of arms, on the authority of Burke only. The Lawrence article but reproduces the mistakes of former genealogists, notwithstanding recent corrections in print.

It would be useless to continue the list. The book gives evidence of industry and contains much information in regard to the families here. The author lacks a knowledge of the best methods of arranging his collections, and he has been over-credulous, or careless in estimating the evidence, in regard to the trans-Atlantic connections of the emigrants. We hope he will attend to both points in future works, so that we may receive the results of his meritorious labors with unalloyed satisfaction.

Old Naumkeag: An Historical Sketch of the City of Salem (Mass.) By C. H. Webber and W. S. Nevins. (Boston: Lee & Shepard. 1877. 12mo, pp. 312.)—This sketch could hardly be welcomed if it either pretended or seemed to be a tolerable substitute for the yet unwritten History of Salem—such a history as the place deserves and as so many far less important towns have secured. The authors, however, expressly disclaim this pretension, and can be unreservedly praised for their diligence in antiquarian research, which has produced an excellent guide-book to Salem and the adjoining towns carved out of her original territory. The illustrations consist of antiquated wood-cuts, most of which could have been replaced with heliotypes from nature, and ought to be now. These would do much to relieve the present cheap aspect of the volume.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Authors.—Titles.	*Publishers.—Prices.*	
Dorchester (Rev. D.), Concessions of Liberalists to Orthodoxy	(D. Lothrop & Co.)	$1 25
Maxwell (Prof. J. C.), Matter and Motion, bds	(J. Van Nostrand)	50
My Int mate Enemy: a Tale	(Claxton, Remsen & Haffelfinger)	1 00
Renan (E.), Mélanges d'Histoire et de Voyages, swd	(F. W. Christern)	
Sharswood (G., Jr.), Table of Cases Overruled, etc., in the Reports of the State of Connecticut	(T. & J. W. Johnson & Co.)	3 00
Strong (L. C.), Poke o' Moonshine: a Poem	(G. P. Putnam's Sons)	1 00
Stor (F.), Books I., II. of the Æneid of Virgil	(Rivingtons)	
Scribner's Monthly, Vol. XV	(Scribner & Co.)	
Wlcek (F.), Piano and Song	(Lockwood, Brooks & Co.)	
Twain (Mark), Punch, Brothers, Punch!	(Slote, Woodman & Co.)	

Fine Arts.

WOOD ENGRAVINGS AS WORKS OF ART.

THERE has been in two of the daily papers a curious discussion as to engravers of wood-cuts, and their position in the world of art, and on the propriety of including wood-cuts in collections of fine art. Mr. John La Farge, a very well-known painter, who has himself made many designs for wood-engraving, wrote to the committee who have in charge the gathering of paintings for Paris, and proposed to them to allow some ten feet square, or even less, of wall-space for American wood-engravings of the present day. This the committee declined to do, alleging, as we understand, want of power; their instructions seem to have been to collect and select oil paintings and water-color drawings. Perhaps this reason was not clearly given to Mr. La Farge. At all events he seems to have had still some hope of prevailing with the committee, when, a few days later, he wrote to some of the morning papers. His letters came out in the *World* and in the *Tribune* on the morning of Saturday, March 16, and contain these words:

"Though the number of artists engaged in it is small, we have attained to a very high standard, for the present day, in the matter of engraving on wood, and on this ground we can compete favorably with European nations, most of whom are decidedly our inferiors. . . . To lift a trade into high art in a country of commerce and manufacture is difficult. It is difficult in any part of the world; to have it happen here is a thing of which we should be proud."

This was as far as Mr. La Farge went. He did not say anything by way of depreciation of American fine art in other departments, but merely pleaded for the admission into the fine-art collection of specimens of the best American wood-cuts. The *World*, however, went a little farther, and, in an editorial of the same date, bewailed the "pitiable and vulgar show" which the United States made in Memorial Hall at Philadelphia, and suggested the adoption of Mr. La Farge's plan as a partial compensation for our backwardness in painting.

And certainly the *World* had reason on its side. The wood-cuts which Mr. La Farge had in mind ought to be included in our Paris fine art show, not only on account of their intrinsic excellence, nor only on account of their excellence relatively to what is being done in the same line in Europe, but because we can hardly hope to hold our own in painting, in sculpture, in etching, or other process of engraving, nor in any of the decorative arts whatever. In this one matter of wood-cut illustration to books, thanks to the genius of Henry Marsh and to the powerful aid he has had from one or two designers and one or two engravers, we can afford to meet rivalry. Does this mean that there is nothing good in American painting? By no means; but the whole body of American work in oil and water-color, taken together, is slight and feeble beside that which England or France has to show. Or does it mean that no good wood-cut illustration exists elsewhere? Not so; but there does exist now in America a little school which produces very original, beautiful, and permanently valuable work in that art—work which no other nation can surpass, so far as we know, at this time.

That same evening, however, the *Evening Post* came to the front in defence of the old theory—what might be called the oil-paint theory—that there is no fine art outside of oil-paintings in frames and marble statues on pedestals. We quote:

"The engraver is little, if not an imitator and a plodder. . . . His business is to copy, not to create; to interpret, not to meddle with the text. In a fine-art exhibition the artist's absence cannot be compensated for by the presence of the engraver, who, so far from filling the chair of the former, is scarcely large enough to rattle about in it."

Thus a fresh question was dragged into the discussion. Mr. La Farge and the *World* had been contented to ask for the exhibition of certain beautiful wood-cuts, and had not raised the question whether their beauty was due to a plodding copyist or an "artist." Mr. La Farge certainly, and the *World* probably, were well aware that the beauty of a wood-cut is due to a certain ability on the part of the designer to adapt his design to the proposed material, and to a certain power on the part of the engraver to interpret aright the artist's thought. Many of our readers have seen, in exhibitions or elsewhere, some drawing by Mr. La Farge himself on the wood block; did it ever occur to them to ask how a fresh-taught pupil of some "School of Design" would render that drawing, and, on the other hand, what Marsh would make of it? Two years ago the "Bishop Hatto" was exhibited at the Academy of Design—a most powerful design, charmingly drawn on the whitened surface of the box-wood. This year a proof from the engraved block was shown. Unluckily the two can never be compared. But let any person look at the proof and try to imagine what a merely mechanical wood-engraver would have made of it. Or examine the beautiful pictures which *Scribner's Monthly* and *St. Nicholas* sometimes give their readers. Space does not suffice us here to mention instances, but those finest engravings are sometimes made from drawings far inferior to them in beauty. It may safely be asserted that the power of fine art shown in Marsh's translation of a sketch on gray paper in black and white into a design of hard black lines which can be printed off on paper at steam-press rate of speed, is as original and peculiar, and almost as important, as that shown in the best of the designs he has given him. It cannot be too often repeated that nobody has proposed a general gathering of wood-cuts from magazines and weekly papers, from advertisements and show-bills, but only the admission of a certain small number in which the original design and the engraver's manipulation have worked together to produce a triumphant result. In some of these indeed the engraver has been the only person employed, as in Marsh's marvellous engravings of insects made with the creature lying beside the block.

On Sunday, the 17th, the *World* answered, not altogether as cogently as might have been expected, but still in an article true, sound, and to the purpose. And to this, again, answered the *Evening Post*, on Monday, in a short article of a character simply astounding, considering what the controversy was about. It was a sad attempt at ridicule, with nothing salient enough to quote, nothing more positive than an expression of amazement that the *World* "thinks this country to be behind every other civilized country in the matter of the fine arts, and that our pictures at Philadelphia were 'pitiable and vulgar.'" The *World's* answer to all this was jocose, and chiefly confined to advising somebody to take out to Europe a consignment of American paintings (probably of the *Post's* picking out) with a view of ascertaining the position of America in the world of art. We are not aware that the newspaper discussion went further. But on Thursday Mr. George Inness came out in the columns of the *Post* as a defender and farther expounder of the oil-paint theory. Mr. Inness's view of the case is, briefly, that the production of an engraving does not require the same artistic power as that required for a painting; and, although this looks like a truism, the reasons given are worth citing. The painter does original work; the power of producing rapidly is greater in painting than in engraving, and, therefore, no one would confine himself to engraving if he could paint "equally well"; the painter needs greater resources than the engraver, because he works direct from nature, while the engraver only "produces an imitation, and not a translation, excepting so far as a reproduction in color is a translation" (a statement which seems to us exactly the reverse of truth, in every way); and finally, the painter uses color, "the most difficult thing in the world."

Well, it has never been pretended, to our knowledge, by the lovers of wood-cuts that fine art in black and white is equal in dignity to the art of the colorist. What was thought of that matter in the time of David and "Ingres élève de David" (as reads the signature on a drawing now exhibiting in New York), we do not stop to enquire; but in our day it is generally admitted that no other human art can claim quite equal dignity with the art of the colorist. Yet, as Mr. Inness enquires, "Where are our colorists?" Let the one or two bits of color we have to show go to Paris; who objects? But Mr. Inness must know they will amount to but little, in the world-wide gathering at Paris, even if he agrees with us in thinking that color is not now the strong point of the Continental schools of painting. And if we fail to excel in art of the first rank—say painting for color chiefly, if Mr. Inness likes, and in art of many kinds only just inferior to that—why is it not very important for us to make the best show we can in that one still humbler art in which we do happen to excel? The question is not what fine art is the noblest; all fine arts are noble. The question is not whether all wood-cut engravers are artists; notoriously they are not. Mr. Inness's last sentence is a good text for all our essay: "The presence of the creative power is always acknowledged to be the quality essential to great art." Then let us send to Paris no woodcut in which that presence is not manifest. We will not make so strict a law for the paintings.

The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, APRIL 4, 1878.

The Week.

SECRETARY SHERMAN has had another talk—this time with the House Committee on Banking and Currency. We presume by way of defence of his proposal to allow customs duties to be paid in greenbacks, he showed that the requirements of the Sinking-Fund Act had been more than complied with to the extent of $200,000,000; but then the Act did not say that if more of the debt than it calls for has been paid, the provision it makes for the payment of the whole debt may thereafter be disregarded. In reply to Mr. Chittenden the Secretary was more explicit than in his interview with the Senate about the effect of the Silver Bill on his stock of gold. What he now says is that he thinks that as long as not more than $50,000,000 to $100,000,000 silver dollars are issued, they can be maintained at par with gold; but that when they become so abundant and burdensome that people will not take them, they will sink to their bullion value; but that this cannot happen very rapidly, and long before it does happen Congress can repeal the present law; that he has not changed his mind about it, but thinks it must be tried, and if it does not work Congress can change it. This argument would, however, justify the issue of "fiat money," just as an experiment, because, being a savage people just out of the woods, we cannot be supposed to be familiar with the recorded experience of other nations and ages. The Secretary also showed that the banks, in the event of resumption, would be bound to take care of their own bills, and that if they attempted to thwart the policy of the Government the Government would do something dreadful to them, the nature of which he did not explain. He wound up by declaring that resumption was easy, as the Government would only have to take care of $300,000,000 greenbacks, but he virtually admitted that on their reissue they would not be legal tender. At this point Mr. Ewing appeared on the scene with a question worthy of the Sycamore of the Wabash—viz., What the Secretary would do if $50,000,000 greenbacks were presented all at once for resumption? Which ought to have been answered, as it would have been if put by a little boy, by a request that he should not be troublesome but go and play in the garden.

It has been an eventful week in the financial markets. In London, owing to the course of events affecting England's warlike attitude, the market for securities was very much shaken, and at one time something like a panic prevailed. British consols fell from 95⅛ to 94⅝, and then ruled between the latter price and 94¾, with very frequent changes. Russian securities fell heavily, and were feverish at the close. On Thursday, the Bank of England advanced its discount rate to 3 per cent., and the rate outside advanced to 2⅝ to 2¾. The effect in New York was to advance the rate for demand bills on London to 4.89½ to 4.90. The specie-shipping point is 4.89¼. Accordingly gold exports began, and these, by the steamers of Thursday and Saturday, amounted to $1,750,000. Sixty-day bills were depressed by the expectation that the discount rate in London would be still further advanced. Gold advanced to 101¼, but closed at 101⅛, the stock being so large that it is, as the brokers say, very heavy to carry. Moreover, the public-debt statement showed that the Treasury would be obliged to sell gold to replenish its currency balance, which is reduced to less than $1,000,000. United States bonds, with all the fluctuations in London, steadily ruled enough below the New York market to make shipments this way profitable. Silver in London advanced to 54⅛*d.* per oz. on purchases for the account of the United States Treasury. The moment these ceased the market became heavy, and the price closed at 54¼*d.* The gold value of the silver dollar at the close of the week was $0.9261; the gold value of the paper dollar was $0.9883.

The appointment of Mr. Glenni Scofield to the Registrarship of the Treasury has been unanimously confirmed by the Senate, and is generally approved of, although his connection with the Crédit Mobilier when in Congress did not appear by the evidence taken at that period to have been all that could be desired. He is from Pennsylvania, and the Senators and Representatives from that State do not appear to have objected to him. However, two of the Pennsylvania Representatives, Messrs. White and Thompson, wanted the place for some one else, and called to see the President and Mr. Sherman about it, neither of whom mentioned at the interview that it had been already offered to Mr. Scofield, and when they called again they learned that he had accepted. According to one account, they thereupon whirled their canes and swore and flounced out of the room, and became bitter enemies of the Administration. According to another, they received the announcement with Christian fortitude and politeness, and, after some amicable conversation with the Secretary, left him with expressions of interest in his health. The affair has produced cards and counter-cards, and has led some to the conclusion that President Hayes ought to resign or pay more attention to the "mechanism of government," and that "the end is not yet," which may or may not be true.

Fifteen years ago, a Japanese daimio, who was in open revolt against the Tycoon, fired on an American ship and made assaults also on other foreign vessels, until he was brought to reason by his own Government aided by foreign Powers. It was a case in which, considering all the circumstances, it was ungenerous to exact from the Japanese any compensation beyond actual damage done. Nevertheless our Government did join other Powers in claiming an indemnity, amounting in all to $3,000,000, of which our share was $750,000, an enormous and, as the result has shown, unjustifiable sum for an attack on a single merchant vessel. This money has been paid in instalments, and all the recognizable claims arising under it have been settled, leaving a balance with interest of nearly $1,500,000, which has been lying in the Treasury for some years. The return of the amount to the Japanese Government has been recommended by the Committee on Foreign Affairs, or rather a subcommittee, as but fair and honest. This is a very extraordinary recommendation. The money was paid to the United States as a nation; if the damage done to individuals for whom we demanded it was not half or quarter what we said or thought it was (the constructive damages for the *Pembroke* amounted to $10,000), so much the better for us. The times are hard, and a million and a half of money is a big sum. Therefore we say keep every cent of it, and let it go to lighten the expenses of a sorely burdened people. The Japanese may grumble, but they cannot help themselves; and if they do not like the transaction they can go with some of the Alabama claimants, in accordance with President Seelye's recommendation, before the "August Tribunal of History," and howl until they are tired.

There is an addendum to the Fisheries affair. An article of recent date has been discovered in the London *Times* expressing the belief of the writer that the decision, to be binding, would have to be unanimous, which Mr. Blaine produced in the Senate with much satisfaction. But, then, more diplomatic correspondence has also been produced, showing that after the dispute and failure to agree on an umpire within the stipulated three months, in 1873, the matter was allowed to lie dormant until 1877, when Mr. Fish, wishing to finish it before going out of office, informed Sir Edward Thornton that he was willing to take M. Delfosse, and thereupon Count Beust was requested by both parties to appoint him, from this side of the water; whereas, according to Mr. Blaine, who is very penetrating, the choice fell into Count Beust's hands without note or comment, and he, being secretly corrupted by Lord Granville, eagerly appointed Delfosse. Poor M. Delfosse really accepted, it appears, on Mr. Fish's urgent solicitation, and did not foresee the

trouble into which he was getting himself. Some of the Blaine publicists maintain, in reply to Dr. Woolsey, that the British must in this matter be guided by their own common-lawyers, whom Mr. Blaine quoted, and cannot shelter themselves under the authority of the Romans, a dissolute and heathen people, and long since dead. But it is none the less true that the Treaty has turned out very disadvantageous, and that the United States is paying an enormous sum for a privilege which at best will only last five years longer, and that, if the Canadians are wise, they will not accept it, and will negotiate for something permanent and satisfactory to both parties.

Senator Howe's great "effort" having fallen utterly flat in Washington, as well as in the country at large, the week in Congress has been tame enough. The Senate has passed the Consular Appropriations Bill, and the bill for the better advertising of mail-contracts. The House defeated, for the moment, on Monday what we may call a pension-grab bill or a back-pay pension bill, called up by Mr. Cummings, of Iowa, which received a majority vote of 145 to 76, but failed of the two-thirds necessary to make it in order and to pass it on the spot. On Tuesday, it passed a joint resolution authorizing the expenditure of $36,000 to strengthen the foundations of the Washington monument. The chief event, however, in this branch was the seating of a Democratic contestant, Dean, in place of Representative Field, of Massachusetts. It is quite within the province of the House, in determining the qualifications of its own members, to override the electoral regulations of the States, and it did this in the case of Mr. Field, whose title was so clear that nine independent Democrats voted with 114 Republicans to sustain it, and would have succeeded but for Mr. Randall's eager interference as a partisan. Gen. Butler was a good enough Democrat for this occasion to lead the 124 who voted for Dean. There are few Republican precedents for his course, but only too many for that of his allies.

The Boston *Herald* has given an analysis of the vote in the House on Mr. Wood's resolution for making his Tariff Bill a special order for to-day. Allowing for pairs and absences, it makes the vote (which on the division stood 137 to 114) in a full House 159 to 132, showing a majority for the measure of 27. In twenty-eight States the division followed party lines exactly. For instance, in the six New England States, among the yeas we find no Republicans and five Democrats; among the nays, no Democrats and twenty-one Republicans. In the thirteen Southern States, among the yeas there are four Republicans and seventy-one Democrats; while among the nays there are three Republicans and no Democrats. The same is true generally in the other divisions of the country. Altogether the vote shows that the tariff question is to be treated by the House as political, which, of course, gives Mr. Wood's bill a better chance of passing in that body; but this cannot be said of its chances in the Senate. The bill, notwithstanding the hostile criticism to which it has been subjected, ought, from its character, to recommend itself to moderate men of both parties. We have discussed elsewhere its latest modifications.

The last report of the South Carolina Fraud Committee relates to the attempted impeachment of Governor Scott in the Legislature in 1871. Investigations which had been made into the issue of the State bonds had revealed some ugly facts, and shown clearly that the "Financial Board," composed of Scott, Parker, and Chamberlain, had been, to say the least, engaged in some very questionable transactions, and it was determined to impeach the Governor and Treasurer. Accordingly, resolutions were introduced into the House of Representatives for this purpose. This, the committee says, "was Patterson's opportunity." His method of operations appears to have been to work upon Scott's fears, and at the same time to encourage the movers of the impeachment. He played his cards so well that Scott became thoroughly frightened, and put himself in Patterson's hands. To make sure of sufficient votes to kill the impeachment, it was now determined to issue a number of blank warrants to be filled up with the requisite amount, whatever it might prove to be. In 1869 a joint resolution had, it seems, been passed, authorizing the Governor to employ an armed force for the preservation of the peace, to be paid out of funds in the treasury not otherwise appropriated. From this fund the warrants were drawn, three in number, and amounting altogether to $49,645, payable to fictitious persons, but collected undoubtedly by Patterson or his friends.

In the course of these proceedings it became evident that if an adjournment over the Christmas holidays could be effected, and the members allowed to go home and learn their constituents' feelings, the impeachment would probably succeed, as the popular sentiment was all one way; at any rate the expense of buying off the members would be greatly increased, and economy was a thing to be considered. It was, therefore, important to bring the matter to a vote at once. This was difficult, inasmuch as Whipper, who was a reformer at this time, had the floor and intended to speak till the hour of adjournment. There was no way out of this dilemma but to purchase a ruling of the Speaker which would dispose of Whipper, and for this purpose the "Militia Fund" was resorted to. Moses, the Speaker, was paid a large sum of money, and one Lee at the proper moment rose to a "question of privilege," on which the Speaker ruled Whipper out of the way at once. To make legislative action still surer, Scott issued a proclamation convening the Assembly on the day following the day fixed for adjournment, on the ground that it was not decent or proper for the Legislature to be having a holiday while the Governor and Treasurer were lying under charges of "high crimes and misdemeanors." Under all this pressure a vote was taken; the impeachment was defeated by 73 to 27, the Governor withdrew his proclamation, and the Legislature went home; those who had been bribed, to pass a Merry Christmas with their families on the proceeds of the "Armed-Force" and "Militia-Fund" warrants, and those who had been virtuous and defended the interests of the State, to find no money in the treasury to pay their honest certificates. All this creates a good deal of excitement in South Carolina, but from the Senate's toleration of Patterson it may be inferred that that body does not consider the matter of any importance. It appears probable from a recent speech of Hampton's that a requisition would be issued for Chamberlain, but that doubts are felt as to the certainty of a conviction on the evidence now in the hands of the State.

The trial of Insurance Superintendent Smyth by the Senate of this State was concluded on Wednesday week by a vote of acquittal, 19 to 12, the majority being mainly Republicans, who were effectively reinforced by the members known as "Tammany Senators." With the majority, too, voted Senator Harris, one of the witnesses on the trial, who testified that he had professionally advised Mr. Smyth of the unconstitutionality of the Act of 1873, which he was about to violate. Senator Pomeroy, whose argument is said to have carried most weight, took the ground that the Act of 1873 was inoperative because no appropriation had ever been made to meet it, and that the only way to provide for investigation of the companies was to fall back on the law of 1853. It seems a little singular that Mr. Smyth's effort was directed, on taking office, not to securing the necessary appropriation, but to repealing the Act of 1873, which he had accomplished but for the Governor's veto. Still, conceding his right to elect which law he would violate or which use for his own convenience, it has appeared only too plainly from the trial that the real issue was not before the Senate. Mr. Smyth may have deserved a technical acquittal, but have the public reason to believe from the evidence that it will be protected by him against fraudulent, extravagant, or rotten companies? It is clear that, if he is to go on with his examinations as heretofore, the companies may expect to be charged with the costs at his pleasure, whether for his own benefit or for that of country lawyers and politicians, and may fear that if his bills are not paid without demur they will fail to obtain his certificate of soundness. Their influence, therefore, should have been strongly and unanimously exercised in favor of dismissing an official who con-

tended for this tremendous power over their fortunes; but the reverse was true. The companies which he had fleeced most heavily seemed, on their testimony, most content with his charges and his procedure, and the public is left with the unpleasant inference that they submitted to extortion because they dreaded exposure of their own management, and that unscrupulous superintendents will find in the very evils which they are appointed to ferret out and denounce a powerful guarantee against removal for malfeasance. In short, the trial confirms, even more by acquittal than by conviction, the doubts which have long existed as to the security afforded by State supervision, at least nowadays and in New York.

The political and journalistic consequences of the Smyth trial threaten to be little less than horrible. Some of his enemies on the press have been reminding the public of several irrelevant facts. One of these is, that Mr. Smyth is (or recently was) Chairman of the Republican State Committee; and another, that he is a warm friend and supporter of Senator Conkling. A third is, that Tammany Hall is threatened by various schemes of reform in the Legislature, and is very uncomfortable at the distant rumblings of a new, independent Democratic movement, made up of "Anti-Tammany" and seceded Tilden men, and that large, if not thoughtful, body of citizens who are always restive under Tammany, and would probably vote with great cheerfulness for a ticket with a horse or locomotive engine at the head of it, provided its managers promised that the horse or the locomotive should "strike down the one-man power." Putting two and two together, it ought to be clear enough to all but Kellyites and Custom-house Republicans that the result of the Smyth trial was produced by a "bargain" between the Conkling Republicans and the Tammany Democrats, the former agreeing to be "easy" on the latter in the matter of reform during the present session, and the latter agreeing to vote for the acquittal of Conkling's henchman. A *Times* correspondent at Albany has accused Mr. Hamilton Fish, jr., of the Assembly, of being a party to a bargain of this kind; and Mr. Fish has, in his turn, had the matter referred to a committee for investigation; but the committee appears to have some difficulty in finding the man who sent the despatch, and he will probably find an equal difficulty in proving any bargain. The journalistic bearing of all this has been discovered by the Albany *Express*, which says that the malignity of the *Times* on the subject is due to a circular issued by Mr. Smyth last year as Chairman of the State Committee, recommending the *Tribune* to "many prominent Republicans" throughout the State, and advising them to "do what they could to extend its circulation."

The Municipal Society of this city have attacked a crying abuse in the system of administering estates prevailing in the Surrogate's Court, and have appointed a committee to investigate the matter. Some shocking instances were given at the meeting; one, of an estate left by a leather merchant some years ago, whose executors, according to Mr. Jackson S. Schultz's statement, had never been able to get their accounts through the court, although the matter has been in its hands for fifteen years. In another case, an estate of from $200,000 to $300,000 was left in such a way that no one desired to contest the will; yet by some means the estate was involved in litigation, and is in litigation to-day; every dollar of it has been squandered, allowances of $75,000 have been made to lawyers, and the widow and grandchild of the owner of the estate are paupers. The abuses seem to arise from the power of the Surrogate to make allowances out of estates, and it has now come to such a pass that it is said that people of exceptional shrewdness make provision in anticipation of death for dying somewhere outside of New York, so that the Surrogate may not get hold of their property. The only remedy suggested at the meeting was the obvious one of taking away or restricting this power over allowances, and to this there can be no valid objection. It may not be advisable to take it away altogether, but it is clear that the sums allowed for contest or any other legitimate expenses ought to bear a relation to the whole amount involved which would prevent causeless litigation about estates from being in itself an attractive pursuit, offering a remunerative career to "smart" and unprincipled lawyers.

The most important event of the week abroad has been the resignation of Lord Derby and the appointment of the Marquis of Salisbury as his successor. The ostensible cause of the resignation has been the calling out of the reserves, which, though Lord Derby acknowledged it would not necessarily lead to war, he looked on as an unnecessary provocative of war. The effect of his retirement on the Ministry is not nearly as great as it would have been when offered before, in January, as the anti-Russian mania has grown considerably in strength since that period, and his moderate rôle became more and more untenable. His successor promptly issued a circular, addressed to the European Powers, deploring Russia's refusal to submit the treaty as a whole to the Congress, inasmuch as every material stipulation of it involves some departure from the settlement made by the treaty of 1856 and the declaration signed in London in 1871; objecting to the new Bulgarian principality as likely to be wholly under Russian influence, and as merging a considerable Greek population with the Slavs without their consent; pointing out the utter prostration and dependence in which it leaves Turkey, both by the loss of territory and the imposition of an indemnity so large that she cannot pay it, and which may be kept hanging over her head for years as a means of enforcing her subjection to Russian influence. England, therefore, cannot enter a Congress whose powers would be restricted by Prince Gortchakoff's reservations.

We have no statement of the Austrian position so recent as this, but it probably has not varied very much since Count Andrássy addressed the delegations or committees representing Austria and Hungary on all matters of joint or imperial concern, when asking for the vote of 60,000,000 florins, three weeks ago. It is true he had not at that time seen the official text of the treaty, but he knew its contents with sufficient accuracy to comment on them in general terms. He said all they could ask of Russia after her great victories was that their results should be so limited as not to injure Austrian or European interests; that it would be impossible to ratify the destruction of one-half of Turkey without taking into consideration in what manner the other half was going to exist, or to rejoice over the improvement of the condition of the Christians in one part of the Ottoman Empire without considering what their lot would be in the remainder of it. He added very emphatically that the difficulties of these questions were so great that "collective Europe only would be able to cope with them; that a single Power should attempt the task without the assistance and against the will of the others, seemed to be out of the question"; and he added that any settlement that was made must be a durable one which should not contain explosive materials.

It may be inferred from all this that Austria and England stand on substantially the same platform, and the only question remaining is, as we said last week, whether they will both demand the same concessions, or, in other words, whether Russia may not be able to satisfy Austria in ways that will not satisfy England. About this there is still the same swarm of contradictory reports, but the chances are still that Austria will be disposed to take a more favorable view of the rights of victory and possession than England. The Russian position is the perfectly simple one that, having waged a bloody war, she cannot be asked to sit on terms of perfect equality in settling the results of the war with those who never drew the sword, and there is undoubtedly great reasonableness in this. The preparations of war still continue, but the object of the war has not as yet been defined by England, so that it is impossible to foresee its end should it break out, or say where its theatre will be. Sixty thousand British troops cannot drive the Russians out of Bulgaria, and 500,000 Russians could not damage the British fleet. So that it seems as if the final decision must, after all, rest with Austria.

THE SENATORIAL ATTACK ON THE ADMINISTRATION.

THE disagreeable impression produced by Senator Howe's speech last week has been deepened by the long silence on the Republican side which preceded it. Such attacks on the Administration would have, or might have, a good deal of force, or at all events would not seem discreditable, if they came from men whose activity in good works during the past year had been conspicuous. But when people come to review the first year of the Administration and take account of its shortcomings and omissions, and see half a dozen prominent Republican Senators start up to assist them, and even deliver bitter commentaries on its faults, they do not listen to the orator very long before their minds begin to run on his own career, and before they ask what he himself was doing while the President and the Cabinet were engaged in the various crimes and follies he describes. There has been a vigorous effort made during the past winter to spread the notion that this was an impertinent enquiry; that although it was everybody's right to exact of the executive branch of the Government a daily account of its manner of discharging its constitutional duties, it was nobody's business how the Senators passed *their* time, in what way *they* were showing their interest in the public welfare, what steps *they* had taken to meet the dangers now threatening us—what, in short, *they* had done to make up for the President's shortcomings. This effort, however, has not been successful. The public has not taken the Cincinnati platform as a vain form of words. It has taken it as the pledge of the Republican party to follow out a certain line of policy, and it has never forgotten that the support and pursuit of this policy were as much the duty of the Senate as of the President, each, of course, acting in its own sphere. There never has, for instance, been any general acceptance of the theory that the President alone was to reform the civil service, or the currency, or defend the public credit, or pacify the South; it has all along been held that it was also the duty of the majority in the Senate to do whatever the Constitution allowed it to do for the same objects – a duty having precisely the same origin and the same sanctions. Moreover, it has never been admitted that a Senator, any more than the President, could discharge this duty either by sitting still in his official chair, and smiling or sneering, or "looking dark," or by going to a hotel and swearing. The Senate is not a judicial body, except when it is sitting in cases of impeachment. It has not to wait for its opinions and judgments to be evoked by motions from without, except when nominations are submitted to it. It has full legislative powers, except as regards the origination of appropriation bills. Its responsibility for the condition and working of the Government is, in fact, in many respects greater than that of the President, and any Senator who criticises the President or any of the departments must not come before the public as a mere bystander who has been watching them, and does not like their ways; he must come as their colleague, who has been himself trying, and openly and notoriously trying, to bring about what they have neglected or refused to assist in.

When, therefore, any Senator says that Mr. Hayes's policy at the South has been criminal or mischievous, it is perfectly proper to ask him what he himself has done or advised to be done towards pacifying the South, what speeches he has made or votes he has cast towards ending the great contention by which for fifty years the nation has been rent. And when he says the President has not reformed the civil service and has made bad appointments, it is every citizen's right and duty to ask what *he* has himself been doing towards this reform, what speeches he has made or bills he has introduced to promote it, and one must even go so far as to enquire what he has been saying about it in private at his hotel and in his own house, and whether in denouncing the President's conduct he was angered by his failure to make a complete change of system or by his having attempted any change at all.

It must be confessed that truthful answers to these questions put the Republican Senators in rather a sorry plight. If they have shown any more energy or activity in dealing with the problems of the day, or any greater readiness to use for their solution the weapons put into their hands by the Constitution, the public has failed to perceive it. No more momentous questions have ever presented themselves for legislative solution than have presented themselves during the past year: the provision of a better mode of electing the President, the reorganization and improvement of the civil service, the reform of the currency, the revision of the existing system of taxation, the defence of the public credit against alarming assaults on it, the settlement of the war-torn society of the South in some way which would enable the two races which compose it, not to divide offices equally, but to live side by side in peace and amity and refrain from cutting each other's throats. What contributions to these great objects have come from the Republican side of the Senate? Except two or three speeches from Senator Edmunds we know of nothing. In fact, we think we are not wrong in saying that in no winter since the party came into power have the Senators of the party been so silent, so inactive, and apparently so little interested in the real politics of the country. It is, indeed, significant and characteristic that when they held a caucus the other day, it was, according to the best reports, not to consider what course they had better pursue with regard to the burning questions of the day, but what kind of rumpus would be most likely to secure the re-election of the Senators whose term expires next March.

Senator Howe's speech is now generally acknowledged to have been a trial-balloon sent up to see in what quarter the wind lay. The result has proved unsatisfactory, but the malcontent Republican Senators, and especially the illustrious Conkling, are reported to have enjoyed it highly. Now, such a performance, coming from so obscure, silent, and dull a politician as Mr. Howe, is not worth analysis on its own merits, but it well repays perusal as an illustration of the *state of mind* towards public business of that section of the Senate which is most active in its opposition to the President. It will be observed that it deals almost wholly, in so far as it is not mere denunciation, with things past and irrevocable—that is, with things which are the concern of the historian and philosopher, but not of the politician except in so far as they furnish guidance for the future. His concern is not with what might have been, but with what shall be; not with what ought to have been done, but with what must now be done. The policy, for instance, of withdrawing the troops from the South and allowing Hampton and Nicholls to keep possession of their respective State governments, is a proper subject of discussion in a legislature only if it is proposed to send down troops and oust Hampton and Nicholls. If this is impossible, long speeches about it are only appropriate in a debating society, or in a body like the House of Commons, where the administration can be deposed from office by a vote of want of confidence. Even there, however, such speeches would only be tolerated from a recognized leader, who had given proof of legislative activity, and of strong interest in and mastery of the leading questions of the day. From a man like Mr. Howe, who had sat for seventeen years in dull silence, and who had never been known to originate a bill or an idea, they would be coughed or laughed down.

The attack of this gentleman on Senator Schurz deserves attention for the same reason, although it reaches a depth of folly, in the strict sense of the term, with which the rest of the speech is not justly chargeable. For simple fatuity we doubt if many Congressional orations have equalled the passage in which he gave a biographical sketch of Mr. Schurz by way of discrediting him. The first charge—think of this coming as a reproach from an American Senator!—was that Mr. Schurz began his career by taking arms in his hot youth in the great Liberal movement of Germany, which began in 1820 and, after many trials and reverses, triumphed at Sedan—that is, a movement in pursuit of parliamentary institutions and national unity. The next was that, having fled to this country, young, unknown, and ignorant of the language, he was, after a few years, sent as Minister to Spain, made a major-general in the army, elected to the United States Senate, and finally made a cabinet minister, having been unsuccessful as a lawyer and editor. From the Howe version, a stranger might fairly infer that these honors—extraordinary under all these circumstances—were bestowed on Mr.

Schurz in consequence of a career of great rascality and of successful violence exercised against the American people and their Government; and that the failure to succeed at the bar, or in journalism, was in itself proof of moral obliquity, and was rarely heard of among natives of the United States. When one learns or knows, however, that Mr. Schurz's reputation and success, his public honors and rewards, have been due to his having rapidly become, in a foreign language too, one of the greatest orators of our time, and to his having used his eloquence with wonderful effect in the picturesque and noble agitation in defence of freedom which preceded the civil war; that during his one term in the Senate he did more to illustrate that body by his splendid powers of debate than any one who has sat in it during the last thirty years; that the brunt of the battle in defence of the national credit against base and ignorant Republican inflationists was there borne by him, and that since he left the Senate he has twice saved important elections to the Republicans on this most serious question by the use on the stump of the same unrivalled oratorical skill, one is amazed, not at Howe's folly, for he is not well enough known to excite amazement, but at the folly of the backers and confederates who have egged him on. The German voters of this country are apathetic, and are hidden a good deal from the view of American politicians by their language; but if they have a spark of self-respect and political sense they will see that when, as in Mr. Schurz's case, they have given a first-rate man to the politics of their adopted country, his name and fame are properly protected, and that English-speaking demagogues shall show him at least as much deference as they lavish on any sorry blatherskite whom the more active and aggressive Irish choose to make prominent. To the agencies to which men like Mr. Howe owe, and have to owe, their presence and continuance in public life, viz., the wire-pulling, pipe-laying, log-rolling, subsoiling, cozening, and intriguing, Mr. Schurz, happily for himself and his children, is indebted for nothing. His judgment has undoubtedly proved defective in more than one important crisis in his career, but he can nevertheless use, with one or two slight changes, without conceit or self-inflation, to Senator Howe and the Senatorial clique who hate and envy him, the language in which Burke repelled the assaults of other paltry revilers:

"They cannot readily comprehend the career they condemn. What I have obtained was the fruit of no bargain, the production of no intrigue, the result of no compromise, the effect of no solicitation. . . .

"They think I have obtained too much. I answer that my exertions, whatever they have been, were such as no hopes of pecuniary reward could possibly excite; and no pecuniary compensation can possibly reward them. . . .

"'*Nitor in adversum*' is the motto for a man like me. I possessed not one of the qualities nor cultivated one of the arts that recommend men to the favor and protection of the 'manager' and the 'worker.' I was not made for a minion or a tool. As little did I follow the trade of winning the hearts by imposing on the understandings of the people. At every step of my progress in life (for in every step was I traversed and opposed), and at every turnpike I met, I was obliged to show my passport, and again and again to prove my sole title to the honor of being useful to my country, by a proof that I was not wholly unacquainted with its laws and the whole system of its interests both abroad and at home. Otherwise, no rank, no toleration even, for me. I had no arts but manly arts. On them I have stood, and, please God, in spite of the Group, to the last gasp will I stand."

GOVERNMENT SAVINGS-BANKS.

IT seems likely that some one of the bills now before the House and the Senate for the establishment of Government savings-banks in connection with the post-office may pass into law; and if so, it may have a wider influence than its promoters anticipate. It cannot be denied that our savings-banks are in a bad way. Scarcely a week passes without a bank's stopping payment, and many are preparing to do so, while comparatively few new ones are being organized. The trouble began with the badly-managed institutions which had fallen a victim to speculators in the days when to "capture" a savings-bank was the next best thing to capturing a railroad, and soon extended to the honest but over-venturesome companies which had gone beyond their charter restrictions in search of higher interest. Unfortunately it did not stop there, but extended to many conservative and carefully-managed corporations, whose directors had thought them perfectly secure, especially those which had been organized in the flourishing time after the war, and had invested their capital in loans secured by property whose value had been fictitiously enhanced by the buoyant expectations of that period. These banks, of course, when the fall came, felt it very soon, and were forced to take for their debts land or personal security which they could not sell, and the causes which produced this have been so widespread that there is not a savings-bank in the country that is not threatened. The more cautious ones which prepared for the hard times by lowering the rate of interest paid to depositors have seen their deposits largely and constantly diminishing under the discontent with the reduced rates. And, from the nature of the case, the great distrustfulness of the time has specially affected them. A chance word in a newspaper will bring an overwhelming crowd of frightened depositors. From the nature of their business, which consists in borrowing on demand and lending on long time, they are especially exposed to this distrust; for it is impossible that they should keep any large part of their capital in cash, so as to be ready to meet a run, without sacrificing the interest that has attracted depositors. If a certain degree of alarm is excited they must stop payment. The stipulation for sixty days' notice is the only safeguard, and that is a very insufficient one. A considerable number of the Boston banks have given it, but the notices of withdrawal were so numerous that the relief was only temporary, and the Legislature of Massachusetts has passed a law authorizing the Savings-bank Commissioners to require still longer delay, and payment of only a proportionate amount of each depositor's claim. The law is a gross interference with the contract, and, although it may possibly save one or two banks from immediate danger, it can hardly do more than provide better for their ultimate winding-up. Meantime, the effect upon popular opinion and trustfulness by such a high-handed violation of the terms of the loans can hardly be happy. Other more promising plans have been suggested, such as relief, either partial or complete, from the taxation which now presses so heavily upon them, and there is a general feeling that the emergency requires special assistance from the Government. It must be remembered that the mischief done by the stoppage of a large number of savings-banks would be very great at the best. It would be difficult to the last degree to find purchasers at once for their assets, even their best mortgages, at any but ruinous prices. Large numbers of loans would have to be called in, and ruin would ensue to a vast number of deserving borrowers as well as depositors; and if the capital now so well employed were placed in the hands of Government, and sent abroad to pay for called bonds, the evil would not right itself for a long time.

Government aid to savings-banks is no new idea. The first ones started in England at the beginning of this century were distinctly charitable institutions, and were sustained by the organizers at a heavy loss. The Government soon began to assist them, taking charge of their funds and paying a higher rate of interest than it borrowed at in the open market, for the sake of attracting depositors, on the ground that the encouraging of provident habits in the lower classes was a gain so great as to be well worth the expenditure. Now, these reasons apply with special force to us. We are none too inclined to save as a people. Our laboring class, for whom the savings-banks are primarily intended, is not frugal, and we all feel so sanguine, so sure that we shall make more money to-morrow than yesterday, that we are only too apt to be caught by the storm unprepared. Savings-banks are perhaps the best means of counteracting this unfortunate national tendency. They are a safe way, and almost the only safe way, of investing their small earnings that the ignorant can understand, while the opportunity to add constantly to the principal in small sums, and to let the money lie and grow by the accumulation of interest, is offered by no other investment. Moreover, the system of dividing the profits at inter-

vals of several years constantly tempts the depositor to far-sighted economy. It is difficult to overvalue this great influence for good. Until the late severe stress the banks have been almost always wisely managed for the benefit of the depositors, and if they can weather this storm have a still better future before them.

In this state of affairs it might be hoped that the national Government would take the same view as the State of Massachusetts, and, considering this immense value of the banks and their distinctly charitable character, would do its best to strengthen them, or at least to provide an adequate substitute. To do the last is not at all an easy matter, for even if a new mode of investment were provided, more attractive and more secure, the change from the old to the new, just at this time, if conducted on the large scale that might be anticipated, would probably put all the old banks into the hands of receivers, and give a shock to depositors and to the business world from which they would not recover for a very long period. It must be remembered that the good which our savings-banks do is not merely to their depositors. The funds that they receive they invest again at moderate rates and under regulations very favorable to the borrower, so that through the East, where they are most powerful, they keep down the rate of interest to a regular mean, and save many a farmer from the ruin that a more grasping creditor would inflict. It is hardly possible that our manufacturers could have weathered the storm as they have done without the use of the savings-bank capital which has been so freely extended. If the money now held by the savings-banks were put into the hands of the Government and sent abroad to pay called bonds, the effect, not only upon ruined manufacturers but upon the country districts where they are the principal capitalists, would be very unfortunate even with our present superabundant currency; with the return of business prosperity and of higher rates for money at the great business centres this effect would be still worse, for in ordinary times it does not pay to send money out into the country to loan in small sums at six or seven per cent. We must bear in mind that the present rate of interest is exceptionally low, owing to the great difficulty of finding any safe investment for capital. But this state of things cannot indefinitely continue. Business must revive; and even if more conservatively and moderately done at first, money will command its old rates pretty surely, and average in the market about seven per cent again, as it did for so many years. But there could hardly be a more dangerous shock to returning confidence than a general winding up of the savings-banks.

Unfortunately, none of the bills that are now before Congress takes this view of the matter. The advanced thinkers who have so ingeniously contrived to stop the refunding of our foreign debt, see a chance for making something out of the distress of the banks; and, taking advantage of a suggestion of Secretary Sherman's, recommending the English system of post-office savings-banks, they are trying to concoct some ingenious money-making scheme out of it. Not satisfied with debasing the currency, as an avowed attack upon capitalists, they propose to investors to let them take their money and invest it in called bonds at a higher rate of interest than the depositors are to receive (a very profitable thing for the Government, but just the very opposite of the course of the degraded English aristocracy, who actually paid their poor depositors more than current rates); and, to give a real American savor to the plan, our worthy legislators propose to play another game on depositors by paying them off when they want their money, not in gold and silver, but in a new issue of depreciated currency. Fifty millions more of paper are to be thrown on the overloaded market, which it is confidently expected will bring about again the good times of inflation, when paper money was so cheap and so poor and so easy to get that we spent it like water, without going through the trouble of saving it first.

The plan is very ingenious, but it does not contain the precautions which the English Government took to prevent trouble in the transfer of the funds from the private banks to the Government post-office banks. It may, and if it is very successful it pretty certainly will, destroy the private banks, and inflict an enormous injury on both borrowers and lenders. It is not likely to be a very profitable affair for the Government; for, judging from the manner in which its other deposits are managed, a large part of the money which the Government receives and pays interest on will be allowed to remain idle in the hands of the postmasters. There will, too, certainly be large expenses which would be saved by a popular 4½ per cent. loan. The scheme cannot be expected to be a permanent one, for it provides for interest at less than even the present abnormally low rates. 3.65 and 4 per cent., although they might tempt frightened depositors just now in sufficient numbers to stop half the savings-banks in the country, cannot be a permanent attraction. The moment that business really becomes profitable again, and the demand for money increases, interest will rise, and with it the railroad and other investment bonds will begin to pay regularly, and private savings-banks must resume their old rates, and it is unlikely that Government banks, with their lower rates and annoying red-tape formalities, can compete with them for any great length of time. It is not to be expected that a man who sees his neighbor regularly getting 6½ per cent. from a bank whose officers he knows and trusts will keep his money long with his postmaster at 3.65 or 4 per cent. But whatever lease of life the new plan might have, it could not do the good that the old savings-banks did, in redistributing the funds they received. It does not provide for the compounding of interest, or for any distribution of additional interest at five-year intervals; and these were among the most valuable features of the old banks, in constantly tempting the depositors to economy and saving. It is, in short, a mere money-making device for taking advantage of the present distress of the savings-banks to borrow at lower rates than money is really worth. It is as short-sighted as it is threatening.

THE NEW TARIFF BILL.

THE new Tariff Bill was reported to the House on Tuesday of last week, and was made the special order of the day for April 4 and until disposed of. It has left the hands of the Committee of Ways and Means in much better shape than that in which it was received from the sub-committee, and, as far as the correction of errors and the weeding out of crudities go, it speaks well for the industry and good sense of the Committee. In spite of a pretty general reduction of present duties its character remains essentially protective, and it will appear but a short step forward to those who do not believe in the policy of "trying to get rich by taxing each other." It will also fail to satisfy many others whose special interests have been disregarded; but, on the whole, we believe it will be found a decided improvement on the present tariff, and its prompt passage with but few amendments will be the best thing that Congress can do under existing circumstances.

Of the general provisions contained in the original draft the clause admitting foreign-built vessels to the privileges of the American flag has been stricken out, and, we think, not without some reason besides the mere opposition of parties deeming themselves interested in preventing this important innovation. The question is sure to come up again, and deserves to be treated by itself, while the tariff is too pressing a matter to be exposed to the danger of failure by connecting it with a measure not clearly within its scope. The principle of applying only one class of duties, specific or ad valorem, to any single article has been strictly adhered to. The clause substituting an addition of 5 per cent. on first cost in lieu of charges on goods subject to ad-valorem duty has been maintained, as well as the date on which the Act is to go into effect—viz., January 1, 1879. The clause regulating the personal property which passengers may bring in free has been amended so as to extend the amount to wearing apparel of the value of $300, and to other articles, not merchandise, not exceeding $500 in value.

The most important amendment of the original draft undoubtedly consists in the return to the free list of such articles as raw silk, india-rubber, crude argols, cork-bark, cocoa, hides and skins,

horse-hair, hair-cuttings, rags, ivory, cochineal, indigo, madder, alizarine, Peruvian bark, crude camphor, and books twenty years old, which will be a relief to many important interests. The following review of the different schedules will show the position of the most noticeable articles:

Schedule A. *Cotton Goods* remain essentially as fixed in the original bill: duties largely specific, and showing a considerable reduction from most of the present duties, which is, however, not likely to disturb our industry.

Schedule B. *Earthen and Glass-ware.* On earthenware the present duties are somewhat raised, on china slightly reduced; on window-glass the rates proposed in the draft are somewhat modified, more or less reduction of present duties remaining.

Schedule C. *Hemp, Jute, etc.* Present duties somewhat reduced: Manila hemp (now $25), $20; jute (now $15), $12 per ton; jute butts, $6 (unchanged); jute carpeting, 6 cents per square yard; cotton bagging and jute yarns, 25 per cent., other manufactures, 30 per cent. ad valorem.

Schedule D. *Liquors.* Wines are raised considerably over present duties, while champagne, brandy, and ale remain unchanged.

Schedule E. *Metals.* Pig-iron remains at $5 a ton, against the present duty of $7; on bar and other iron the duties are again made mostly specific, with a slight reduction from present rates; steel, 2½ cents per pound against the present rates, varying from 2 cents to 4 cents; steel rails, ¾ cent per pound; other manufactures of steel, 35 per cent. ad valorem. Lead, spelter, and sheet zinc, unchanged; tin, now free, is taxed 10 per cent. ad valorem. Gold and silver leaf very properly reduced to $1 and 50 cents per package.

Schedule F. *Provisions.* The present duties are mostly unchanged.

Schedule G. *Sugars.* The mode of assessment is so changed that refining sugars are made dutiable according to degree of polarization, grocery sugars according to the old standard of color. Rates generally higher than present duties, particularly on centrifugal and grocery sugars. Louisiana ought to be satisfied.

Schedule H. *Silk Goods.* Raw silk remaining free, the duties on silk goods have been reduced 5 per cent. from rates originally proposed; piece goods to 45 per cent. ad valorem, against present rates of 60 per cent. and upwards.

Schedule I. *Spices* remain as proposed in the original bill, the principal change of present rates being the advance of pepper and pimento from 5 cents to 10 cents per pound.

Schedule J. *Tobacco and Cigars.* The present duties are essentially unchanged.

Schedule K. *Wood.* The present duties are somewhat altered in both directions.

Schedule L. *Wool and Woollens.* After a vain effort to harmonize conflicting interests by a reduction of the present specific and combined duties, the Committee, at its final revision of the bill, determined upon a radical and, no doubt, very sensible change by putting a uniform ad-valorem duty of 35 per cent. on raw wools of all classes and conditions. This will effect a considerable reduction of present duties on all fine wool, but will advance the duties on carpet wools, which have, under the present tariff, been favored by specific rates equal, on an average, to about 22 per cent. ad valorem. The principle of ad-valorem duties on raw wool is, beyond doubt, the only just and proper one on which to tax the article, and its adoption will be welcome to all interested. Our consumers may now, for the first time in many years, be enabled to get any kind of wool that may suit them on even terms as to duty. Nevertheless, a great outcry against this valuable change is likely to be raised by manufacturers who fear for their existence when the duties on woollen goods are at the same time reduced, as proposed in the bill, to 50 per cent. ad valorem. Their argument will no doubt be that, the value of wool being well known, the 35 per cent. on the raw material will be fairly collected, but that woollens will be largely consigned here by European manufacturers seeking an outlet for their surplus production, and that the 50 per cent. ad-valorem duty on goods will be largely evaded by undervaluation of invoices. This conflict, we hope, will not result in the abandonment of an ad-valorem duty on wool, but in a reduction of the rate to, at most, 25 per cent., which no doubt would satisfy all reasonable expectations. Possibly the House may be moved towards all woollen manufacturers by the same kind feeling which the Committee has shown towards our wool-hatters. By an amendment to the original bill in Schedule M, we find hatters' wool, solely for hatters' use, admitted at 20 per cent. ad valorem. The intelligence of our appraisers will certainly be overtaxed, if they are to distinguish wool solely for hatters' use from ordinary felting wool; and, if difficulties are to be avoided, the House will have either to retract the favor or extend it to all wool.

Schedule M. *Sundries.* The most noticeable change in this long list consists in the restoration to the free list of the numerous leading articles already mentioned, and in the present duties being reimposed on salt, which had been left out in the original draft of the bill. Our drug interest will be benefited by the reduction of the duty on quinine to 10 per cent., but it will probably lose fully as much, if not more, by the fact that all gums and many chemicals and medicinal preparations are taken from the free list, which but a few years ago was enlarged for the special benefit of that trade.

We find no mention made in the bill of the goods lying in bond when the act goes into effect, but we suppose they will be admitted at the new rates. In conclusion, we see no good reason why the bill, if passed without much delay, should not take effect on July 1 of this year. The changes being mostly in the way of reduction of duties, the importing business will not be injured by an early change, and holders of duty-paid goods would probably take what little loss they may have to suffer in preference to a prolonged state of waiting. The shortening of the intermediate period, no doubt, would also result in benefit to the revenue.

THE HOUSE OF REPRESENTATIVES.

ALTHOUGH the galleries of the House are daily crowded, very few of the American people have a clear idea of the conditions under which work is done there. A vague opinion is prevalent that a member of Congress can take the floor when he pleases, move any resolution or bill he has a mind to, and make an hour's speech on any subject he fancies his constituents in Buncombe County may want discussed. A reading of the *Congressional Record* or the Associated Press despatches is quite as likely to confirm as to weaken this opinion; for in the varied phenomena that are presented it would need a Darwin or a Huxley so to co-ordinate them as to find any governing rule or law, or even to guess at the system on which the phantasmagoria is constructed. Yet there is a system and a law, or rather a code of laws, known as the Rules of the House, complex and voluminous, the long and patient study of which, joined to patient and persevering practice, is absolutely necessary if a Representative has any ambition to become a "good parliamentarian," or would hope to conduct an important measure to a successful conclusion.

Many a new member, with a budget of bills and resolutions which he fondly believes are destined to reveal to the country its future great statesman, has entered the Hall of the House in undoubting faith that he has passed the portals of a brilliant career. He rises in his place and addresses the Chair. He is sure he was up as quickly as any one, but the Speaker seems unaware of his existence. He is a little dazed by the fact that a dozen more are doing the same thing, and that the loud talking, the clapping of hands for the pages, and the total unconsciousness of the body that he is trying to gain an audience, make a combination of untoward circumstances very like trying to address the people in the omnibuses from the curbstone in front of the Astor House, and he takes his seat a little flustered, thinking he will watch the course of things a little and try it again. The next time he determines that he will not be foiled by modesty, and shouts "Mr. Speaker" so loudly that, as much to be rid of him as for anything else, he is recognized by the Chair. "I desire to present a resolution and ask its adoption." "It can only be done at this time by unanimous consent," the Speaker replies, and "I object" is heard from several members at once. Some one else is given the floor, and our friend subsides again to reflect upon the cruel obstacles in his path of glory. By the help of diligent thumbing of the Rules, and by curbing his pride so as to seek some advice of an old member, he learns that the Roll of the States will be called on Monday and then he will be in order. He

plucks up fresh courage and on that day is on the alert, his State is called, he gets the floor, sends his resolution to the clerk and clears his throat for a speech. A sharp rap of the gavel is followed by "No debate is in order; the resolution can only be referred to the proper Committee," and before he can rightly understand what has happened the current has swept by him, and he takes his seat with a waning sense of his own importance. But he will not give it up so. He finds what committee has charge of his precious resolution, and tries to impress its chairman with the importance of his measure. "Bless you," he is told, "there are fifty on the same subject; they will go to a sub-committee, and by and by we may report something. Wait and see." He waits, and a month or more afterward he some morning catches a few words of a report from that committee, which imply that they have introduced a bill which is ordered to be printed and recommitted. He gets a copy of the bill, finds it at war with all his ideas, and burns with the thought of exposing its folly and vindicating the wisdom and policy of his own proposition. Now, at least, he will be in order and shall be heard. Still there are delays, but a day is set for discussion, and he is fully prepared. One speaker after another is recognized, but he fails to get the floor. His shouts to the Speaker are unnoticed; he becomes angry and flurried. Some one asks him if he has any arrangement with the committee or with the Speaker for time to speak. No, he answers; but has he not the right to be heard? No; debate is almost always limited to the members of the committee having the measure in charge and a few whom they may favor with the opportunity to speak. His wish to be heard at last overcomes his pride and wrath, and he is introduced to some member of the committee, who is good-humored enough (exceptionally good humored) to yield the new man a few minutes of his time. And so he gets a tithe of the time he wanted to develop his subject, and under nervous conditions which forbid thought, amid surroundings to the last degree discouraging, he says a few words without pleasure to himself or profit to the House, and resumes his chair full of inward objurgations at a system which seems ingeniously contrived to prevent the satisfactory discussion of public business, and to give exclusive control of what is done to the Speaker and the older members of the majority who are chairmen of the important committees.

His own committee-work is probably quite as disgusting to him. He may have come to the House brimful of revenue reform, and find himself assigned as "end man" to the Committee on Expenditures in the Department of Justice, with nothing to do. He may have been a leading jurist of mature experience, but unless he has the touchstone of long service in the House he may wish in vain for a place on the Judiciary Committee; he is buried in the Committee on Manufactures, which has but one meeting and never a report in a long session. If he is a member of the majority and has had some political prominence outside, his case is a better one, and some chance for important work may be given him; but even this may prove a delusion and a snare, as Mr Ewing found to his cost at the present session, when his lack of knowledge of the rules gave his opponents an instant advantage of him, and put his resumption-repeal "in the nine holes," from which he could not take it till he yielded the terms of debate which were demanded, and surrendered all the expected *éclat* of a prompt passage of his bill under suspension of the rules. His experience only deepened the conviction of all the leading men of the House, that it is folly to trust the floor-management of any important measure to any other than an old hand. Compliments to prominent politicians who are new members must be given in some other way.

The truth is that the rules and customs of the House are the result of a natural selection, which, however we may scold at it, was the best the circumstances permitted. The practice may be modified or pruned a little, but no great change can be made till the circumstances are changed. The things most frequently and most justly complained of are the almost despotic power of the Speaker, the absorption of the lead in business by the older members of a few committees, and the absence of that kind of business debate which should characterize a really deliberating body. Let us look a little at each of these.

The power of the Speaker results from the functions directly committed to him. He appoints the committees. The Senate may elect them, but the House is too large a body for that. The log-rolling combinations that would come of an attempt at election would disgust the nation, and would render the organization of the House an almost endless task. The delay alone would be unendurable. But the appointment of the committees implies the distribution of work to every member. It means the determination of the cast business shall take. It decides for or against all large matters of policy, or may so decide; for, while Speakers will differ from each other greatly in force of character and in the wish to give positive direction to affairs, the weakest man cannot escape from the necessity of arranging the appointments with a view to the probable character of measures which will be agitated. This, however, is far from the measure of the Speaker's power. All rules are more or less flexible. The current of precedents is never consistent or uniform. The bias of the Speaker at a critical point will turn the scale. Mr. Randall as Speaker determined the assent of the House to the action of the Electoral Commission. Had he wished for a revolutionary attempt to prevent the announcement of Hayes's election, no one who has had experience in Congress, at least, will doubt that he could have forced the collision.

The Speaker's power to award the floor to those whom he may choose to recognize is an enormous one. There are general rules which every Speaker will profess to follow, but they are vague and give abundant latitude. The necessity of getting on with business has given birth to the practice of recognizing the chairmen of leading committees, or those in charge of important pending measures, in preference to other members. The nominal rule is that the man first addressing the chair has the right to the floor, but the rule is only nominal. It is so evident that business could not get on in that way that a member would only be laughed at for trying to insist upon it. Again, it is very rarely the case that several persons are not trying to get the floor at once, and no one but the Speaker could decide among them. An appeal from his decision therefore would be futile. The custom has naturally grown out of this to arrange with the Speaker beforehand for recognition. A member will speak to him privately and in advance, saying, I have such and such a measure to introduce, and I want to be recognized when I rise. A fair-minded Speaker will only enquire far enough to see that the matter is legitimate and important; but if he is unscrupulous it is easy to see how far his power may go. Rumor has it that when Mr. Blaine was Speaker it was hard to get the floor unless the thing to be urged pleased him, and it is even hinted that he required amendments to be made to resolutions, etc., before he would permit them to be offered. Whether this is true or not, it is easy to see that a vigorous, domineering man could easily make it true with such power in his hands. The only real check upon the Speaker must be the public sentiment of the House, and the older members are the natural exponents and voices of this. The minority can do little to check him until his acts become so arrogant and partial as to shock the moderate men of the majority. The leading men of the dominant party are always those whom the Speaker has assigned to important chairmanships of committees, and they are prevented by delicacy and a sense of obligation from opposing him if it can be avoided. A disappointed man will be sure to have his hostility to the Chair attributed to his failure to get an important place, and he will get little sympathy. There is, therefore, small chance for controlling the power of the presiding officer until he goes beyond all endurable bounds, and this a man of any prudence and ability will rarely do. The power of the Speaker of the House over legislation may not unfairly be reckoned much larger than that of the President, and scarcely less than that of the Senate. To this we have come by the slow growth of a hundred years, accelerating, however, as the numbers of the members of the House have increased.

The power of the chairmen of committees follows as a sort of corollary from that of the Speaker. Their leading influence elects him, his favor appoints them, and the latter, with the aid of the exigencies of public business, gives them the practical control of the floor. By custom the chairman of a committee appoints, or at least nominates, its clerk, and he has the lion's share of the clerk's labor and assistance. He has, therefore, better facilities for informing himself as to business before them. He distributes the work to sub-committees, and if he be at all able and politic will practically control the reports and the presentation of all business from his committee to the House. He will usually decide who shall speak on a measure, how long the debate shall continue, when the previous question shall be called, and how the hour of debate which follows the ordering of the previous question shall be apportioned. If any one protests, the ready answer is, How else, in such a Babel, can business make progress at all? Some one must be trusted to direct it, and who so fit, under the superior power of the Speaker, as the chairman of the committee which had a measure in charge and is presumed to have matured it?

Out of these conditions it would be hard, at best, to bring satisfactory and business-like debate. In the English House of Commons the Speaker is a professional moderator, non-partisan, judicial, holding his office sometimes during nearly a lifetime, through all changes

of party. The party leaders on the floor control the presentation and debate of measures, and have the rules applied for them by an experienced man acting with a sense of responsibility like that of a judge. Under such a system, aided by a better set of physical surroundings, of which we shall speak presently, it is for the interest of party leaders that they shall bring out the available talent on their side, and in practice the impatience of the House of Commons with a tedious speaker or one talking only "for buncombe" is a sufficient gag-rule. With us, however, impatience rarely takes the active, aggressive form of coughing or scraping a speaker down. If a member of the House of Representatives does not choose to listen, he has his desk, his writing material, his file of letters to answer, his own speech to prepare, and works away careless whether the day is used up in one way or another, until he begins to fear that he shall not get away from the capital before the dog-days. Even then he is more likely to go and scold privately at the chairman of the Committee on Appropriations for not hurrying bills along faster, than to interrupt or try to silence the talker on the floor. It is in this way that the habit of inattention, of noisy aside-talk, of utter disregard to the person having the floor, has grown up. It has naturally led also to the custom of writing out speeches and reading them. A member is determined to be heard by the country, or at least by his constituents, if the House will not hear him, and he reads on amidst utter confusion, consoling himself that his speech will be in the *Congressional Record*, an abstract of it in the press despatches, and pamphlet copies can be sent to his people at home. To prove that this kills debate needs no argument. The dulness of the reading of essays reacts upon the disposition to inattention, and the noise and confusion increase the disposition to write rather than to try to speak, and so the evil perpetuates itself, getting larger as it goes. From it comes, too, the custom of getting leave to print speeches not delivered. Why should the House remain to go through the form of pretending to be addressed by a reader who is not heard? Somebody will exclaim, "O print, print!" and the unhappy essayist will be glad to take the hint and ask the requisite permission. There are times, of course, when this is not improper or objectionable, as when an important measure is passing almost without time for debate, whilst members feel unwilling to let their votes go upon record wholly unexplained, or to be regarded as responsible for the motives or arguments that the press may attribute to them.

Even when a man would fain take part in earnest, businesslike speech, the physical conditions about him are such as are almost insurmountable. First, the hall of the House is itself so large that few men have voice enough to fill it, even if quiet prevailed on the floor. If every member must have his desk, and the hall must be surrounded on all sides by deep galleries, no less a room would answer; and by the same token, as we increase the number of members, the Coliseum itself would soon be none too large. But the noise of the House is simply overpowering. In so large a room the loud conversation of disorderly members does not reach the ear distinctly, but the multiplicity of such sounds, added to the manifold forms of noise which the inattentive habits of the body beget, combine into a loud murmurous roar, which makes one who is beginning to speak feel as if his voice were lost in a tempest or in the noise of surf upon the shore. He instinctively tries to raise his tones above it, and to catch attention by extraordinary effort to be loud. He is shouting before he knows it, and vainly struggling to drown a multitudinous sound for which his lungs are no match. Men of fine intellect and of good ordinary elocution have exclaimed in despair that in the House of Representatives the mere physical effort to be heard uses up all the powers, so that intellectual action becomes impossible. The natural refuge is in the written speeches or in habitual silence which one dreads more and more to break. The exceptions only prove this rule. Passages-at-arms between gladiators of the stump will generally draw around a crowd of amused lookers-on. A special reputation for wit or for ugly hits will secure a hearing. And occasionally the pre-eminent ability of a speech may overcome all obstacles and fasten attention.

Experienced members of Congress commonly agree that the debates in Committee of the Whole under the five-minute rule are the most profitable that occur in the House. The real shaping of measures occurs at this time, and attention is better given, because all members who feel any responsibility for business know that they must watch at such times if they would act intelligently. The short limit of time necessitates an attempt at terseness, the game of "give and take" between speakers is likely to be lively, and something like a real grappling between opponents takes place. This only adds point to what has been said above about the failure of business debate in the House, for the exception does not occur when the House is in regular session, but when it is in committee—that is to say, the Speaker has left the chair, calling some one to act as temporary chairman of the committee; and during this time no vote by yeas and nays can be taken, no business can be considered but the bills in their order on the calendar as they have been referred by the House to the committee, and no final action can be taken except to report to the House when it resumes its regular session the recommendations of the Committee of the Whole.

A suggestion has been made by Mr. Hewitt, of New York, which, if adopted, would remedy most of the physical obstacles to debate which have been described, and would soon improve the style of speaking, making the House a far more attractive field for able men. The plan is to divide the hall of the House in two, arrange one half of it with benches facing each other on the two sides of the House, as is the case in the English House of Commons. This half of the House should be sacred to debate. No business should be done there but the discussion of bills and resolutions and action upon them. Quiet and order should be rigidly enforced. The other half of the hall should be fitted with the present or other similar conveniences for writing, and for conversation and such other business as the members now transact at their desks or in the lobbies. At the doors leading from the one hall to the other should be a gong or bell to notify members when a division was demanded or a vote to be taken. Those who chose to listen would be in the hall with benches; those who had more important work to do could remain in the outer hall. The attractiveness of the speaker who might be up, or the importance of the subject, would determine the audience in the speaking-hall, and the leaders or chairman of the committee in charge of the special measure would, as now, control the length of the debate. With such a change would come ease of speaking, quieter tone, better thinking on the feet, better taste in oratory, better progress in everything that makes profitable business discussion, and better progress also in the public business. We could wish there were hope that men enough in Congress appreciate the great desirability of these things to make a fair trial of the experiment.

THE ROSEBERY-ROTHSCHILD MARRIAGE.

London, March 20, 1878.

NO social event of recent times in England has created so much interest as the marriage of the Earl of Rosebery and Miss Hannah de Rothschild, which took place to-day. The papers of society, and even the more solid journals of events, have devoted much space to the almost daily chronicle of the wedding preliminaries, and people of all classes have not been ashamed to acknowledge a transient interest in the past, present, and future of the young couple. The explanation of this is that Lord Rosebery is one of the most popular men of his class in England, and Miss Hannah de Rothschild's reputation for wealth is only equalled by her reputation for everything that is charming and excellent in woman. The marriage took place to-day, first before the Registrar, in civil form—a custom which is becoming more common in this country every year—and then, to satisfy ecclesiastical scruples, in church, by one of the most popular and most emancipated of the clergy of the Church of England. Both ceremonies were, in a manner, private; but the religious portion was witnessed by many of the best known among the English people. The bride was given away by the Prime Minister in the presence of the Prince of Wales and the leader of the Opposition, and the church register, which may almost be regarded as an historical document, was, according to the evening papers, signed by the following names: Rosebery, H. de Rothschild, Cleveland, Beaconsfield, C. E. Leconfield, Albert Edward, George, E. Primrose, W. Rogers; these signatures representing the Duke of Cleveland, Lord Rosebery's stepfather, Lord Beaconsfield, the Prime Minister, Lady Leconfield, Lord Rosebery's sister, the Prince of Wales, the Duke of Cambridge, the Honorable Everett Primrose, Lord Rosebery's brother, and Mr. Prebendary Rogers, the officiating clergyman.

So much for the ceremony. The wedding presents are reported to be of enormous value, estimated according to one of the papers at £250,000, and for the most part in good taste, and the variety of the donors speaks, if any speaking were wanted, for the interest which the marriage has excited, and for the popularity of the bride and bridegroom. Lord Rosebery, almost since he was a boy, has been viewed with affectionate regard by a considerable section of people. It is seldom that any one of his age has, so to speak, led his private life in public to the same extent. A man of Mr. Gladstone's years and reputation must make up his mind to have his private existence watched and chronicled. He has become a part of the

nation, and has, during nearly half a century, been always before the public. He is a historical institution. So is Lord Beaconsfield. But these are men well on to the threescore years and ten allotted to man. Lord Rosebery was born in 1847, when these two men were past the meridian of their lives, and he is now just thirty years of age, but he has already made his mark in several departments of life. Shortly after he left Oxford, and when he was still a boy, he became the owner of a racing stable, and devoted his attention to improving the breed of English horses. After a few years' experience of the ways and means of the Turf he gave it up. He sold his stud and took to political life. His first public appearance of any importance was at Glasgow, where, as President of the Social Science Association, he delivered an address which filled some half-dozen closely printed columns of the *Times*, and amazed the members of the Association by its ability, versatility, and knowledge, and gave promise of an important future. People wondered how so much varied information and such mature judgment could co-exist with a juvenile appearance and a love of field sports and other frivolities. He was then some twenty-five years of age—an age which in England, in nine cases out of ten, is little more than boyhood. From the time of his presidency of this association his popularity dates. He went over to America, where he became a favorite, and on his return he began to take some part in the proceedings of the House of Lords, and in that assembly he has already secured a high place. He rarely speaks, but when he does, his speech is generally to the point. His manner of speaking is good, and he always sets off his words of wisdom by something light or humorous—a rare phenomenon in that august but dreary assembly. Sidney Smith used to say that the House of Lords would never be bearable until the whole bench of bishops went to heaven. Lord Rosebery seems to take a different view. He regards the bishops and the Lord Chancellor as useful appendages to the solemnity of the House, and not unfrequently amuses himself by poking fun at the right reverend prelates and the noble lord on the woolsack with an air of mock humility and deference that disarms all hostility. He regards these as amiable targets, at which with keen pleasure he discharges batteries of light artillery shotted with good-humored jokes and gentle sarcasms, which please the House and do not very much displease the bishops. His popularity in the House is due to a large extent to the fun which he ventures to infuse into the solemn body which he addresses. The fun, like all fun, sometimes approaches the confines of flippancy, but it never goes across the borders of good taste. He often says what might be regarded as frivolous, but I have never heard a whisper of his having suggested anything that could hurt the feelings of the man against whom his wit was directed, nor of his having made a mistake in taste. It may be that he would have been a stronger debater if he had enjoyed the experience of five or ten years in the House of Commons before he took his seat in the Lords. The rough work of the lower house gives ballast which weights the aspiring politician. But years, experience of life, and native good sense, combined with a dash of shrewdness which he inherits with his Scotch blood, will make up for any imperfection which may be put to the account of want of the discipline of the House of Commons.

It is in Scotland, if I am rightly informed, that he has the strongest hold upon the affections of the people. In that country they love a lord, but all their lords are Tories, and one element in Lord Rosebery's popularity is that, politically, he is a Radical—or as much of a Radical as any member of the hereditary peerage can be. As it is, he is idolized by the people both in Edinburgh, near where he lives, and in Glasgow, where he has made some important appearances. Last autumn, when Lord Hartington was starring it in Scotland, he was Lord Rosebery's guest and attended all the meetings in his company. This was all very well in Edinburgh, where the latter presided. But in Glasgow, where the younger peer was merely an onlooker, his reception was so enthusiastic as almost to threaten to eclipse his chief. An amusing incident has been narrated to me concerning his reception, by one who was present. The platform, it seems, was greatly overcrowded, many more having secured tickets than the platform could hold. There was a scramble for the few chairs that were available, and in the scramble something like a free fight, though of an amicable kind, was observed between a large and corpulent minister of the United Presbyterian Church—a Boanerges in his communion—and a slim, delicate-looking man, almost a boy as it appeared. Boanerges was waxing wroth that his right to the chair should be disputed by a lad, when loud shouts arose from the crowd—some five thousand hard-headed Glasgow citizens and handicraftsmen—shouts for "Rossberry!" "Rossberry!" as they call him. The shouts continued for some time when, to the horror of the minister, his rival claimant for the chair turned from the object of his rivalry and came forward to the front of the platform, whereupon the whole five thousand Glasgow men rose from their seats and cheered him till the old hall echoed back again. My friend told me that the minister fled from the platform and never reappeared. Be this as it may, there is no doubt of Lord Rosebery's popularity in his native country, and he owes it to his own natural ability, geniality, and good sense. He is an admirable off-hand speaker. He seems to know the right things to say and the way to say them. He has before a popular audience a happy knack of mingling the grave and gay, and of bringing in an anecdote or a bit of chaff just at the time that his statistics and his severer matter is beginning to be felt. He plays upon the audience as a man plays upon a piano, and they respond. They like him and he likes them, and likes to please himself and them at the same time. This happy knack of public speaking will stand him in good stead in the future. Popular and respected at the age of thirty, one of the wealthiest men in England, a sound politician of the Liberal school, and wedded to an accomplished and popular lady, Lord Rosebery has all the qualities and chances that lead to success in England. In the future of Liberal politics he is destined to play a part of no small importance.

Correspondence.

PRESIDENT ELIOT ON PRELIMINARY EXAMINATIONS ONCE MORE.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: When I wrote the letter of two weeks ago signed C. K., I did not for a moment suppose that President Eliot had ventured an opinion concerning the preliminary examinations held in Michigan without some knowledge of the manner in which they are conducted and of the results which have ensued. But his letter of last week shows that he has fallen into the somewhat laughable error of mistaking the conditions on which examinations will be held for a description of the examination itself. By a similar fatality he has likewise mistaken the meaning of the sentence which he quotes from one of President Angell's reports. Everybody in Michigan would understand that the expression "without examination by us" means without examination *at the University;* precisely as the English people would understand a similar expression if used by the authorities at Oxford.

The seriousness (as well as the laughableness) of President Eliot's error will be apparent from a moment's examination of two or three sentences of his letter. He says: "The fact is, that the English method bears no resemblance whatever to the Michigan method"; and in proof of this emphatic assertion he describes the English system. But his description not only does not prove that there is "no resemblance whatever" but it *does* prove exactly the opposite—namely, that there is a resemblance, and that the resemblance is very marked. "The English Board," says he, "conducts actual examinations" (so does the Board—*i.e.*, the Committee of the University—in Michigan) "on specific subjects" (the same in Michigan) "through competent examiners of its own choice" (the same in Michigan—*i.e.*, through members of the Faculty of the University appointed for the purpose), "and retains absolute control of these examinations in every respect" (the same in Michigan). "It examines persons, not programmes" (in Michigan, persons *and* programmes), "pupils, not teachers" (in Michigan, pupils and methods of instruction, if not teachers). "The examinations of schools [in England] are held at the schools [so they are in Michigan], upon request of the school desiring to be examined [the same in Michigan], and exclusively for its benefit [the same in Michigan] and at its expense [the same in Michigan]." Thus it appears that President Eliot has pointed out similarities where he supposed he was pointing out differences. After this error it ought not, perhaps, to be considered very strange that he should be willing to venture the erroneous declaration that "the Michigan method is a partial surrender of the authority of the University." Of course, there is a sense in which Harvard or any other university partially surrenders its authority when it allows a committee of its own number to determine whether a boy shall be admitted to its classes. In no other sense can it fairly be asserted that the Michigan method involves a surrender of authority. To the assertion that it "tends to let the University down" I will only say that I know of no officer of the University of Michigan who does not hold precisely the opposite opinion.

President Eliot's letter obliges me to confess that I was in error in supposing that the differences between his two positions were to be ex-

plained on the ground of a change of ideas. I now see no way of explaining the position of his report in regard to the Michigan method and of the defence of it in his last letter, except that frank and famous way in which the omniscient Dr. Johnson explained why he once defined the "pastern" as the "knee-joint of a horse."

Sincerely yours, C. K. Adams.

Ann Arbor, March 30, 1878.

Notes.

D. APPLETON & CO. will shortly publish in one volume, octavo, 'The Armies of Asia and Europe, from Official Reports,' by Emory Upton, Brevet Major-General U. S. A.; a 'Life of Gen. Albert Sidney Johnston,' by William P. Johnston; and 'Studies in the Creative Week,' fourteen lectures recently delivered in Philadelphia by the Rev. George D. Boardman, D.D.——Cassell, Petter & Galpin have nearly ready a South-African book of travels, 'The Great Thirst Land,' by Parker Gilmore.——Mr. H. M. Stanley's account of his Congo adventures will be published in this country by Harper & Bros. simultaneously with its appearance in England.——A second edition of Theo. L. De Vinne's 'Invention of Printing' is issued by Francis Hart & Co.——Houghton, Osgood & Co.'s announcements include a work on 'Political Economy' and a 'Dialogue on Political Economy,' by J. B. Howe, of Indiana, a quarter to which we are not accustomed to look for light on that subject; a 'History of Dartmouth College,' by Baxter P. Smith; a 'Life of Gen. W. F. Bartlett,' by Gen. F. W. Palfrey; and a 'Life of Charlotte Cushman,' by her intimate friend Miss Emma Stebbins.——'Tropical Nature' is the title of a collection of miscellaneous essays by Alfred Russel Wallace, in the press of Macmillan & Co.——The recent unfortunate controversy over a certain chapter in Mr. Frothingham's Life of Gerrit Smith ensures Mr. F. B. Sanborn's 'Memoirs of John Brown' (Albany: Munsell) an eager reception.——Sheldon & Co. will publish 'Our Indian Population,' by Lt.-Col. E. S. Otis, U. S. A.——Lee & Shepard announce 'Voyage of a Paper Canoe from the Gulf of St. Lawrence to the Gulf of Mexico,' by N. H. Bishop.——Roberts Bros. announce 'How to Parse,' by E. A. Abbott: 'Bits of Travel at Home,' by Mrs. Helen Hunt Jackson ("H. H."); and 'Modern Frenchmen,' a series of biographical sketches by Philip Gilbert Hamerton.——Henry Holt & Co. have added to their interesting "Amateur Series" the collection of essays 'On Actors and the Art of Acting,' which we reviewed at length on its first appearance in England (*Nation*, No. 535). The American publishers have greatly increased the usefulness of the book by adding a well-made index, which is lacking in both the original edition and the Tauchnitz reprint. We may repeat here the words in which we formerly summed up the merits of the volume: "It is valuable, first, as the record of the impressions produced upon a mind of singular sensibility by many actors of renown, and lastly, indeed chiefly, because it formulates and reiterates sound opinions upon the little-understood principles of the art of acting."——We had given up *L'Année Géographique* as lost when M. Vivien de Saint-Martin retired from his fourteen years' editorship of it at the close of 1875. But though no one scholar felt competent to succeed him, MM. Hachette have persuaded MM. C. Maunoir and H. Duveyrier to take up his work and carry it on. They have accordingly completed the volume for 1876 that should have appeared a year ago, and it is now procurable of Mr. Christern; that for 1877 they promise about June. The revival of this invaluable annual is truly a matter of congratulation.

—We have received from L. W. Schmidt, 24 Barclay Street, the second volume of Dr. H. von Holst's 'Constitutional History of the United States.' The work appears at once with a new title and a new imprint. The publisher is now Julius Springer, of Berlin, and instead of Part II. of 'Verfassung und Demokratie der Vereinigten Staaten von Amerika,' we have Vol. I. of 'Verfassungsgeschichte der Vereinigten Staaten von Amerika seit der Administration Jackson's.' There is, however, no break in the continuity, and the growth of democracy still claims the author's attention as much as before. We shall reserve our criticism of this volume until the appearance of the English translation by Messrs. Lalor and Mason. Dr. Von Holst tells in his preface, by way of apology for the unexpectedly long interval between Vol. I. and Vol. II., of the difficulties he encountered in collecting the materials for the history of this later period of the United States. The German libraries were almost laughably deficient in them, and but for the timely assistance of the Grand-ducal Government of Baden, by which he was enabled to prolong his sojourn in London, he would have had to rely upon second and third-hand sources. Even the British Museum he found wanting in important particulars, though on the whole it served him beyond his anticipations. What he keenly felt the need of was a second visit to this country, and he contrasts the want of any provision for such scholarly pilgrimages with the Government encouragement of the study of antiquity. He remarks how much more important to Germany a knowledge of the United States is than of England, and yet incompetent newspaper correspondents and tourists are the sole source from which the great majority of cultivated Germans derive their ideas of "the great Republic." The Centennial Exposition was a revelation of our industrial standing, but a political and social revelation has still to be achieved. Dr. Von Holst mentions some signs of a more intelligent interest in American affairs, and hopes for a speedy change for the better. It is only fair to him and to his countrymen, however, to confess that his present work not merely is an aid to their enlightenment, but fills a gap in American history, and is therefore not less welcome to American scholars and publicists than to German.

—The fifty-third exhibition of the Academy of Design was opened on Tuesday. The first impression is that the collection is commonplace, though large, over seven hundred numbers being included in the catalogue. The sculpture-room is this year filled with pictures, the statuary being relegated to the east chamber on the ground floor. Striking works amid the general insipidity are Chase's "Jester," a well-modelled copy of deformity; Shirlaw's life-size picture of a young bather leading a bulldog to the water, the animal turning aside to snuff at the hole of a muskrat—a rather careful and statuesque study of an ephebas, suggesting the bronzes of Falguière and Frémiet; a "Boat-Crew" by J. G. Brown, the most sincere and versatile group of character-faces we have ever seen from his brush. Another group of faces, childish this time, of country youngsters, in the better style of Eastman Johnson; D. R. Knight's "Porteurs d'Eau du Village," from last spring's *Salon*, a very conscientious, patient study of landscape and figures, attractive from its scheme of light and shade and careful drawing rather than from any charm of color or quality; Mr. Homer's young farmer, walking a-field at dawn, and, though very American in character, seemingly listening to an English skylark; a good tree-study by Magrath, and several of his popular Irish subjects; a dog-group by J. H. Beard, hard and incisive as a jest, hard and hideous as a painting, called "Quixote and Sancho Panza"; a head of "Young Italy," an able lesson in pictorial method, by Sartain; a Venetian sunset by Sanford Gifford, one of those old-time falsehoods in tone which so many of the artist's friends have taken with infinite relish for truth; Swain Gifford's "Nonquitt Marshes"; Eakins's "Chess-players"; and C. H. Miller's "Sunset at East Hampton." Among the better efforts of the sculptors, visitors have remarked the ambitious and not unsuccessful "Whirlwind," by Mr. Hartley, and three or four surprisingly forcible portrait-busts of artists by W. R. O'Donovan.

—In the sudden death of Dr. W. R. Dimmock, master of the Adams Academy, at Quincy, Mass., the cause of higher education has sustained a great and, for the time being, an irreparable loss. In his peculiar province—as a teacher of boys preparing to enter college—it may well be questioned whether the equal of Dr. Dimmock was anywhere to be found. He approached very closely to the great ideal, Dr. Arnold, and, when cut off in the midst of his work, he was rapidly building up at Quincy an American Rugby. He was the first master of the school. The endowment came from President John Adams, but only as recently as 1870 had it accumulated to an amount which was deemed sufficient to warrant the forming of a school. In the autumn of 1872 Dr. Dimmock entered upon the duties of master, he himself composing the whole staff of teachers, and his school numbering some twenty boys of various ages. At the end of five years he had increased the number to one hundred and fifty. He died just as the reputation of the academy into which he had infused his whole being was firmly established, when the anxious seed-time was over, and his harvest seemed assured. Dr. Dimmock's peculiar force as a teacher was due in the first place to the genuine sympathy he had with boys. There was nothing of the old-fashioned schoolmaster about him. It was curious to see the deep interest and keen enjoyment with which he watched them at their sports—on the foot-ball ground, the beach, and the skating-pond. He knew every lad in his school individually, and could tell exactly what he was good for; and there were very few indeed who were not good for something. The healthy enjoyment of their boyhood which his scholars got at Quincy was, therefore, in curious contrast with the dreary recollections of the similar period in their own

lives which remains with those who were educated in the city schools of thirty years ago. But it was in the school-room that Dr. Dimmock was strongest. He taught individually, not mechanically. Thoroughly imbued with a love of the classics, he sat in his master's chair imparting a knowledge of something which he loved to boys whom he loved. Never for a moment was his school out of mind. It was his monument, his life's work. It is not often that a teacher of this sort is found, and no one can well measure the extent of the loss involved in his death. A generation of boys which would have passed under his great influence are deprived of it. Who can measure the extent to which Arnold infused himself into the lives of the present race of English gentlemen? Dr. Dimmock at the time of his death was but 43 years old, and consequently in the very prime of his powers. He sank under a violent attack of rheumatic fever, a repetition of one which had severely shaken his system some years before. His place as Master of the Academy will, it is understood, be temporarily supplied by Prof. William Everett, formerly of Harvard College.

—Northern New York may be said to furnish the local color to *Scribner's* for April. There are illustrated articles on "Deer-Hunting on the Ausable," "Among the Thousand Islands," and "How Lead-Pencils are Made," the geographical connection between the last and the first two being the graphite mountain at Ticonderoga. Mr. Julius Wilcox describes faithfully and well the operations of the Dixon Company in Jersey City in their enormous manufacture of crucibles and lead-pencils. What the accompanying pictures do not show, and could not easily have shown, is the nature of the remarkable machinery which has given this young industry such a start in advance of its European rivals; and the economy and cleanliness of the manufacture, though they do not go unmentioned by Mr. Wilcox, need to be seen in order to be appreciated. The timely paper, *par excellence*, in this number is Mr. G. B. Prescott's "The Telephone and the Phonograph." It is written with commendable regard for the understandings of laymen and is also amply illustrated. Neither of these inventions has reached its full development, and it would be premature to predict which is going to be of the greater advantage to mankind. Public interest in the telephone will be satisfied when the word spoken in France is heard by cable in Massachusetts; but scientists as yet see no end to its utility in solving physical problems or as an instrument of precision. The scientific importance of the phonograph, on the other hand, is temporarily obscured by its obvious practical applications, some of which are pointed out by Mr. Prescott, and the rest are now taxing the popular imagination. Of the two discoveries it is the more surprising that the phonograph remained so long undreamt of; in both the American genius has reasserted itself most impressively—in saying which we would not be understood as denying Mr. Graham Bell's title to fame as the inventor of the telephone.

—A correspondent writes us from Philadelphia:

"In connection with Mr. Hart's letter, in your issue of the 21st inst., concerning the probability of a large manufacture of counterfeit silver coins, of full value and weight, in this and other countries, permit me to call your attention to a resolution touching this matter passed at the fourth annual conference of the 'Association for the Reform and Codification of the Law of Nations,' held in Bremen, September, 1876.

"Dr. Bredius proposed, and it was resolved:

"'That, whereas, the great fluctuations and differences in the relative prices of gold and silver may afford the means of making extraordinary profits by coining the silver currency of countries having a double standard and importing the same into such countries; and whereas, it is doubtful whether the coining of such foreign currency, though not under weight or value, constitutes the crime of counterfeiting money or coining false money; and whereas, it is evident that such coining of foreign currency should be prevented, and, if perpetrated, punished by law: a committee be appointed to examine the question, and report upon it to the next Conference.'"

—"He who wastes in the kitchen," said the Grand Vatel, the hierophant of the stew-pan, "is no cook." "The number of inhabitants who may be supported in any country upon its internal produce," wrote Count Rumford, "depends about as much upon the state of the art of cookery as upon that of agriculture; but if cookery be of so much importance, it certainly deserves to be studied with the greatest care. Cookery and agriculture are arts of civilized nations; savages understand neither of them." Both these dicta have evidently been in the mind of R. O. C., the compiler of the English 'Official Hand-book for the National Training-School for Cookery; containing the Lessons on Cookery which constitute the course of instruction in the school, with lists of utensils necessary, and lessons on cleaning utensils,' all which lessons have been tested in the National Training-School. The book is a model of simplicity, clearness, and sufficiency, and yet it is as searching as Brillat-Savarin's 'Physiologie du Goût' The preface tells the aim of R. O. C. very plainly; and it is pleasant to find that these initials belong to the name of Miss Rose Owen Cole, a daughter of Sir Henry Cole, of the South Kensington Museum. This work, Miss Cole premises, has been written to explain in an easy way the first principles of good cookery, and in the form of lessons is especially addressed to those who wish to carry them into practice. She has endeavored to leave no detail, however small, vaguely stated. It is taken for granted that the learner has no knowledge on the subject. The loose expressions, such as "a pinch," "a little," found in all cookery books, are therefore avoided, and precise quantities are given. The work is not to be regarded as an exhaustive cookery book with numerous recipes. It professes to be rather a grammar than a dictionary. The lessons give a sufficient number of examples of cookery illustrating many degrees of cost. The work has been used and tested in the National Training-School for Cookery since 1875, and the instructors now employed in local schools throughout the country have been taught and practised by means of these lessons. It has been found that it is most convenient to practise the lesson with the instructions in sight close at hand. An edition of each lesson has been printed on separate sheets of thick paper, for the use of students and teachers, which may be obtained at the National Training-School for Cookery. Miss Cole may be congratulated upon having produced a really valuable addition to the literature concerned with the supremest branch of domestic economy. The hand-book is published by Chapman & Hall, of Piccadilly, London.

—M. Rameau has replied in the Canadian *Opinion Publique* to our strictures (in No. 652) on his 'Colonie Féodale,' and his reply has more than justified what we said, a part of it being irrelevant and the rest a simple repetition of his own errors. We quoted his assertion that *Massachusetts* "wavered for some years in a ridiculous system of communal labor" and then settled down on a system of feudal grants. To our comments on this absurdity he answers by triumphantly quoting authorities to show that communism once existed in *Virginia*, which has, of course, nothing to do with the matter. He affirms in his book that it was a general practice in the English colonies to grant out land under feudal tenures, divided into regular squares. This, he declares, he knows by the evidence of his own senses, having seen the squares himself. He has no doubt seen whole States laid out in squares, but it is ridiculous in one pretending to write history to refer them to an early period or a feudal origin. They are a recent device of the people he calls Yankees. "Another grievance!" says M. Rameau. "I have confounded *Genesee* (*sic*) with Fort La Tour and Fort Naxouat!" He has done so, and anybody undertaking to write the history of Acadia ought to know better. The mistake is small in itself, but so is the subject, and therefore the former is relatively important. Genesee, by the way, is a misprint for Gemsec or Jemsek. M. Rameau reaffirms the identity of these three places. Nevertheless, Fort La Tour, built at an early date by the adventurer of that name, stood at the mouth of the River St. John; Naxouat, built, in 1691, by the Governor of Acadia, stood high up the stream, opposite the city of Fredericton; and Gemsec, built at an intervening period, stood midway between them at the place which still bears its name. "Fourth grievance! I am accused of confounding *Porsmouth* (Portsmouth) with Pemaquid. Now, I never said a word about Porsmouth." He, however, says several words very incorrectly about Piscataqua, which was the original name of Portsmouth, as he ought to have known. "Fifth grievance! I have dared to say that the French colonies were *agricoles!*" What he did say was that they were "purement agricoles," which is absurdly erroneous. "Sixth grievance! I have confounded the Récollets with the Capucins." M. Rameau, a zealous though evidently not a well-informed Catholic, does in fact pronounce them to be precisely identical. If he will consult any good work on the religious orders, such as that of Helyot, he will discover that the Récollets and the Capucins are two distinct branches of the order of St. Francis. Both of them were in Acadia, the Capucins under the patronage of D'Aulnay and the other at a later period. M. Rameau says that English colonization was feudal in character as well as French colonization. Everybody knows that it had feudal elements at the outset, and that in a few trifling and exceptional cases feudal forms lingered far into the present century. But in most of the colonies the prevailing spirit was anti-feudal; and Massachusetts, which he uses as an illustration of his feudal theory, was, after the transfer of the charter, the most anti-feudal community on earth, both in spirit and in form. He asks why we do not enter the lists against him on his favorite thesis that the French colonists were morally, intellectually, and phy-

sically superior to the English colonists. Our reason is that it would be ridiculous to do so. We stated his proposition, and it would have been idle to refute it in any other way.

RICHTHOFEN'S 'CHINA.'*

I.

WE have before us, in the first volume of Baron Richthofen's magnificent work on 'China,' the beginning of a publication which marks a new era in our knowledge of Asia: embodying as it does the scientific results of four years of travel through nearly all the provinces of China, it promises many most important contributions to physical geography and geology in general. The present volume, which treats chiefly of Central Asia and of the development of knowledge concerning China, will be followed by two on the geology and physical geography, and one on the palæontology of China, and by an atlas; the whole is published under the auspices of the Emperor of Germany.

In defining the limits of Central Asia, Baron Richthofen lays down a law for the subdivision of continents which is both simple and equally important for geology and physical geography. The chapters which he devotes to the explanation of this law and to its application, in Asia and elsewhere, are in themselves an invaluable work, of which we regret that we can give but an imperfect outline. When over a considerable part of a continent the rivers cease to reach the ocean, owing to a deficiency of rainfall below the evaporation, then this undrained territory becomes a "central" area. The rest of the continent in which the streams flow to the sea is the "peripheral" region. The cause of the differentiation generally lies in an increase of continental area, and in the elevation of lofty ranges which act as condensing barriers interposed in the path of the rain-bringing winds. The distinction is physically fundamental, and exists in every department of physical and political geography. The result is a reversal of the usual geological processes. In the peripheral regions, which belong really to the moist borders of the ocean basin, all the products of disintegration and decomposition are carried to the ocean except such as are diverted into the cycles of plant and animal life. In the central area, on the other hand, these products are blown and washed from the hills into the valleys, where, lacking transportation to the ocean, they gradually fill up the inequalities of the surface. Thus, between the gradual degradation of the hills and the filling of the valleys, the tendency is for the country to bury itself in its own dust. To this is to be added the accumulation of material brought down from the summits and inward declivities of the well-watered peripheral mountains, and left, where the rivers sink away, to be blown about by the winds.

Central Asia, as it is most graphically described by our author, may be briefly outlined as a very shallow trough 1,800 miles long and about 400 miles wide. The bottom of this trough is about 1,800 feet above the ocean. The western half is enclosed south, west, and north by the lofty ranges of the Kwen-lun and Tien-shan and the tableland of Pamir, while the borders of the eastern half are reached by a gentle ascent—the southern edge varying here between 4,900 and 10,000 feet. This vast area was the basin of an ancient sea, whose shore-line is apparent to the geologist at points now 3,600 feet above the ocean in the eastern, and 4,500 feet in the western half. Richthofen adopts for this region the Chinese name *Han-hai*—the dry sea. This Asiatic Mediterranean was connected in the west with the ocean by a strait occupying the Djungarian Valley, and had for its worthy *propylæa* members of the mighty ranges of the Altai and Tien-shan. The most important structural fact in this elevated sea-basin is that its skeleton is formed by east and west ridges of older rocks; and that the formerly deep parallel basins thus produced are now almost obliterated by the younger deposits, whose surface, untouched by erosion, rises gently from the central axes of the former valleys to the very crests of the old ridges. The long central depressed zone—the bed of the vanished sea—true to its name of *Sha-mo*, or sea of sand, is a desert, in places covered with shifting sands, in others with gravel or coarse débris. The northern and southern declivities are grass-lands, but unfitted for agriculture by the abundance of salts in the soil. Only at the base of the snow-clad mountains, where irrigation is possible, do we find agriculture practicable.

Crossing the southern watershed into Northern China, we enter the peripheral region. It was in his extensive travels in these northern provinces that Richthofen gathered the materials for his far-reaching and brilliant theory of the origin and geological and geographical significance of the loess. South of the plateau of Central Asia there are vast areas occupied by loess, which fills valleys toa depth of hundreds and even thousands of feet. This material is an almost impalpable calcareous loam, so soft that it is easily crumbled in the hand; it is filled with very fine vertical tubes, branching downwards like the rootlets of a vegetable growth, and a careful study shows that these are lined with carbonate of lime. It is everywhere wholly unstratified, and wherever cut into by erosion, whether to the depth of one foot or hundreds of feet, it presents an absolutely vertical cliff. The vertical internal structure which it owes to its lime-lined vegetation-tubes gives it a cleavage in any vertical plane, so that the cliffs break down only in great perpendicular plates. But they stand intact for years—often, perhaps, for centuries; indeed, in many places, whole villages are excavated entirely in the base of cliffs one or two hundred feet high, suites of rooms being dug out on either side of the door, leaving a thin wall pierced with windows. Millions of people are thus housed in Northern China. Whole river systems, from the main streams to the smallest tributary brooks, are sunk vertically into this formation, which they erode into the most labyrinthine system of gorges. The water falling on the surface is instantly absorbed by the porous material, and the erosion is entirely from below, working backwards, up-stream. The surface of these loess basins rises at first gently, then rapidly, towards the adjoining hills. In the sides of the gorges near the mountains are seen layers of coarse débris, which in going towards the valley become finer and finer, while the layers become thinner and separated by an increasing vertical distance, until they are represented only by mere parting-planes, along which are numerous calcareous concretions—*loess-männchen*—of irregular elongated forms, which stand upright. These planes evidently mark a modification of the physical character of the loess sufficiently pronounced to localize the formation of the concretions. The separate beds thus formed vary from a few feet to generally over fifty and often over two hundred feet in thickness.

The trunk-streams have in many basins carved out a broad valley several hundred or one thousand feet deep, and cutting through many of these beds, the surface of each bed forming a terrace, bordered by the vertical face of the next higher one. The wonderful topography of these basins will be appreciated when we inform the reader that not only are all the tributary streams sunk deep and vertically into the loess, but that often each bed has its independent system of gorges and tributary chasms. The difficulty of engineering roads across such a country is very great. The roads also cut up the material, which is removed by the wind, and they sink deeper and deeper as the years roll on, until they, too, form gorges often one hundred feet deep. This is not in a barren and unpeopled region, but in thickly populated districts, for the loess is the most fertile of soils and inexhaustible, as it is, indeed, wherever it occurs in drained areas the world over. Richthofen shows that the loess is the *Hwang-tu*, or yellow earth—the basis of the prosperity of China and the seat of its principal culture from the earliest times.

The present writer had previously visited and described some of these remarkable loess basins, and had advanced the view that the loess was a lake deposit of silt brought from a distance. This view was adopted by all subsequent observers except our author, and is still held as being the more satisfactory. But Baron Richthofen, extending his observations over a large part of Northern China, found the same deposit at all altitudes up to eight thousand feet, and covering the crests of mountains as well as the valleys; it has everywhere the same character in the minutest details, and contains immense quantities of land shells and the bones of land animals, but no traces of marine or fresh-water life. He concludes, with reason, that the homogeneous and uniform character of the material over vast areas, the total absence of stratification and of marine or fresh-water organic remains, and the condition under which it occurs at all altitudes, preclude the possibility of its having been deposited under water. After a thorough discussion of the question, he advances a theory which is both masterly and remarkable for its completeness, and for the light that it throws upon some important problems in other parts of the world. Substantially, this theory says that the loess is a sub-aerial deposit, and that the loess-basins of China are the drained analogues of the steppe-basins of Central Asia. Both date, according to Richthofen, from a period of even greater dryness than the present, when the Hwang-ho and other local rivers were dried up. The products of disintegration, instead of being carried seaward, were at the mercy of the fierce winds of a treeless continent, and were blown from the hills into the valleys. The grass-covered surface received and permanently arrested the slowly-increasing deposit, which in raising the surface nourished the new vegeta-

* 'China. Ergebnisse eigener Reisen und darauf gegründeter Studien. Von Ferdinand Freiherrn von Richthofen.' Erster Band. Berlin: Verlag von Dietrich Reimer; New York: L. W. Schmidt. 1877.

tion, while the decay of the old produced the capillary tubes which, with their lining of lime, give to this remarkable material its vertical structure and its strength. It was the home and the tomb of countless snails, and of the animals that roam the steppes. The soluble decomposition products, having no outlet to the ocean, remained in the loess, or saturated the water of the isolated, undrained lakes, which often occupied the centres of the basins. A secular increase in the rainfall, exerted especially over Northern China, reversed the conditions; the erosion, working backwards, gradually drained basin after basin, and cut the deep valley and gorge systems which constitute the wonder of the region. The loess was gradually drained of its salts down to the stream levels, and transformed into the finest agricultural land. For, as Richthofen remarks, this soil is self-fertilizing, and land that has been continuously cultivated for more than four thousand years still requires practically no manure. This is partly because its extreme porosity causes it to absorb carbonic acid and ammonia in large quantity from the air; but it is more especially due to the fact that the rain, by establishing a moist communication between the surface and the saline water below the drainage level, causes the elevation of dilute solutions of salts, by diffusion in the capillary tubes, from which the vegetation takes its nutriment. While endowing this, the "transition" zone of Richthofen, with the conditions of a settled culture, nature in sculpturing the deep gorges destroyed the distinctive steppe feature of the region, and gave it the strongest means of defense against the neighboring nomad hordes.

This is a remarkably satisfactory theory, and one to which few objections can be found. No one who has witnessed the fearful dust-storms of Northern China, or the dust-fogs that extend more than 600 miles out to sea, can doubt the ability of the wind to perform the part assigned to it. But it is difficult to perceive a sufficient source of loess-making material solely in the disintegration of the rocks surrounding the basins, for it is evident that in so dry a climate this process must be exceedingly slow, and, also, that as the filling of the basins progresses, and the area to be covered increases, the consequent covering up of the rock must diminish the area of supply. Still, this is largely a question of time, and it ceases to be a difficulty if we suppose that the destruction of vegetation exposed to the action of the winds a great depth of rock disintegrated *in situ*, the legacy of several geological epochs.

But we can conceive a source which should seem to be competent to supply so large an amount of material, and that is the glaciers of High Asia and of the Tien-shan. The streams flowing from these vast *mers-de-glace* have been for ages transporting the products of glacial attrition into Central Asia and Northwestern China. This fine silt, left dry by the rivers as they sink below the surface, should seem to have been an important source to supply the wind with loess-making material. There is one more point of importance of which we think Baron Richthofen has not given as full an explanation as is possible; we mean the parting-planes which his predecessors, the present writer included, have wrongly considered as planes of stratification. These seem to us now, in the new light thrown by our author on the whole problem, to mark periods of arrested growth due to exceptional rainfall. This would account for the marginal layers of débris brought down from the mountains. And the continuous and more abundant growth of grasses *at one plane* would produce a modification of the soil, structurally and chemically, which superincumbent accumulations could never efface. It should seem probable that we have herein also the explanation of the calcareous concretions which abound along these planes; for the greater amount of carbonic acid generated by the slow decay of this vegetation would, by forming a bi-carbonate, give to the lime the mobility necessary to produce the concretions.

Poems in company with Children. By Mrs. S. M. B. Piatt. (Boston: D. Lothrop & Co.)—It is fairest to Mrs. Piatt to construe her title-page literally, and not to suppose that these poems were intended *for* children. It is doubtless for mothers who, like herself, have lost a little one or little ones that she composes and publishes these verses, from which a sighing for the dead is almost never absent. But, then, it seems a very morbid maternal instinct which is moved by the company of children only to poetry of this melancholy and abstracted sort, and we can as little recommend the collection to parents as to children. A few pieces offer exceptions for both classes of readers. The youngest, for instance, can understand and appreciate "Voices of the Night" and "The Little Boy I Dreamed About," marred though the latter is by two obscure and one funereal stanzas. Who would expect the bantering tone of

> "This Little Boy who never takes
> The prettiest orange he can see,
> The reddest apple, all the cakes"—

to be exchanged for this vein?—

> "Dead?—dead? Somehow I do not know.
> The sweetest children die. We may
> Miss some poor foot-print from the snow,
> That was his very own to-day—
> 'God's will,' is what the Christians say."

The following poem shows that Mrs. Piatt's dreary if clever muse not only improves occasions but makes them. It is called "Two Babies in Bed. [Little Guy's Answer]":

> "'Think of the Baby at home,' I said
> '(How pretty he is to kiss!);
> It is white and warm in his little bed,
> It is dark and cold in this.'
>
> "He laughed, and said, with his hand in the dew
> Of the sweet small grave close by,
> Where the grass of the lonesomest summer grew:
> 'This Baby does not cry.'"

A Text-Book of Physiology. By M. Foster, M.A., M.D., F.R.S. With illustrations. Second edition, revised and enlarged. (New York: Macmillan & Co. 1878.)—The second edition of this valuable text-book differs from the first mainly in the introduction of figures explanatory of physiological apparatus and of certain points of physiological anatomy. The additions to the text consist chiefly of references to recent investigations, and of a chapter of twelve pages on the "Phases of Life." To a student already familiar with the rudiments of physiological science, and desiring a more intimate knowlege of the laws of life as at present formulated, the work is invaluable, not only as a presentation of important recent acquisitions, but also on account of its wise suggestions as to the direction in which truth is to be sought in those fields where investigations have as yet yielded only uncertain results.

*** Publishers will confer a favor by always marking the price of their books on the wrapper.*

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Authors.—Titles.	*Publishers.—Prices.*
Alden (W. L.), Domestic Explosives	(R. Worthington)
Bi hop (N. H.), Voyage of the Paper Canoe	(Lee & Shepard) $0 50
Collyer (Rev. R.), The Simple Truth	" " 1 00
Ebers (G.), The Daughter of an Egyptian King	(J. B. Lippincott & Co.)
Forrester (Mrs.), Viva: a Tale	" " 1 50
Hillebrand (Prof. K.), Zeiten, Völker und Menschen, Vol. IV., Profile, swd	(L. W. Schmidt)
Holst (Dr. H. von), Verfassungsgeschichte der Vereinigten Staaten von America seit der Administration Jackson's, Vol. I., swd	(L. W. Schmidt)
Leeds (J. W.), History of the United States, 2d ed	(J. B. Lippincott & Co.) 1 75
Littell's Living Age, Jan.-Mar., 1878	(Littell & Gay)
Norman (C. B.), Armenia and the Campaign of 1877	(Casseli, Petter & Galpin) 4 00
Reuter (F.), Seed-time and Harvest: a Tale	(J. B. Lippincott & Co.)
Sauveur (Dr. L.), Introduction to the Teaching of Ancient Languages, swd	(Henry Holt & Co.)
Talks with Cæsar de Bello Gallico, swd	" "
Spencer (C. E.), The Viking, and Other Poems	(J. B. Lippincott & Co.)
Stanley (E. J.), Rambles in Wonderland: the Yellowstone Park	(D. Appleton & Co.)
Taine (H.), Origines de la France Contemporaine: La Révolution, I., swd	(F. W. Christern)
Ulbach (L.), Madame Gosselin: a Tale	(D. Appleton & Co.)
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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, APRIL 11, 1878.

The Week.

SECRETARY SHERMAN'S examination by the House Committee on Banking and Currency was resumed on Thursday last, but nothing very new was elicited. He explained that he thought he could procure $50,000,000 more gold, if needed, by the sale of bonds, though he declined at first to say where he would sell them, but afterwards admitted that it would be "at home." He also explained that by "gold additional" he meant "silver to some extent," because "silver and gold we consider the same under the law." Silver coin he would only part with for the present in exchange for gold coin or silver bullion; but he could not tell when he would begin paying out silver for the ordinary expenses of the Government, for that would depend, he said, on the "equality of the three kinds of currency, gold, silver, and paper," and "he did not know whether he made himself understood, but this was the idea he had in his mind." We confess it does not seem clear. Would he pay out silver if it was on an equality with paper and gold, or if it was not; or if it was on an equality with one of them, or with two, and if with one, which? In a subsequent very cloudy passage he seemed to declare that "the law declared all three equal," and he would so treat them, whatever their market value. He made an explanatory statement about the Sinking Fund, of no great moment, and then told Mr. Ewing how he would meet a run on the Treasury in case, after resuming, the greenbacks fell below par. If it "were necessary to resort to any means he would resort to such as have been adopted in other countries, the temporary suspension of specie payments"—or, in other words, do what broken banks have always done. There is no need to resort to foreign countries for a financial expedient of such great simplicity and efficiency. It would stop a run like magic.

As to the effect of a war in Europe on our supply of gold, he thought our exports of produce would be so large that we should not lose our gold, and that if Congress gave him the reserve he asked for, the Government would be stronger for resumption than the Bank of England. He expected that by December gold and paper would be at par, and then he would be in no danger; if they were not at par, Congress could interfere and relieve him from the operation of the Resumption Act. Here the indefatigable Ewing remarked profoundly that in the meantime the "country would be on the rack and torture of preparation for impracticable resumption"; whereupon the Secretary promptly corrected him by declaring that "the process towards resumption was *not* a harsh process"; that it was inflation which was "harsh." But Ewing confronted him with his mention before the Senate Committee of "the agony of preparation for resumption." Many men would have been disconcerted by this, but the Secretary escaped under a little cloud about "the instincts of human nature." There was a subsequent short discussion between him and Mr. Bell and Mr. Ewing as to the probable effect of the repeal of the Resumption Act, which we reproduce with diffidence because we must admit that we do not quite understand it; but it seemed to indicate that if greenbacks were at a discount, the Secretary would hold greenbacks in the Treasury and pay out gold till they rose to par, and then pay them out till they fell, and then hold them once more, and so on, on the principle of alternations.

The Senate has been almost exclusively occupied with discussing the Pacific Railroads Sinking Fund Bill from the Judiciary Committee. The Railroad Committee's Bill was unexpectedly withdrawn by Mr. Matthews on Thursday, and the railroad interest then devoted itself to the amendment of the measure not inspired by itself. The author of the proposed amendment was naturally Mr. Blaine, and its object was to induce Congress to give up its right to legislate hereafter in regard to the companies by altering, amending, or repealing the several acts affecting them. Mr. Thurman and Mr. Edmunds, however, held the Senate firmly to the bill as it came from their hands, and it was passed on Tuesday by a vote of 40 to 19, after Mr. Blaine's amendment had been rejected by yeas 29, nays 36. Two-thirds of those in opposition on the final vote were Republicans. In the House, Mr. Wood's Tariff Bill, the most important business of the session, was thrown out of turn by the farcical struggle over the Doorkeeper. The late incumbent, a Mr. Polk, of Missouri, the third appointed under Democratic auspices, was proved guilty of hiring a number of subordinates far in excess of that permitted by law, and who were maintained out of the appropriation only by a division of salaries. The fortunate appointees were in the habit of farming out their duties to others at a low figure, and pocketing the difference at their ease. The most amusing as well as the most scandalous feature of the case was the way in which the fourteen places assigned by law to disabled soldiers were filled; and never was the disgusting demagogy of such perversions of the civil-service more strikingly exhibited than in the fraudulent array of constructive "invalids" whom Mr. Frye depicted to the House with so much gusto. Polk was of course dismissed. On Tuesday, the Committee on Banking and Currency was allowed the 23d inst. as the day for considering their newly-reported bill to retire the national-bank note circulation. Mr. Wood succeeded in getting the floor for an exposition of the evils of former tariffs and the merits of his own, and the debate is now in progress.

Nothing is more striking in the proceedings of both Houses than the keenness of the interest with which anything bearing on patronage is discussed, as compared with the languor and indifference with which nearly all other subjects are treated. The great question of the appointment of a Doorkeeper to the House gave rise to a most animated debate on Friday and Monday, the *éclat* of the occasion being heightened by a most ingenious and apparently carefully-planned attempt of General Butler to "make a point on the Democrats" by nominating General Shields for the place, Shields being at once a Democrat and a Union soldier; so that if the Democrats voted against him they would have the air of rejecting him simply because he had been a Union soldier, and thus produce a profound effect on the entire American people, and initiate a period of great national prosperity. The proposal of the Democrats to put up a Mr. Field, a Confederate soldier, seemed to make the success of the Butler combination a certainty; but they did, as a matter of fact, elect Field, and then, by a gigantic effort of pure mind, they passed a bill putting Shields on the retired list of the army, thus giving him a pension of over $4,000 a year and covering Butler with confusion. There were also some profound juridical and historic remarks on both sides, Butler laying it down that by "all laws, human and divine," all West-Point Confederates ought to have been hanged, and Blackburn, of Kentucky, observing that the only person killed or injured by General Butler in his period of active service was Mumford, of New Orleans, whom he caught unarmed and hanged.

The passage of the Judiciary Committee's Pacific Railroad Bill by so large a majority in the Senate is another good sign of the times, for one reason, among many, because no bill has in late years been opposed by a more powerful and unscrupulous lobby. Jay Gould has for months been keeping open house in Washington in order to defeat it, and has rallied all the corrupt influences of the place to his support. Mr. Blaine, as usual, tried, in the slang of the Stock Exchange, to "straddle it" by his amendments, but in the discussion which followed received one or two well-deserved thrusts in the near neighborhood of his vital parts from Mr. Edmunds. Per-

haps, however, the most curious incident of the debate was the appearance on the scene of the Sycamore of the Wabash as the defender of the companies and of vested interests and of the right of contract, showing that he has not as good a memory as a charlatan ought to have, inasmuch as he has within a few months distributed millions of copies of his nefarious attacks on the contract of the nation with its creditors, and, indeed, on the title of every man in the country to his savings.

The appearance of Mr. Fernando Wood on the floor in advocacy of his Tariff Bill is remarkable as the first carefully-prepared attempt at constructive legislation within eighteen years on the part of the Democrats. We discussed last week the leading features of the scheme, and need not recur to them. Mr. Wood's speech in support of it was noteworthy also for its extensive use of the illustrations which the Free-Trade League have been extensively circulating for many years, but which somehow to most people wore until recently the air of pleasantries. His enumeration of taxes paid by the Western farmer on his house and clothing, for the benefit in a large degree of men who do not buy of him in return—for he sells his produce in Europe—begins at last to have a serious sound and to look formidable, owing to the altered economic condition of the country and the diminished hopefulness of the public temper. Even ten years ago, a list of the farmer's taxes—frightful as it now seems—only excited smiles, so deeply seated was the idea that it did a farmer good to be taxed, or that a well-taxed farmer was somehow a noble and touching spectacle. Mr. Wood met the charge that the proposed changes will diminish the revenue by a table showing that, taking present consumption as a basis of calculation, there would be a gain of revenue of $9,633,645 over the yield of last year. The theory that reduction of duties will produce the loss of the exact amount of the reduction is, however, an old and often-exploded fallacy, and now holds in finance the place which the theory of few sales and high profits holds in trade. All, or nearly all, trade is now conducted on the plan of small profits and quick returns, and if the principle has not completely worked its way into the art of taxation, it is because politicians are not as keenly alive to the public interest, or as quick in discovering it, as private individuals in dealing with their own.

The House Judiciary Committee by a majority of one vote has agreed upon a bill to provide for the distribution of the balance of the Geneva Award. It authorizes all persons or corporations claiming a title to any of the money to bring a suit in the Court of Claims at any time within a year, and directs the Court to "render judgment for each claimant who was an actual sufferer by the violation of the laws of neutrality by Great Britain for such amount as in their opinion he shall justly be entitled to recover under said treaty and award according to the principles of justice, equity, and the law of nations," and without regard to the rules introduced into the law creating the Court of Commissioners of Alabama Claims, excluding insurers unless they could show that their losses exceeded their profits. The act further allows interest at the rate of four per cent. from the date of the law, and provides for appeals to the Supreme Court which are to have precedence of all other cases.

The report of the Committee, especially when taken in connection with the report recommending the return of the balance of the Japanese indemnity, cannot but be regarded as a sign, in spite of the Silver Bill, of the declining influence of the sharper element in Congress and of the returning ascendency of sound jurisprudence, which means sound morals. We believe most of the best men in the House, including the best Southern lawyers, favor the reference to the courts. The last statement of the case of the insurance companies consisted in an exceedingly able argument before the committees of both Houses by their counsel, Mr. A. G. Sedgwick, which has been printed, and is worth reading by everybody who is interested in the subject as a very clear and full statement, not only of their case but of the claims of common honesty and common decency in this whole transaction. The argument is in form a plea for the reference to the courts which the Committee recommends, but its incidental applications of the rules of morality to the conduct of the United States in the transaction would be very useful reading for the college president and theologian who recommended our Government to dispose of the money as it pleased, and refer those in whose behalf it sued for it to the "tribunal of history"—perhaps one of the most curious illustrations of the moral disorder of the day we have yet had. In fact, the great difficulty of the discussion for those who have advocated the distribution according to the terms of the award has lain in the fact that the rule of duty has been very plain and simple, and exhortations to follow it have sounded so like the discourses of a jail chaplain to his interesting flock that one has shrunk a little from urging them on the attention of respectable legislators and a church-going public.

The Virginia repudiators have received a severe blow in the decision of the Supreme Court of Appeals of that State reaffirming the constitutionality of the Funding Act. The case simply involved the question whether coupons of State bonds were receivable for fines due the State, or whether such obligations must be discharged in money. The Funding Act of March 30, 1871, made these coupons receivable "for all taxes, debts, dues, and demands due the State"; and this provision has always been a serious source of annoyance to the repudiators. The constitutionality of this act, and its character as a contract between the State and its creditors, had already been declared by the court, so that the only question really before it was whether the "fines" were embraced by the terms "debts, dues, and demands." But owing to the recent attempt to pass the "Barbour Bill" in the Virginia Legislature the whole question was argued, and in the most solemn manner the court again declared that the Funding Act is a contract, the obligations of which the Legislature cannot impair. The manner in which the court meets the arguments against the constitutionality of the act is very gratifying. One of these was that fines and other revenues could not be paid in coupons because they were dedicated to the school fund; in reply to this the court quotes its previous opinion, in the first case in which the question of the constitutionality of the Funding Act came up, as follows: "It would seem to be a sufficient reply to say that if it were impracticable to raise a sufficient amount of revenue for both purposes, the latter did not impose an obligation on the Legislature paramount to the obligation to provide for the payment of the interest on the public debt. That was an obligation antecedent and paramount to the Constitution itself, and could not be repudiated by the Constitution, if it had so provided." And further, the court points out, what everybody but a born sharper must see, that the obligation to pay the interest, being one of *debt*, is necessarily higher than the obligation to provide for objects like public education, however desirable and important they may be. The great practical importance of this decision, besides the fact that it shows the judiciary to be untainted by the poison which has been rapidly spreading through the State during the last year, is that it makes all attempts at legislation like that vetoed by Governor Holliday futile. With the Governor and the Court of Appeals on the side of the public credit, and both taking the broadest possible ground on the subject, it seems now even possible that the Legislature may be driven to raising the money by taxation which it has been trying to get by swindling.

The South Carolina Democrats have reopened the Presidential controversy in the basest and most treacherous way. Mr. Wade Hampton has sent a requisition here for the body of Moses, some time Speaker of the Carpet-bag Legislature and afterwards Governor of that State, on a charge of forging a promissory note. The objections to this are obvious. If Mr. Hayes's title to the Presidency be good, Mr. D. H. Chamberlain is the lawful Governor of South Carolina, and the only person entitled to demand Moses's body on a charge of any kind. But Mr. Hayes's title *is* good; therefore Cham-

berlain is the proper person to seize Moses, or cause him to be seized. Chamberlain has not done so. He is here and Moses is here, and yet he takes no notice of him. Hampton's pursuit of the ex-Governor is, therefore, a piece of mean and malignant persecution. He says he made no pledges to the President when the troops were withdrawn about letting bygones be bygones; but who believes him? Wasn't he a Confederate brigadier? Moreover, Moses's forgery, even if committed, was distinctly a "political offence," because any offence committed by a politician is a political offence, as everybody knows. To crown all, Moses's counsel says the note was a usurious note, and therefore by all laws, human and divine, a legitimate subject of forgery. In fact, in whatever way we look at it, Moses is a victim, and is entitled to a rattling letter of sympathy from at least two "visiting statesmen." We trust the Administration will be up and doing. What does the Attorney-General say? Does not the spectacle of Moses in jail indicate the existence of a serious "gap in our system"? Unless speedy steps are taken for his release we fear the indignation of several editors may lead them into acts of violence. The very calm they now maintain shows the depth of their feeling.

During the week the opinion that England and Russia will not engage in war gained ground in the financial and trade markets, and accordingly the securities of those governments advanced (British consols to 94⅛), and the markets here and in Europe for breadstuffs and provisions declined. What is of perhaps more importance to this country, the rush of United States bonds from London to New York abated to a sufficient degree to cause a stoppage of gold exports from here (the total amount last week was only $300,000), and, late in the week, to depress the rates for sterling bills below the point at which gold coin can be profitably exported. The interesting question now is whether this abatement is temporary only, or whether most of the bonds that are to come have come. There was at the close of the week a margin of profit on importations, but the complaint among the bankers who have done most of this business was, that it was not so easy to buy in London large amounts at current quotations as for several weeks past. The trade exchanges continue to rule largely in favor of this country, and if these remain undisturbed by the bond movement, it will be very fortunate for us so far as coin payments are concerned. During the month of February alone we sold out of the country about $33,000,000 more of our products than we bought foreign goods. The last weekly statement of the New York banks disclosed a fact that has caused some uneasiness in the money market—namely, that the legal-tender note average was down to $26,600,000 against $42,250,000 last year. The banks have not held so few legal-tender notes since the panic of 1873. In the loan market the rate has been 6 to 7 per cent., and time loans also have shown remarkable firmness. Silver in London fell to 54½*d.* per oz., and the bullion value of the new silver dollar closed at $0.9242 gold. The gold value of the United States legal-tender note at the same time was $0.9925; this note is payable in silver as well as gold, but as silver dollars have not appeared in full supply, and as their value is still regulated by the laws that govern token currency, the markets have as yet taken no practical notice of the difference between the two kinds of coin dollars. Secretary Sherman visited New York to confer with banks and bankers on resumption matters.

A summary of Prince Gortchakoff's answer to Lord Salisbury's circular, for which Europe has been anxiously waiting during the past week, has reached this country by telegraph, but not until the article in which we have elsewhere discussed England's position was in type. It is both able and temperate, and indeed on many points does not admit of reply, and has evidently made a deep impression in London. Gortchakoff shows that Lord Salisbury acknowledges that a return to the programme of the Constantinople Conference, pure and simple, has been rendered impossible by the war; declares that it has never been pretended by Russia that the Treaty of San Stefano was a definitive settlement, as it is called a "preliminary treaty"; that the new principality of Bulgaria will be no more under Russian control than that of Rumania, which also owed its existence to Russia, and that she is willing to abridge the term of her occupation as much as possible; that the limits of the new principality were not finally settled, but sketched in general terms, so as to follow as nearly as might be the lines of race distribution, and that in giving it a port on the Mediterranean she simply sought to give it an outlet for the products of its industry, by which England and the other commercial powers of the West would profit more than Russia. That a Russian Minister should have to point this out to an English Minister is a striking illustration of the oddity of England's position in the affair. The Chancellor further says that in suggesting modest reforms for Thessaly and Epirus Russia merely wished to get something for the Greeks without appearing of herself to impose too much on Turkey; but this does not prevent Turkey from doing more for the Greeks, if she pleases, or the other Powers from exacting more. As regards the restoration of Bessarabia, he holds firm, the determination of Rumania not to surrender it notwithstanding.

As regards the indemnity, he maintains that its amount is small, out of all proportion to the extent of the Russian outlay, and is, therefore, not unreasonable, and that the cessions which Russia has asked in Armenia are merely valuable, not as territory, but as giving her fortresses which she has hitherto had to besiege and capture in every war with Turkey. The close of the note is an attack at close quarters, which may be fairly said to render the British position utterly untenable. He shows that Turkey has, by her failure to make the reforms stipulated for by the Treaty of Paris, broken existing treaties, and the Powers have broken them by interference on behalf of the Christians, as England and France in the occupation of Syria in 1860; that all this was fully acknowledged at the Conference, and Lord Salisbury himself now confesses that some changes in the existing treaties are rendered necessary by the active desire of the Powers to improve the condition of the Christians; that it is, therefore, for England now to say what she thinks these alterations should be, and propose the manner in which they are to be adapted to the situation created by Russian sacrifices in the war; in other words, that mere criticism and objections will not now do; that "practical propositions" are also called for. He remarks, also, with great force "that there is no remedy against mere suspicion," and no argument can meet it.

The chances of peace, on the whole, may be said to have improved, and it is remarkable that they have improved after each Russian state paper, showing both the ability of the Russian diplomatists and the fatal illogicality of the position in which the Conference left Great Britain. In fact, the war-fever has been created by rumors, music-hall songs, and blatant newspaper articles, and it has reached such a point of folly that to abuse Mr. Gladstone like a pickpocket has become in London a mark of good breeding and patriotic spirit. The address in reply to the Queen's Message has been carried against but feeble Liberal opposition both in the Lords and Commons. In the Lords, Lord Derby made an interesting speech showing that, in spite of all the declarations to the contrary, his differences with his colleagues began long ago, and that he has disapproved of nearly everything that has been done of a warlike tendency. He declared emphatically that even if the Congress scheme failed there was nothing in the situation to call for armed intervention on the part of England, and nothing to prevent the rational discussion of the Treaty of San Stefano point by point. There is no more positive news from Austria. She is reported to approve of England's position, but there is nothing definite as to the extent to which she would support it, and there are plenty of signs that her action, whichever course she takes, will be somewhat feeble.

THE REPUBLICAN PROGRAMME FOR THE FALL ELECTIONS.

WE are unable at this moment to recall any situation in the history of constitutional government so singular as that which was described in the following passage from Mr. Nordhoff's Washington correspondence in the *Herald* on Monday last. He says:

"The caucus of Republican Senators and Representatives which is to be held, if the party can be got together, early this week, is not only to select a Congressional Committee but also to confer about the platform for the fall elections. . . .

"The Republicans are a little at a loss for principles with which to go before the people. They need a new set, but do not like the idea of adopting them. A good many of them seem to believe that it would be a good thing to concentrate their efforts on abuse of the President, but the cooler heads object that while this would be a proper thing to do it is doubtful how much it would help to carry the elections, because there is a growing suspicion that the people rather like the President. On the currency question there is such a difference of opinion between Eastern and Western Republicans that it is generally admitted that nothing must be said about it. 'Let every one make his own fight in his own district on this subject,' is the word.

"Two or three efforts have been made to unite the party on the tariff and in opposition to all reform or change in this matter, but here it, too, threatens to split open if any attempt is made to tie it up.

"On the great question of internal improvements the party is pretty well united, but the party leaders see that in this period of economy and reform and general poverty this is not a good issue to put prominently forward.

"'The gallant and battle-stained old Republican party' does not seem to most of the politicians here a sufficiently promising watchword to stand alone. In this dilemma the Southern question is the only one which the general Republican mind thinks promising, and there is a disposition to reopen the rebellion and hoist the bloody shirt. Unfortunately there are no outrages nowadays, but there is hope that the Southern claims business, the rebel debt, the doorkeeper scandal, and one or two good harrowing historical outrages will carry the party safely through what is privately acknowledged to be a very tight place."

All other trustworthy advices from Washington confirm this account of the Republican embarrassment, and it is acknowledged also that the Democrats are no better off, so that we have two great parties whose principal object, at a period of great trial and perplexity, is to avoid dealing with any pressing question of the day, or, in other words, avoid the very work for which parties are supposed to exist. The currency question, for instance, is one of the most important which has ever come before the country, and the managers of the Republican party deliberately agree beforehand that in this the party shall have no views of its own, but that each candidate shall deal with it in his own district as best he can; that is, that a Republican may be in one district in favor of unlimited greenbacks, in another of "fiat-money"; in one of a double standard, in another of a quadruple standard, and so on. This plan of disposing of a great subject was adopted by the Greeley Convention at Cincinnati with regard to the tariff, and excited both mirth and disgust in the ranks of the regular Republicans, although the tariff question at that time had no such weight as the currency question has now.

Of course this confusion is, as the same writer points out, the natural result of the failure of the party leaders to organize public opinion by discussion on really serious topics. The Republican party lived for twelve years after the war on "outrages" and war memories, wholly neglecting the issues which, in a world of incessant change, and in one of the most changeful of modern societies, were sure to come to the front. In those twelve years the country passed through a great economic revolution; a large body of emigrants was added to its voting population; and, what was still more important, a whole generation of natives grew up who remembered nothing of the slavery conflict, and next to nothing of the war. They began to exercise the franchise without the benefit of any ventilation, in the press or platform, of the weighty social and political problems over which other countries were laboring fruitfully during the thirty or forty years of our absorption in the slavery conflict and its incidents. The consequence was that when the bubble of fictitious paper prosperity burst in 1873, and the peculiar management of the public service by General Grant and his "Senatorial Group" broke down under the weight of its scandals and abuses, and it became plain that something more than negro suffrage and "troops" was needed for national salvation, there arose the babel of confusion we are now witnessing. The experience of civilized man on knotty points of social practice was treated as of no value. Majority votes were taken in settlement of questions of pure science. Some of the worst abuses which had crept into our administration during the wandering in the wilderness were declared priceless adjuncts of republican government. Swarms of political lepers appeared on the highways, declaring that the old prejudice against leprosy was a monarchical delusion, and that a scaly skin was really a sign of strong vitality, and to the emancipated eye was not without beauty.

If it be asked why this continues; why men of strong political ambition do not come forward and rise to power or keep power by organizing and training public opinion, by rallying voters around great ideas, and by appealing to the instincts of civilization, the passion for both order and progress, the readiness to learn from experience to which all great nations owe their greatness, and none more than this—the answer is not far to seek. It can be more readily given by citing a concrete example than by the statement of any general principle. No State in the Union has been so much interested in the questions which have been occupying the public mind during the past year as the State of New York. The currency, the tariff, and the condition of the civil service are to her matters of transcendent importance. Rational and careful legislation about them, and the enlightenment of the public in other parts of the country about them, are essential to her growth and prosperity. No other State has suffered, and is likely to suffer, to an equal extent from ignorant or mistaken treatment or neglect of them. It therefore was the most natural thing in the world to expect that the past year would have been to her senior Senator one of unusual and, indeed, exhausting activity. Faithful service, one would naturally have said, would require of him incessant and eager preoccupation in aid of legislation intended to settle the standard of value on sure and lasting foundations, to make the tariff and the mode of collecting duties under it such as to render this port attractive to commerce, and to enable it to retain its old supremacy as a centre of distribution. One would have supposed that, under the circumstances, he would make many speeches on economical questions, consult much with business men, orally and by letter, weigh carefully the experience of foreign nations, and make himself a recognized and prominent authority on the knot of ethical, legal, and economical problems known as the Silver Question. One would have thought, too, that he would, even if an indolent or dull man, be driven into this sort of industry by the approaching close of his term, and that in no way would he expect to win a renewal of his senatorship so readily as by conspicuous interest about the commercial interests of the State and of the Union.

The truth is, however, that probably in no year since he entered public life has he been so silent and openly inactive as during the past year. Not only has he not shown any interest in the questions by which the country has been agitated, but he has actually been somewhat ostentatious in his display of indifference to them. He has made no speeches about them, introduced no bills about them, and has rather avoided a position of authority about them. In any other parliamentary country—in England, France, Italy, Germany, Switzerland—such a course at such a time would ruin him politically; it would make his defeat at the next election certain; according to the theory of our Government, and of all popular government, it ought to make his defeat certain here. Why is it, then, that he, shrewd and watchful and fond of public life as he is, is not only not afraid of defeat, but actually expects success through his very neglect of his proper duties? In explaining this we explain why it is the Republican party has no policy, and is now looking about and trying to find out what will be the best cry at the fall elections. Senator Conkling is not really idle or in-

dolent. He is at this moment, and has been all through the winter, one of the busiest men in Washington. There is no indiscretion in saying that nobody works more with his pen in his room or in the Senate. Bismarck is not a more indefatigable toiler, and when his lamp is seen night after night his admirers not unnaturally suppose that he is composing "an effort" on the currency or some other important subject of legislation. They have accordingly several times announced "an effort" from him, but have as frequently been disappointed. The reason is, that what occupies him is the "machine." His great correspondence is about "the machine"; his reading is about "the machine"; his meditations are on "the machine." It is through "the machine" that he expects to be re-elected and not through his opinions on finance or taxation, and, consequently, he does not trouble himself about these things. He is now and has been during the past winter occupied in the process called "subsoiling"—that is, in encouraging his "henchmen" in the various districts in this State, so that they may "control the primaries" which send delegates to the nominating conventions, and that they may control the nominating conventions so as to get as many "Conkling men" as possible into the Legislature which is to elect the next Senator, and control the Legislature now sitting so that no measure shall pass which would offend or trouble sound Conkling men in any doubtful district. He knows or believes that if these arrangements are all properly made, and if their working is not too visible, and if he does or says nothing in Congress that can be "used against him," he will be again returned, and that though large bodies of voters may be disgusted with him and desire his defeat, they will find it impossible to get rid of him. To trouble himself about the currency or the tariff, or to provide the party with a serious platform and to work for it, would to a man like him be, under these circumstances, a waste of time. It would probably be unjust to him, too, to suppose that in doing all this he is running counter to his conscience or neglecting what he believes the best interests of his country. Men of his mental calibre and moral constitution, who begin to work "the machine" at twenty-one or two, as he did, and to receive honors and rewards from it, rapidly reach the sincere conviction that a system by which they themselves thrive is on the whole a good one. No phenomenon is more familiar than this association of ideas. King Bomba really believed himself useful to Naples, and Louis Napoleon undoubtedly thought that he drew his enormous salary for saving French society.

THE EUROPEAN CONGRESS.

THERE is no longer any question that the British Ministry has, to all intents and purposes, the nation at its back in its attitude towards Russia, and that its greatest danger now is not that it will be feebly supported in going to war, but that it will be forced into war prematurely or unnecessarily. The humanitarian view of war which prevailed so strongly in England from 1860 down to last year, and furnished so much curious reading and speaking during the late conflicts in this country and in France, and even in Turkey, has, in fact, completely disappeared from the English press and platform. It appears to be no longer outrageous to go to war for anything but the preservation of national independence; it is no longer shocking to fight for mere power or dominion or empire. The fact that war will cause a vast amount of death and disease, and ruin thousands of homes, does not any longer appear to be a fatal objection to it. It is no longer amazing that "people calling themselves Christians" should be ready to use cannon and rifles against other Christians. In fact, the blind ferocity of the Northern States, and the cold, scientific brutality of the Germans, and the cruel readiness of the Russians to attack "the weaker party," seem to have lost their repulsiveness. Respectable English journals and moralists openly advocate an attack on Russia at this particular juncture *because* she is weak and exhausted, in defiance of that spirit of "fair play" which seemed so precious when Grant was driving Lee to destruction, and when Servia the other day took advantage of Russian victories to launch her battalions once more against the wearied Turk—the murdering, ravishing, impaling Turk, whose bloody hand had so often left its mark on the door-post of Servian cottages. There is, of course, nothing very surprising in all this, or, for that matter, very reprehensible; but the spectacle English opinion now presents is worth studying for the light it throws on the cause of the feebleness of her moral influence, which is a constant surprise to those who are most impressed by the splendor of her achievements in the arts both of war and peace.

There is, too, in the popular statements of the reasons for going to war with Russia an incoherent vehemence which makes the philippics against England with which the illustrious "Zach" Chandler at one time awed the Senate, seem much more rational and respectable than people here used to think them. The London *Spectator* discussed these reasons the other day, exposing their inconsistency and vagueness, in an able article which doubtless had a solemn air in London, but at this distance was somewhat comic reading. Some want to fight Russia because she is a growing power; others because she is tricky and untruthful; others because she is despotic; others because she has behaved so badly to Poland; others because she is weak, and others because she is strong. All seem to agree, however, that the war, when it begins, is to be a war of chastisement. It is to be waged to make Russia feel sorry and to improve her moral tone. According to the *Spectator*, some of the calmest and best people lose all self-control when talking about Russia. No defence of her is permissible in public or private, recalling so sadly the mania of 1863, when an English clergyman at a public meeting denounced the practice of talking of Americans as "brethren" or "cousins," and declared them little better than a lot of wicked and cruel savages, separated by their crimes and enormities from the rest of the English race, and whom it was, in a certain sense, a duty to dislike.

When one leaves the region of sentiment and rhetoric and comes down to the hard facts of the situation, the inconveniences of this state of mind for a community meditating war appear very great. We believe that with the exception of the first offensive war undertaken by the French Republic, and which had for its object the general chastisement of tyrants, every war undertaken by a civilized power within the last century has had a distinct, material aim, capable of definition on paper, and really considered capable of attainment by the use of existing military force; that is to say, it has been a war, in general terms, either for the conquest of territory or the expulsion of an invader, and when begun it was in the power of all the world to name beforehand a contingency on the occurrence of which it would probably, if not certainly, come to an end. An invader expelled, a province annexed, a government overturned, a fort or fleet seized or destroyed, and peace ensued as a matter of course. Take the war of which the object at the outset might have been pronounced most vague—the attack of the Allies on Russia in 1854. Then the first object was the simple one of driving the Russian army from Turkish soil and exacting guarantees for the safety of Turkey from similar attacks. The Russian army was consequently compelled to leave Turkey, and the great Russian fortress and fleet in the Black Sea, which constituted a standing menace to Turkey, were destroyed. This done, peace came as a matter of course. In the present instance, however, nobody seems able to say at the outset for what, militarily speaking, an English attack on Russia is to be made. It is not to restore Turkish independence or integrity, for it is admitted on all hands that these are gone for ever. It is not to drive Russia out of Turkey, for all admit that this withdrawal would saddle England with responsibilities about the evacuated territory which nobody is prepared to assume. It is not for the liberation of the Christian population of European Turkey from Russian rule, for the Christians are delighted with what has happened, and Russia does not propose to rule them. For what, then, is it to be? What achievement of the fleet or army would necessarily bring it to a close? How should we know at any stage in the struggle that it was drawing to a close? No answer to these questions can be obtained either from the English press

or the speeches or papers of the English Ministry. If the war is to be undertaken for the punishment of Russia as a wicked people or government, of course the difficulty would be as great as ever, for she might be brought to sue for peace without any improvement in her moral condition, and while retaining a fixed determination to recommence her evil courses as soon as she had recovered her strength. In that case not only would the war be fruitless, but it would be impossible to distinguish it from the wars of pure hate or religious bigotry by which Europe was disgraced down to the seventeenth century, and the repetition of which by a Power like England in our time would be a shocking spectacle. In fact, it would closely resemble in theory the Butler and Phillips plan of harassing the Southern States with troops and provost-marshals until the whites became "good" and "repentant."

The English demands on Russia have, it is true, been for the first time formulated by Lord Salisbury in his recent circular, and consist simply in the requirement that she shall bring to the proposed Congress the Treaty of San Stefano, and submit it for the approval of the Powers there represented, and abide by their decision. The *Pall Mall Gazette*, commenting on this requirement in an elaborate article, lays it down that she must not only submit all the articles of the Treaty, but the approval of them by a majority of the Congress will not be sufficient: the approval must be unanimous or the Treaty cannot stand, and the Congress alone can decide whether any particular article does or does not affect the interests of other European Powers, "and it is to be deemed to affect those interests unless the Congress unanimously decides that it does not." Russia, too, is to appear before the Congress simply as a suitor before a Court of Chancery, and is to present the Treaty as her "bill," or, as Lord Beaconsfield puts it, her "suggestion," praying that certain alterations in the map of Europe may be made. That this is a careful statement of the position of the war party in England we do not doubt. It is based on the participation of Russia in the Treaty of Paris in 1856, and in the declaration of 1871, when that Treaty was modified, "that no Power can liberate itself from the engagements of a treaty, nor modify the stipulations thereof, unless with the consent of the contracting Powers by means of an amicable arrangement." The argument ignores the fact that every treaty made in Europe since 1815, and including those of 1815, except treaties of commerce, have been treaties recognizing, in whole or in part, a change in the distribution of power *brought about by war*. The separation of Belgium from Holland, of Schleswig-Holstein from Denmark, the expulsion of the Austrians from Italy, the creation of the Kingdom of Italy, the annexation of Alsace-Lorraine to Germany, the creation of the German Empire, have all been profound changes in the constitution of the political society called Europe, and have all been recognized by treaty, and have all, in a greater or less degree, affected the interests of other Powers than those immediately concerned. The Treaty of 1856 was no exception to the rule. France and England, who were the conquerors in the war of 1853–5, and imposed serious penalties on Russia as the consequence of military success, did not appear as plaintiffs by "bill" before the conference in Paris and pray for permission to reap the fruits of their success. They appeared with the results of the war as accomplished facts, and asked the other Powers to take note of them and recognize them, and their representatives would probably have smiled if informed by Prussia that Russia must be permitted to restore Sebastopol and rebuild her fleet in the Black Sea, unless all approved of the Treaty. The period at which the Treaty of Paris was violated, if at all, was when the war began. The invasion of Turkey by Russia alone was proclamation that Russia proposed to set the Treaty aside, in the one way by which treaties are capable of being set aside—a resort to force. By allowing Russia to begin the war, and specifying the interests which must not be touched in the course of it, England acknowledged its lawfulness and her respect for the usage which makes war a court of appeal from treaties, and its results the facts on which all treaties must be based. Her demand now that the war shall be treated as *non-avenue*, and that Russia shall ask for a modification of the Treaty as if she had not fought and conquered—as a suitor and not as a victor—is not simply unreasonable but unprecedented.

RENAN ON THE FUTURE OF FRANCE.

PARIS, March 23, 1878.

MONSIEUR RENAN has just republished in one volume* various essays which appeared at very distant intervals and in many places. I will simply give a list of them : On the part of the Semitic nations in the history of civilization (1862) ; Ancient Egypt (1863) ; Twenty days in Sicily (1875) ; The discovery of Nineveh (1853) ; The Schanameh (1877) ; The Cæsars (1868 and 1870) ; Examination of some facts connected with the Empress Faustina (1867) ; The origin of the French language (1853) ; The Art of the Middle Ages and the causes of its downfall (1862) ; The 'Golden Prairies' of Masudi (1873) ; Mussulman Spain (1853) ; Ibn-Batutah (1853) ; The Desert and the Soudan (1854) ; The Berber society (1873) ; History of public instruction in China (1847) ; History of classic philosophy in antiquity (1848) ; Philological congresses in Germany (1848) ; The Greek grammarians (1854) ; The primitive grammar of India (1857 and 1859) ; Joseph Victor Le Clerc (1868) ; Speech delivered at the public sitting of the Academy of Inscriptions and Belles-Lettres (1871) ; Letter on the freedom of the higher education (1875).

I would only call attention to the long preface which M. Renan has written for this collection of essays and speeches, as he has seized the opportunity to tell the public what he thinks of the prospects of France and of democracy. You must remember the 'Réforme intellectuelle et morale de la France,' a book written after our great disasters, full of pathos, of high, delicate, and generous ideas. Renan felt at the time that two ways were opened to France, so he placed a sort of dilemma before her. She could save herself by what he called contrition, by organizing herself as Prussia had done after Jena, by work, sobriety, austerity ; she could try to rebuild an authority, a nobility, a monarchy, a social hierarchy. The monarchical form was not essential to this solution, as it is possible to imagine a hard, stern, austere, and Spartan republic ; but this solution (which we might call the solution of the narrow way in contradiction to the easier solution of the broad way) required puritanic views of life, of social as well as of political life. The easier solution, the broad way, was the continuation of all the social and political habits which had characterized the Second Empire, a sort of universal corruption, the plunder of the national fortune, socialism invading legislation, a demagogy governed by adventurers and sycophants. Renan imagined that the corruption engendered by this second solution would finally spread all over Europe, and that France, in virtue of her superior genius in art, in literature, in social amusements, might reconquer the world as Greece had reconquered Rome. Clearly his preference was for the first solution, for the narrow way. His monkish character, the purity of his own life, the spirituality of his intellect, inclined him towards a general contrition ; he was ready for monarchy, for the reconstitution of a nobility ; to keep together the pieces of France, nothing seemed then too strong in his eyes. At the same time, he had but little hope that France would long remain in the mood in which she was after the loss of Alsace and Lorraine, and after the criminal scenes of the Commune. There is a sort of perverse elasticity in the young man whose blood runs too quick which soon makes him forget his good resolutions. This levity can be forgiven in a young man, as time and the sorrows of life may cure it ; but levity is incurable in an old man, as time only brings him nearer what we call the second childhood. The spirit of national reform, the atavic longing for order, for a stern rule, the ardent desire for falling in the ranks and reorganizing, which were so visible a few years ago, have been dissolved, so to speak, in the acid of politics and in the strife of parties. The struggle for power has become the moving power in the nation.

France has not obeyed the voice of men like Renan ; she has obeyed the words of such men as Emile de Girardin, who seriously proposed a few years ago not to teach French history in our colleges—men who wish France to forget all her past, to disarm, to make money by all means ; men who believe that bi-metallism, vivisection, sanitation, phonographs, photographs, theatres, orchestras with two thousand musicians, universal exhibitions, are the only subjects worthy of the attention of the mind. Renan is himself out of the strife of politics. Such men as he are not and cannot be the favorites of parties ; he is a witness, not an actor. He

* 'Mélanges d'Histoire et de Voyage. Par E. Renan.' New York : F. W. Christern. 1878.

hardly tries to produce an effect on public opinion ; he observes, and this is what he says now in 1878 :

"To the mode of penitence and to a return to the past France preferred the continuation of the democratic programme, according to which the state, constituted by the totality of the individuals, has no other object than the happiness of the individuals, and understands it as they do themselves, and has no other object than what is felt and conceived by this totality of individuals. The consequence of such a state of things is the pursuit of comfort and of liberty, the destruction of whatever remains of privilege and of class feeling, the weakening of the principle of the state. The individual and the groups subordinate to the state, such as the department and the commune, will find themselves well off under this régime ; but it is to be feared that the nation, the country—France, in one word—will lose every day something of its authority and of its strong cohesion."

What Renan called in 1870 the Prussian solution was the initiation of a system of difficult reforms, the sacrifice of the individual to the ideal state, a political constitution which gave to the executive a great power and the right to carry on national designs outside of the dust of parliamentary life; an organization which supposes classes apparently privileged, but in reality simply placed apart for the service of the country. Events have decided otherwise. France did not clearly see the necessity of such thorough reforms and of such a reaction against the spirit of the French Revolution. Could Europe have helped such a reaction ? It is doubtful. At any rate, it did not. The press of England, a country which has a monarchy, privileged classes, aristocratic institutions of every sort, has not ceased for a single day in the past ten years to support the democratic solution for France. Gambetta would probably be received by the proudest aristocracy in the world with as much enthusiasm as Garibaldi. And what shall we say of Germany ? "It is not," says Renan, "for the interest of Germany that France should reform in the way she herself did from 1808. The interest of Germany would rather be (so she thinks, at least) that France should remain in that state of political and military weakness which in some senses is the consequence of democratic and republican government."

The reforms which Renan asked for in 1870 can only be accomplished with the aid of the old national dynasty. If France wished to renounce "the world, the flesh, and the devil," she would have proved it to herself by a return to the past. She was, I believe, at one moment ready for this act of contrition ; but, says Renan, "the conduct of the Comte de Chambord settled the question. From the month of November, 1873, the position of France has been what the position of Prussia would have been if Frederic Wilhelm III. and his dynasty had abdicated after the battle of Jena." M. Renan does not despair of the future of France, but on some points he dispels many illusions:

"What we shall have may be most agreeable, most brilliant, most amiable, provided we do not pretend to join to the delights of the *laissez-aller* the advantages of a strong government. . . . What is in reserve for us is not violence, it is weakness. For the individual initiative the era which seems to open may be an excellent time ; for the great political direction it will be almost null. If external events let us alone we may give the example of the richest and most varied production which can be imagined ; but there will be no mastership exercised by any authority. A sort of universal indulgence will allow everything ; in the end a general solvent will destroy every magistral influence coming from an aristocratic class or from groups of élite."

In short, Renan sees in democracy the reign of a comfortable mediocrity ; he views the prospect with philosophy, and he believes that all countries will by and by arrive at the state in which we are ourselves. Is it true, as he says, that our children will see in all Europe the national passion expire? Will internationalism, which thus far has only appeared to our eyes under the red rag of the Commune, assume a decent form? Will glory even become a burden ? Renan believes that Germany herself will become sick and tired of it : "She will find, as France did in 1813, that military domination is bought at too high a price ; under the weight of an intolerable burden she will envy those whom she has conquered. She will demonstrate once more this truth, established by the reigns of Louis XIV. and of Napoleon I., that the greatness of nations is oftentimes in inverse ratio to the happiness of the people." It may be, as Renan thinks, that the progress of influence in the people, that the exercise of political rights, will teach the individual a certain sort of egotism which is almost in contradiction with patriotism. But I doubt if the example will be so soon followed by all the nations of Europe. France may become as inconvenient in peace as she has in old times been in war to the kings and emperors of Europe. It has hitherto suited the three emperors to make the bed of Gambetta, to use a French expression; Gambetta may himself, after having played Danton during the war, now be content to play Barras. The French Republic may become very polite, very pacific, very amiable. The mere fact that it is possible in the midst of Europe to carry on a republican government, with universal suffrage, without a king or an emperor, is an ominous fact for all the dynasties of Europe, and the longer it lasts the more it will become so.

Renan has a sort of elasticity which allows him to find consolation and compensation for everything. He wished the monarchy, and he is contented with the Republic. He desired the Prussian solution, he finds some relief in the democratic solution, because the remains of our aristocracies seem to him very mediocre. Thought, at any rate, will be free. "Let us recall," he says, "those lugubrious years of 1849, 1850, 1851, when the human mind was domineered over by its enemies, and the first ten years of the Empire, when all that was not mediocre or frivolous seemed dangerous. We will never be the flatterers of democracy ; but let us confess that it will not be difficult for democracy to equal the aristocracies of those times ; now, at any rate, we are free." And a minute afterwards Renan, with a sort of curious irony, dissects this new freedom :

"Galileo, in our days, would have no god to fear. He would assist at the triumph of M. Raspail [a quack chemist who cured every malady with camphor and who was one of the deputies of the Extreme Left]. Surely he would be enough of a philosopher to be very little affected by it, and he would even see that this triumph is, in some measure, legitimate. Let us profit by the present hour, let us enjoy it ; it is good and sweet. Let us try to surpass ourselves. Do not let us turn away from our country, even when she does not take our opinion. She is perhaps in the right. Poor France ! *malo tecum errare quam cum ceteris recte sapere.*"

Such a preface speaks volumes ; under its irony and its optimism it is impossible not to feel a certain sort of discouragement and of lassitude. Renan is not the dupe of his own words. He knows well enough that the triumph of Raspail is not enough for Galileo ; and even that the quiet enjoyment of free thought is not enough for a country, especially when free thought can find no more hearers. A society, be it democratic or not, must find its support in a certain ideal, in a set of traditional notions. When you speak of New England, for instance, as it was thirty or even twenty years ago, you know what you speak of, you have a definite notion. Democracy, as it was then understood, was a force and a living power. When democracy becomes a mere word, which covers a process of endless disorganization, it is something quite different. You have a right to ask of a government what you ask of an individual. What can you do ? What are you fit for ? Our present constitution, imperfect as it was, had originally some good points ; it has already lost most of its power—the presidential power has annulled itself ; the senatorial power is losing its force every day ; the real power is in a chamber elected by universal suffrage. Has this chamber any great national aim ? So far, it has only shown its activity in questions which affect individual interests and personal passions.

Correspondence.

THE HOUSE OF REPRESENTATIVES.

To the Editor of The Nation :

Sir : I wish that your readers would peruse carefully the striking letter from your Washington correspondent with the above caption, and see if it does not lead directly to the conclusion that the Cabinet officers ought to and must have seats on the floor of the House. I will confine myself to the points therein touched upon. The second paragraph shows conclusively that the business brought before the House depends not upon its relative importance to the country, but upon parliamentary tricks in collusion with the Speaker, and is therefore guided by personal and party ends. Next it appears that individual energy and zeal for reform are stifled by being thrust into unimportant committees.

Then follows a clear description of the almost despotic power of the Speaker. Considering the outcry which is so easily raised by the spectre of "one-man power," it is simply amazing that the country will endure the concentration of such enormous and perfectly irresponsible power in the hands of this official. It does not come from the Constitution, but has grown up from the necessity that *somebody* should have the control of business. In the British Parliament the Speaker merely guides the forms of business, and that should be his function here. But he has come to add to it nearly all the powers in one direction of the executive ministry. The chairmen of the committees are merely his lieutenants. See the vicious circle : The House elects the Speaker, and the latter appoints the committees. He must satisfy the claims of his supporters, utterly regard-

less, it may be, of the national welfare. As your correspondent says, the power of the Speaker over legislation may not unfairly be reckoned much larger than that of the President, and he might have included the heads of departments, and scarcely less than that of the Senate. The wonder is, not that things are no better, but that they are not ten times worse than they are.

Is it not the natural and logical remedy to remand the Speaker to his proper functions, and to place the guidance of business in the hands of those who are responsible for carrying on the Government? The two powers would be a check upon each other. The Speaker would hold the Secretary tightly to the forms of business, and the latter would fight off any illegitimate encroachment on the subject of it. Even if much of the business remained with the standing committees, the Secretary would constantly be urging the consideration of a few topics of national importance, and that in definite shape. Is it not pitiable to see Mr. Sherman running from one committee to another, each in turn squeezing him dry merely to gain the requisite data for defeating what plans he has—in other words, getting a chance to see his hand without showing their own! Can any effective responsibility come from such work?

The reason that independent members can get no hearing now is, that each wants to take a separate direction. Then these members would show their strength in supporting their party leaders. The ranks on both sides would fall into some kind of discipline, and, as debate would then have some meaning, the House would soon signify what speakers it wished to hear. The plan attributed to Mr. Hewitt of diminishing the size of the hall, and substituting benches for desks, would then be very appropriate, but is of no use while the general object is *not* to have any effective debate.

The obstacle lies in the jealousy which is common to all assemblies of men. The interest of the country is in organization and leadership; that of members of Congress, at least in its present condition, is in the distribution of little bits of power to all, with responsibility for none. If any reforms are to be effected the issue must be taken directly to the people. G. B.

Boston, April 6, 1878.

THE DUTY ON INDIGO.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In your article on the "New Tariff Bill," April 4, you say that the most important amendment to the original draft consists in the return to the free list of various articles, among which you mention indigo. As there is no list of articles free from duty in the bill as printed, I presume you base your remark upon the striking out of the clause in the bill as originally submitted to the Committee, in which a duty of ten (10) per cent. was placed on indigo. I have no doubt it was the intention of the Committee to strike off the duty on indigo; let us see if they have done so.

The new Tariff Bill proposes (lines 980 to 994) duties on paints and dyes, and concludes: "All other . . . dyes . . . by whatever name known, except madder, munjeet, and alizarine, twenty (20) per centum ad valorem."

Should indigo be decided to be a dye, and it probably comes within that description, the duty imposed upon it by the amended bill will be *twice* that proposed by the original draft. I think the bill contains other similar cases—inadvertences, no doubt, arising from want of time to perfect its details and language. I cite indigo because I am a very large consumer. Yours respectfully,

R. S. Fay (of Boston).

Washington, D. C., April 6, 1878.

THE MISSOURI BOND AGENCY.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In No. 662 of your paper I notice a communication from a Boston correspondent, in which I am spoken of as "a regularly-appointed official swindler," and the law of Missouri under which I was appointed General County, City, and Municipal Agent characterized as "a barefaced invitation from the State to the cities and towns to cheat their creditors." If before writing his letter your correspondent had consulted Nathaniel Thayer, John W. Brooks, R. S. Watson, Charles Merriam, Sidney Bartlett, and other distinguished men of Boston, with whom I have had business relations for more than twenty years, he would not have called me a "swindler"; and a plain statement of facts in reference to this subject will convince any candid mind that the State of Missouri, whose financial standing is second to no State in the Union, is not inviting or assisting its local municipalities in repudiation. What are the facts?

There are outstanding about thirty millions of bonds issued by Missouri municipalities to aid in railroad construction and other public improvements. A few communities are thus bonded to an amount exceeding the value of their entire real estate, their municipal organizations have been abandoned and their property is wasting away; others are thus indebted to the amount of one-half and one-third of their taxable property, and many to an amount sufficient to destroy all hopes of future prosperity. Business experience teaches that oftentimes indebtedness is contracted beyond the ability of payment; and in the mad rivalry of young Western municipalities, stimulated by the ever-present speculator, very many counties, cities, and towns find themselves hopelessly bankrupt, and many honest and innocent investors discover themselves the owners of securities daily decreasing in value, with no reliable channel of communication between debtor and creditor, and no effort being made to accomplish the only possible relief, an adjustment upon fair and honorable terms. It is admitted that there are in the West efforts being made to repudiate or force a compromise by a few municipalities amply able to meet all debts. These efforts are condemned alike by all honest men, East or West, are seldom successful, and properly result in loss of character and credit at home and abroad. But I defy your correspondent to point out a single instance in which the Legislature of Missouri, or any judge or court of respectable standing within this State, have ever invited or aided any municipality to "cheat their creditors." On the contrary, their enactments and decisions have uniformly been upon the side of honesty and the enforcement of contracts.

The infirmities of our outstanding municipal bonds, and the causes of defaults generally, are about as follows:

1st. Being based upon taxation, the bonds were issued either without a vote or other assent of the people, or, if by vote, the submission was had at a time when a large proportion of the taxpayers were disfranchised. This rendered these securities unpopular, and the people were easily led to resist payment.

2d. The tax to pay the interest and maturing principal can only be levied and collected by the municipality itself. This frequently placed it in the power of a few noisy citizens to manufacture an *apparent public sentiment of repudiation*, in accordance with which, in some instances, the proper officers declined to levy the tax.

3d. When the annual tax was levied and collected to pay semi-annual interest, the first coupon of the year was promptly paid, but that part which should have been reserved to meet the next coupon frequently has been used for other municipal purposes, and default followed.

4th. About the only method known to the law of the judicial enforcement of judgments against municipalities is by mandamus, directing the proper officers to levy and collect a tax for its payment. The Supreme Court of the United States indicated that if there were no such officers, then the powers of the courts ceased. This suggestion was followed by wholesale resignations of municipal officers, many of whose places still remain vacant, and the process of the courts is thus practically defeated.

By recent constitutional enactment *all bond-issuing power to aid in public improvements* has been taken from our municipalities except in payment of existing debts; in other words, the highest law of our State commands that our counties, cities, and towns shall not weaken their capacity to pay what they now owe by contracting new debts. Recent statutes authorize funding bonds to be issued in payment of municipal debts, and require all bonds so issued to be registered in the office of the State Auditor. They also authorize the special tax to pay interest to be levied and collected by the State with its own revenues, and on judgments being rendered, if the municipal authorities fail to levy and collect the tax to pay the same, the court may appoint an assessor and collector who shall have all the rights, powers, and privileges conferred on the assessors and collectors or other proper officers by the laws of the State.

The law also creates a new office, "General County, City, and Municipal Agent," the duties of which I am endeavoring to discharge. I am required to possess myself of full and reliable information as to the actual financial condition of each bonded municipality, and place myself in communication with the holders of their securities and to assist in making compromises between parties when mutually desired. It would seem that the intention of the State, in the creation of this office and the enactments referred to, could hardly be misapprehended; it was simply to afford our insolvent counties, cities, and towns to become acquainted with their creditors, and, if possible, to make an honest compromise by paying all they are able to pay, and to furnish to the creditor such accurate in-

formation as will enable him intelligently to accept or decline the compromise offered. To the municipality abundantly able but stubbornly unwilling to pay its honest debts, or to the exasperated and indignant bondholder who, like Mr. Seaver, your correspondent, thinks the Legislature, the Governor (himself a New-Englander by birth and education), and the State Agent are all trying to assist the "cities and towns to cheat their creditors," I can render no service ; but it may be that I can be of service to some of the holders of these securities by furnishing accurate information of the capacity and resources of their debtors. I hope also to be of much service to those of our unfortunate municipalities whose ambition or folly has brought them to actual insolvency.

It will be seen that the State by this new law authorizes the issue of a very superior class of funding bonds, and has provided for the prompt and certain payment of principal and interest. It is my intention to have such funding bonds as are exchanged through this office uniform in the rate of interest and embracing all the attractive features authorized by law, which will add to their marketable value and make them standard and desirable securities. The power to create new debts of this character being destroyed, I feel confident that in emerging from their present embarrassments the financial history of the State will repeat itself in her municipalities. I will add that I am in communication with several hundred holders of municipal bonds, and that Mr. Seaver is the only person who seems to have entirely misconstrued the object, scope, and administration of the compromise funding laws of Missouri.

In the hope that the foregoing may disabuse the minds of some of your readers who are holders of Missouri bonds, I request its insertion in the *Nation*. Very respectfully, James Craig,

General County, City, and Municipal Bond Agent for Missouri.

Jefferson City, Mo., March 27, 1878.

Notes.

MR. SERENO WATSON'S 'Bibliographical Index to North American Botany (Part I. Polypetalæ),' an octavo volume of little short of 500 pages—a large instalment of a formidable work—is, indeed, a boon to the botanical world. Not simply clerical labor but critical investigation has been lavished upon it, and its faithfulness and thoroughness are beyond praise. It is a tremendous undertaking. The Smithsonian Institution has assumed the expense of printing it, which has been executed in the best manner, and it forms No. 258 of the miscellaneous collections. We may do some service by mentioning that the volume (in paper covers) may be supplied through the mail to any who will forward the price fixed by the Smithsonian, $2, to the curator of the Harvard University Herbarium, Cambridge, Mass., and that for an additional quarter of a dollar a moderate number of copies can be supplied in cloth binding.——The fourth session of the Summer School of Geology of Harvard University will be held, as in the beginning, in connection with the field work of the Kentucky Geological Survey, affording practice on the various problems of physical geography accessible between the Mississippi River and the Appalachian Mountains. The term will be six weeks in duration, from June 15, and the fee (exclusive of moderate weekly expenses) fifty dollars. Further information may be had of Prof. N. S. Shaler, Cambridge, Mass.——A summer school will be opened in connection with the well-equipped Illinois State Laboratory of Natural History at Normal during the vacation, from June 26 to July 24. The tuition fee will be ten dollars. Anatomy, botany, chemistry, and other branches will be taught. The director is Mr. S. A. Forbes.——The Butler University "Scientific Expedition and Summer Tramp" will leave Indianapolis, June 20, for Kentucky, Tennessee, and Georgia, with "natural history, health, and scenery" for its objects. Particulars may be had of Prof. D. S. Jordan, Irvington, Ind.——A Marine Zoölogical Laboratory will be opened June 1, at Salem Neck, Mass., by Mr. J. H. Emerson, of Salem, and Mr. C. S. Minot, of Boston.——The loan of letters from the late Charles Dickens is requested by his executrix, Miss Georgina Hogarth, at 11 Strathmore Gardens, Kensington W., London, who intends to edit a collection of the novelist's letters in conjunction with his eldest daughter. ——Macmillan & Co. have in press a work on 'Free Trade and Protection' by Prof. Fawcett, who undertakes to show what has hindered England's example from being followed ; and a translation of Turgeneff's 'Nov,' by Mr. Ashton W. Dilke.——D. Appleton & Co. announce 'Political Economy,' by Prof. W. S. Jevons ; and André Theuriet's 'Godson of a Marquis.'——Dr. Geo. M. Beard, 41 West Twenty-ninth Street, New York, is prosecuting an enquiry into "writer's cramp," and has prepared a circular with blanks which he will send to those disposed to furnish him with information on this subject and on kindred kinds of cramp. ——Legal digests are generally such poor specimens of book-making in this country that it produces an agreeable sensation to meet with one prepared with thoroughness. This appears to be the prominent trait of a Digest of New Jersey decisions, in two volumes, by John H. Stewart, issued from the press of John L. Murphy. It embraces the reported decisions of the courts of law and equity of the State from 1790 to 1876, and those of United States courts for the district as well. The courts of New Jersey have always had a high reputation, and it is interesting to see that the good traditions of the State are kept up, even in such *minutiæ* (or rather in what to many persons would appear such) as the method of selecting those charged with the duty of preparing digests. Mr. Stewart was selected, not by the Legislature nor by popular vote, but by the Supreme Court.——We heartily commend the action of President Porter, ex-President Woolsey, Dr. Leonard Bacon, Prof. Walker, and other prominent citizens of New Haven, in sending broadcast among editors a reprint of Prof. Sumner's article, "What Our Boys are Reading," which appeared in the March *Scribner's*. We called attention to it at the time, and we repeat that no parent can afford to be indifferent to the matter of which it treats.

—The *Portfolio* for March (J. W. Bouton) continues Mr. Hamerton's life of Turner, in which the biographer so thoroughly suppresses the slightest tendency to hero-worship. He produces an instructive, but not alluring, study of a great man quite capable of extending the hand yet warm from an inspired masterpiece for the proceeds of some thrifty and exacting bargain. Among the illustrations of the number is a fac-simile by Durand of Rembrandt's etching of the Jewish physician, Ephraim Bonus, a famous plate, and the only known instance where the great etcher copies one of his own paintings.——At the sale, a fortnight ago, of the pictures belonging to Mr. Milton S. Latham, of California, Gérôme's "Un Circassien à l'abreuvoir," bought in Paris by the owner in 1872 for 40,000 francs, was obtained by the representative of Goupil for $5,500. It was immediately encased and sent to Paris for the Exposition. At the same sale "La Cigale," by Lefebvre, who, since the death of M. Pils, has become a fellow-professor with Gérôme at the Beaux-Arts School, was bought on speculation by Knoedler & Co. for $2,950.

—J. B. Lippincott & Co. are publishing, out of order, but Group by Group, as separate pamphlets, the official 'Reports and Awards' of the Centennial Exhibition, edited by Prof. F. A. Walker, Chief of the Bureau of Awards. They are thick or thin, and of corresponding price, according as the detailed reports for each Group are preceded or not by a general essay or essays. Some of these are very brief and perfunctory ; others are of considerable and permanent value. Among the latter we select for mention General Q. A. Gillmore's reports on cements and brick-making machines (Group II.) ; the report on fish (V.) ; Prof. W. H. Brewer's on timber and forestry (VI.) ; Mr. Edward Atkinson's on American cotton and cotton manufactures (VIII.) ; the reports on wool-growing and wool and silk fabrics (IX.) ; the leather reports (XII.) ; those on paper (XIII.) ; military and sporting arms and ordnance (XVI.) ; and on sewing and knitting-machines and watch-making machinery (XXII.) Mr. Atkinson tells of the rigid selection made from the exhibit of American cotton, in which every bale was of the highest grade. After successive rejections but three remained, "among which the judges could make no discrimination, and for which they made three awards."

"When the key was opened that disclosed the name and status of the contributors, it was found, to the equal satisfaction of all the judges, whether from the North or South or from abroad, that one of the diplomas had been gained by a freedman—one whose farm, formerly known as the Joe Davis Plantation, in Mississippi, now proves that the production of cotton no longer depends on slavery for its abundance or its quality ; while another was gained by a Vermont farmer who moved to Louisiana since the war ended."

These reports are admirably printed, and are sold at such a reasonable rate as to ensure, we should hope, a very wide distribution.

—"Uncle Tom's Cabin," as produced at the Fifth Avenue Theatre, is a very different play from what it was some years ago, though Mrs. Howard still plays *Topsy* and Mr. Howard *St. Clair*. Great parts of the play seem to have been cut out to make room for negro dances and songs, so that it is now rather a spectacular opera than a drama in the strict sense of the word. With regard to what is left of the latter, it must be said that the thrilling story of *Uncle Tom's* sufferings has now acquired a sort of historical character. To a great part of the audience which goes to see

it slavery and all the feelings and relations growing out of its existence belong to the past, and already time has begun to throw the halo so needed for dramatic success around the story. *Uncle Tom, Eva, Topsy,* and *Legree* are already the creatures of legend; the society that produced them has passed away, and we look at the slave-girl hunted across the Ohio on the floating ice and the slave-market in New Orleans as scenes in a world that has disappeared and will never return. All this ought to make the play, as a play, just as attractive as it once was morally and politically; and that it has lost none of its hold upon the popular fancy and esteem may be inferred from the fact, of which the playbill informs us, that Mrs. Howard has sung one of the worst songs in it some thousands of times. Of the acting, however, we cannot speak with profound admiration. Mrs. Howard herself plays her part with a good deal of spirit, but there is always a haunting suspicion left in our mind that she is not *Topsy* after all. For one thing (a small matter apparently, yet one which produces a disagreeable effect) she does not dance the real negro "break-down." The peculiarity of this dance is the use that is made of the heels and the flat of the foot. But Mrs. Howard insists on making *Topsy* dance as she would in a ballet, with pointed toes and heels kept always in the air. The acting of the villains—*Simon Legree* and the rest—was awful enough to blanch the cheek of the most hardened spectator, and the mock ferocity of the philanthropist who assists in the escape of *George Harris* and his family was well done, though the actor who took the part contrived to give his bluster a nautical air which seemed out of keeping with the life and pursuits attributed to the character. *Eva* was very well represented, and the effect of her early death on the audience proved that acting of this sort is not thrown away. The negro songs and dances, performed by real negroes (secured we will not enquire too critically from what institutions of learning), were the great feature of the play, and were in some instances remarkably excellent.

—"Diplomacy"—the English version of Sardou's "Dora"—has been brought out at Wallack's with a success which has in it the promise of a long "run." There are, to be sure, peculiaritics in the play which impair its value as an acting drama. It is, in the first place, too long, if we may so say, for its depth. The interest of the plot alone, unless sustained by acting above the level even of Mr. Wallack's company, is not sufficient to carry the audience through an evening of three hours and a half. The story is that of the innocent daughter of an adventuress, a Continental "campaigner," who on her wedding day becomes the victim of a rival's plot. By the strongest chain of circumstantial evidence she is made to appear in her husband's eyes guilty of stealing from his despatch-box a map of the lines near Constantinople (the time is the present, and he is in the English diplomatic service), and conveying it to a Russian spy. This leads to a counterplot by the husband's brother, who succeeds by a clever stratagem in extracting a full confession from the real thief. Now, it is quite clear that nothing but the most excellent acting could atone for stretching this plot over four long acts. If it were a tragedy, if it ended, as it might be made to end, wretchedly, the interest might be sustained; but "Diplomacy" is so palpably a comedy from the first line that the agonizing scene between the wife and husband (Miss Maud Granger and Mr. Montague) in the fourth act is almost ludicrous. The only tragic character in the play is the rival, the Countess Zicka. This part was taken by Miss Rose Coghlan, whose great beauty does not make up for her incapacity as an actress. However, these difficulties might to a great extent be surmounted by shortening the play, and we should strongly advise that the part shortened should, as much as possible, be that of Mr. Montague's, whose efforts to work his feelings to the sticking-point are painful to witness.

—Unless we are mistaken, the English version of the play has been got up with special reference to acting in London, and we can well imagine that its success there has been due in no small measure to its extremely "contemporaneous" interest as regards Europe. But in this country, where the interest in the Eastern question is almost entirely a commercial one, it is at least an open question whether the map of the Constantinople lines and Mr. Montague's bellicose reference to the threatened conflict affect an American audience more than would any other map, or the prospect of Mr. Montague's fighting in any other part of the world. Moreover, "diplomacy" is with us not a word full of suggestions of intrigue, chicane, and espionage, but rather of state-dinners, place-hunting, speech-making, "slates," and idiotic despatch-writing; and hence the moral which an English audience may be supposed to extract with huge delight from the title in connection with the plot, that diplomacy in general, but more particularly Russian diplomacy, is a sink of iniquity, is in New York of no particular consequence. For these reasons we think that the original French version, which we infer from the title turned simply on the human situation of the *dramatis personæ*, and not on the political condition of Europe at the present moment, would be better suited to American audiences than the English adaptation. As to the acting, it presented some weak and some very strong points. Madame Ponisi's *Marquise* was a very good piece of comic acting, and *Lady Henry Fairfax* (Miss Sara Stevens) was admirably done. So was the *Count Orloff* of Mr. Robinson, an actor who shows a steady improvement. Miss Granger acts the innocent and unjustly accused wife with a good deal of force; her horror at the accusation was very true to nature. We must protest against one feature of the dialogue, introduced, we suppose, by the translator—who has otherwise done his work well—and that is the way in which French phrases are put into the mouths of the characters precisely at the times when French phrases are least appropriate. For example, in the exciting scene between *Orloff* and *Beauclerc*, when the former's feelings are wrought to the highest pitch of excitement and he is torn with conflicting emotions, he expresses his agony by saying "*Mon Dieu*"; *Baron Stein*, casting about for words to express a state of mental torture, goes off the stage crying "*C'est agaçant.*" Now we will not for a moment question that it is the habit of Russians to drop into French "in a friendly way" when they are most moved; but it is not the habit of the members of any theatrical audience in this city. When strongly moved they always cry out or curse in their own language, and use foreign phrases, if at all, in their lighter moments. Consequently in a dramatic crisis French idioms fall upon their ears strangely, and produce a sense of incongruity that is ludicrous. Having said as much as this in the way of criticism, we may add that "Diplomacy" is a capital play, which we strongly recommend to the theatre-going public.

—The improvement in education, both general and technical, in the officers of the Navy has been marked of late years. The education given to the line officers at the Naval Academy, with its years of training and study, has not, however, been one of unmixed good. One of the evils that has presented itself has been the diversity of feeling and associations engendered between officers and the seamen placed under their command. In former years, officers entering the service at a very early age were at once placed on board ship and grew up with the men, with like associations, with a fellow-feeling, with similar virtues, and, in many cases, even with like faults and vices. Now, officers graduating from the Naval Academy and entering active service afloat are placed on board ship at a matured age, after a student's life of some years, with ideas and sympathies vastly differing from those of the forecastle. The want of unity that follows from this affects in a measure the efficiency of the service. The men are too often regarded simply as mechanical agents, and this being shown, the better class of men are discouraged from entering or remaining in the naval service. The morale of the men has not improved of late years, and even the apprentices from training-ships, or a large proportion of them, leave the service. While the officers have advanced, the men have retrograded. Earnest endeavors are necessary to improve the morale of the men, and, by a general elevation of the sailor before the mast, bring him nearer to his commanding officers in general attainments and respectability. The two great evils of the service affecting the men, morally and physically, are intemperance and contagious diseases resulting from a vicious life. A great loss of time and money to the Government has been caused by the invaliding and discharge of men from these causes. These evils seem forced upon the men in a measure by the fact that on leaving ship-board to go on shore for liberty and recreation there is almost absolutely nothing open to them but drinking-saloons and places of the lowest resort. These places represent everything afforded to them for social intercourse, for recreation, or for mental improvement. Drink being the general requisite for admission to these places, it is not surprising that habits of intemperance are formed or confirmed. As a correction of these particular evils, it is proposed to establish club-houses and places of rendezvous for seamen on shore, somewhat similar to the workingmen's clubs of England, which, by furnishing seamen, either mercantile or naval, with respectable places of meeting and recreation, will lead to further means of improvement and elevation. It is hoped that a generous interest on the part of the officers of the Navy will lead to the establishment of these club-houses in every Naval port of the United States.

—The last two numbers of Herrig's *Archiv* contain several articles of in-

terest to English and American readers. Tiessen continues his contributions to the determination and elucidation of doubtful passages in the text of Shakspere. Palm's essay on Shakspere's "Julius Cæsar" and Kruse's "Brutus" is not only well written and interesting, but is especially worthy of note by reason of its tone of freedom. The author does not hesitate to expose freely what he considers the grave defects in the Shakesperean piece, and to assign the preference to Kruse for his clearer conception of action, characters, and motives. Those who are interested in German humoristic writings will find a very readable essay, by Dr. Küsel, upon the popular poetry inspired by the late French war. Some of the extracts exhibit the German comic muse in a tolerable light. The best are in *Platt* and in the dialect of Berlin. Dr. David Asher's critique of Swinburne evinces sympathy and careful study. Nicolai's essay upon "Ossian" contains a large accumulation of materials relating to the Ossianic controversy. We do not judge, however, that the author is fully abreast with the latest stage of Celtic scholarship; and furthermore, his treatment is not infrequently confusing. We even find a passage of nine lines, given page 143, repeated page 153, word for word, probably through sheer inadvertence.

—Dr. Fitzedward Hall sends us a note, which we regret we cannot publish in full, proposing *heteroepy* for *heterophemy* in the sense of 'false pronunciation'—the sense attached to it, he says, by the only person who, to his knowledge, has used it. He has, therefore, apparently overlooked Mr. Grant White's famous use of it in the sense of 'saying one thing where another was meant,' or a simple *lapsus pennæ*. After showing that *hetero-*, with the signification of 'wrong,' is a justifiable opposite of *ortho-*, meaning 'right,' Dr. Hall continues:

"But the term required is not *heterophemy*; for *ἑτεροφημία*, if it existed, and did not denote 'other report,' would differ but little from *κακοφημία*, 'evil fame,' or from *δυόφημία*, 'defamation.' *Εὐφημία* is 'employment of words of good omen,' 'euphemism,' etc. And there is *βλασφημία*. In *-φημια* there is reference to sense, not to sound; in *-επεια*, reference generally to sound, not to sense. . . . As a fit companion for the established *orthoepy*, I have repeatedly printed *heteroepy*, with regard to venturing which, however, I have, very likely, often been anticipated."

Dr. Hall's postscript we give entire. We did not, in our review of Bartlett, object to the use of "record" in the American signification, but remarked that it required to be explained to Englishmen:

"Pray, under what pretence can Mr. Bartlett introduce the phrase *skin of his teeth* into a work on Americanisms? It is common enough in England, though, perhaps, not so often heard here in conversation as in America. Every one knows, of course, that 'the skin of my teeth' is in the book of Job. One word on 'He has a bad *record*.' All are familiar with the Biblical use of *record* for 'testimony.' This suggests *testimonial*, and a *testimonial* always relates to *character* or *reputation*. These premises considered, it does not strike me as a particularly outrageous deviation from propriety that Americans speak of a man as having a good, bad, or indifferent record."

—Dante scholars will be glad to learn that after a lapse of six years another volume of the *Jahrbuch der deutschen Dante Gesellschaft* has recently appeared (Brockhaus, 1877). The society does not seem to be very active, and this volume does not display the life and variety of the former ones. Only nine writers are represented, who, however, fill a larger space than their predecessors, the present volume containing two hundred and sixty-six pages more than the first, and one hundred and thirty-one more than the third. Some of the articles are exhaustive monographs, and might well form separate books. The first article, by Nicolaus Delius on Dante's Comedy and Brunetto Latini's Tesoretto, endeavors to show that where Latini, Inferno xv., 119, recommends his 'Tesoro' to Dante, he means his poem the "Tesoretto," and not his encyclopædiac work the 'Tresor.' The writer cites many passages from the former work which have parallels in the Divine Comedy, but, however valuable it may have been to Dante, it does not seem to us that its author could say of it, *nel quale io vivo ancora*. The 'Tresor' was the work of his life, the monument he raised to his own learning, and we prefer to think that it was to this he alluded. Hugo Delff, in a valuable article, shows that Dante was a mystic and not a schoolman in his philosophy. An interesting fact is that the allegories and general conduct of the poem may be found foreshadowed in St. Bonaventura's works. Dino Compagni finds, at this late day, a defender in Theodor Paur, who reviews Grion's work, 'La Cronica Dino Campagni opera di Anton Francesco Doni' (Verona, 1871), and shows the insufficiency of the arguments against the authenticity of a work so precious for the history of Dante's times. The results of Paur's review are purely negative but very interesting. Rudolf Pfleiderer has two papers, one on the *Gesammtidee* of the Divine Comedy, and the other on the question, Is Dante heterodox? In the former he refutes perfectly, we think, Ruth's view that Dante himself counted for nothing in the poem. In the second, Dante's orthodoxy is shown to be higher and broader than the narrow dogmatism of the Romish Church. The editor, Dr. Scartazzini, furnishes three extensive monographs, one on Dante's inner history, apropos of the interview between the poet and Beatrice in the Earthly Paradise (Purg. xxx.), in which he makes it very clear that Beatrice reproves Dante for intellectual and not for sensual sins. The second paper is devoted to showing that the Matilda referred to in Purg. xxviii. and elsewhere cannot be the famous Countess of Tuscany, but must be some fair young woman previously known to the poet. This person the writer discovers in the lady mentioned in the 'Vita Nuova,' cap. v., technically known as the *donna dello schermo*. The third article is on the agreement of sins and punishments in the Inferno. The veteran Dante scholar, K. Witte, contributes a similar article, extending his examination, however, to the penances in Purgatory, and incidentally discussing the question of the place and mode of punishment of the sins not expressly mentioned in the poem. The other articles are: Dante explained by Dante, the episode of Count Ugolino, by Giuliani; miscellaneous criticisms by Delff; a comparison of Paradise xi., 49–51, and xii., 49–51, by Giovanni della Valle, and a letter by L. Paquelin on the Matilda question. The editor contributes a valuable bibliography of works relating to Dante from 1870–1877, which will be found a necessary supplement to Petzholdt and Ferrazzi. On the whole the present volume is a worthy successor of the first three (which appeared in 1867, '69, '71), and we trust may be followed by others at a more reasonable interval.

RICHTHOFEN'S 'CHINA.'*

II.

IF Baron Richthofen's theory is true for the loess of Central Asia and China it is true for the loess of Europe and America. We need not be surprised, then, to find that three of the most original and attractive chapters of this volume are devoted to an analysis of all the physical processes, meteorological and geological, that have been active in forming and transforming the steppes, and to an extension of this discussion to the geographical condition of Europe and America in quaternary times. The classical investigations of Braun showed that of 211,968 shells from the European loess, all were land-snails except 33 individuals, which were fresh-water snails. Moreover, they were almost exclusively species that now live only at elevations between 4,000 and 7,000 feet in the Alps, or in more northern latitudes.

Baron Richthofen assumes that when the loess was formed in Europe the continent was higher than now, and the coast-line was about the present 100-fathom line in the Atlantic. It was the period of the hairy mammoth, the woolly rhinoceros, and the *Cervus megaceros*, whose bones occur in the deposit. It was the ice period, too, and the ice-covered Alps (and, our author might have added, the glaciers of the Vosges and of Great Britain, and the immense Scandinavian glacier whose foot spread over Northern Germany) were condensers that cut off from Central Europe the moisture of its winds and converted it into a true central or undrained region. Only thus can we account for the occurrence of the loess at such varied altitudes with everywhere the same terrestrial characteristics. In extending his argument to America, Baron Richthofen divides the northern continent into two comparatively narrow peripheral regions and a central or undrained area, with an immense transition area in the Mississippi valley. He designates both of the latter as loess territory. In the Southern continent he identifies the pampas formation with the loess.

Not the least of the many fruitful generalizations put forward by Richthofen are those concerning the direct and reactionary influence of the climate on the surface configuration of Central Asia and of the mountains of High Asia, and thus on the historical and ethnographical development of the Europe-Asiatic continent. The rain-bearing winds, after passing the condensers of the Himalaya, are exhausted of the remaining moisture on the high crests of the Kwen-lun. The amount received by the Kwen-lun is not sufficient, when taken in connection with the comparatively gentle slope from the crests to the trunk-valleys, to produce the precipitous and serrated outlines which result from extensive erosion. On the contrary, the Kwen-lun and Tien-shan are remarkable for their rounded forms and long and gentle approaches. And here, as in the central region, the sub-aerial (loess) formation, the offspring of the

* 'China. Ergebnisse eigener Reisen und darauf gegründeter Studien. Von Ferdinand Freiherrn von Richthofen.' Erster Band. Berlin: Verlag von Dietrich Reimer; New York: L. W. Schmidt. 1877.

dry climate, having full play during long ages, has exerted its steppe-building action in smoothing over the inequalities of the loftiest regions of the globe, forming grassy plains in Tibet and Pamir, and grading to them easy routes for the nomad population of the great central region.

Our author gives a graphic description of the relation these things bear to man past and present. The earliest records of the past show from time to time the sudden gathering in Eastern Mongolia of waves of nomad horsemen, which, sweeping westward unhindered by nature, and gaining momentum as they advanced, forced the opposing peoples to migrate before them. Those who could escape through the Djungarian plain emerged into the fertile Turanian countries, crowding out the settled agricultural population, and continuing the movement in the migrations that have peopled and repeopled the countries of Western Asia and Europe. But the inhabitants of the fertile oases of the Western Han-hai—south of the Tien-shan—occupied a *cul-de-sac*, whence almost the only routes of escape were into the mountain steppes of Pamir and the Tibetan highlands. Consequently we find that to-day the inhospitable valleys of these lofty regions are filled with fragments of the most diverse races—wrecks stranded on this great highway of humanity. It is, as Richthofen points out, a remarkable fact that the nomad horsemen settled quickly down to the agricultural civilization of the countries they conquered. There is no part of our globe to which attaches so much of that profound interest which belongs to the veiled past as the region which includes Western Central Asia, Turan, and the mountains that separate them. This region has often been called the cradle-land of our race. It would be more properly termed the transition territory of races. It was ever the portal between the hopeless monotony of nomad existence and the realization of the bright possibilities of life in fertile lands, where nature necessitated a many-sided development.

Baron Richthofen remarks that in Central Asia the great mountains usually face the plains with their long flanks, offering only small lateral valleys and a narrow belt of irrigable land along their bases. But the eastern border of Turan is more favored; here, the great river-feeding mountain mass between the Karatau and the Hindu-kush is composed of east and west ranges of very varying lengths; some reach far out to the west into the Turanian lowland, while others, ending abruptly in the east, produce the great and well-watered valley systems of the Oxus and the Jaxartes. No greater contrast exists, of its kind, than that between the conditions and possibilities of life here and on the steppes of Central Asia. Here were the garden-lands of Ferghana, Maracanda, and Bactriana, which Alexander the Great thought worthy to be the seat of his Eastern Empire. As the waves of the ocean once rolled through the Djungarian Straits, so repeatedly in later times the human flood of barbarism poured through the same portal; its hordes, spreading over the fertile lands, displaced the inhabitants and became themselves moulded, each according to its stock, by the influences of the varied surroundings. What was true of this region was true also of the oases of Western Central Asia. The period when our Aryan ancestors spread from this land is lost in the obscurity of the past; but as we find that they lived also in the oases of Western Central Asia, it is not improbable that they, too, emerged here from a nomadic infancy.

There is much probability that the great arm of the ocean, of which the Aral and the Caspian are only remnants, covered much that is now desert in Turan within the period of prehistoric man. The climatic effect of such a body of water must have been to render fertile the entire region east of the mountains, and, as Richthofen remarks, if it should prove to be the fact that the sea co-existed with the early Aryans, it would supply an explanation of the kind and degree of civilization they had reached before the great migrations. And it would furnish also a reason for these migrations in the altered natural conditions produced by the rapid retreat of the shallow sea, when its connection with the main ocean was once broken. What vestiges of a civilization far older than those of India, Troy, and Mesopotamia may there not be awaiting excavation in the ruins of Old Ariana?

Two chapters are devoted to undoubtedly the clearest and most comprehensive exhibition of what is now known of the configuration and geological structure of High Asia and the Tien-shan. Among the points brought into prominence is the extreme regularity and great age of the Kwen-lun, which, according to Stoliczka's observations in Tibet and Richthofen's in China, contain nothing younger than Silurian. Another result, principally, of Stoliczka's investigations, is the discovery that the elevated region between the Kwen-lun and the plains of India has grown by successive foldings and elevations; Carboniferous and Triassic rocks occurring north of the Himalaya, while this range has a gneiss axis and a great development of Palæozoic and Triassic strata, forming great peaks, with Jurassic and Cretaceous beds entering intimately into its structure, and Eocene deposits bordering its southern edge and appearing on the northern side at altitudes equal to that of Mont Blanc. Of equal interest is the announcement of the existence in Eastern Tibet of a gigantic range of mountains, vying with the Himalaya in height, and belonging to the S.W.-N.E. or Sinian system, a name proposed by the present writer, and adopted by Richthofen, for the extensive system of folds which predominate in Eastern Asia and correspond to the Appalachians of North America.

The second part of the volume is an extremely elaborate and valuable history of the development of knowledge relating to China. In one chapter Baron Richthofen analyzes the Yükung—which relates to the geography of the twenty-third century B.C.—from the standpoint of one familiar with the country, and accepts the book, but not all the commentaries, as trustworthy. Another chapter is an exhaustive and exceedingly interesting discussion of everything that is known concerning the analogies between the lunar zodiacs and certain other points in the primitive astronomy and culture of the Chinese, Hindoos, and Arabians. Richthofen arrives at the conclusion that, at a remote period, the ancestors of the Chinese lived in Western Central Asia, in more or less intimate communication with the early Aryans of the Oxus and Jaxartes countries, and that the resemblances between these now widely separated civilizations are traditionary remnants of the common culture of that place and time. The reasoning by which this highly important conclusion is reached seems to us unassailable.

The work is written in a clear style, which holds closely the attention of the reader, and we look forward with impatience, not only to the publication of the remaining volumes, but also to the promised personal narrative. It will probably be long before another traveller will explore China who combines to so great an extent as Baron Richthofen the ability to observe broadly and deeply in so many directions, with the power of putting his mind into the closest relation with scientific and general readers.

WALKER ON MONEY.*

THE most noticeable feature of Professor Walker's work is the tone of judicial impartiality with which it treats a subject in which every man who knows, or thinks he knows, anything about it feels it almost a duty to be in some sense a partisan. Owing to the great mass of error he finds to combat, the rapid reader might gain the impression that the author had few strong personal opinions upon any branch of his subject, so much more prominence does he give to the exposition of the conflicting opinions of others than to the establishment of correct theories of his own. One distinguishing feature of the work is calculated to foster this impression: we mean the unusual space which he devotes to extracts from the writings of others, for the purpose of letting writers of all kinds explain their ideas in their own language. Should we estimate that one-third the text of the book is thus made up, we are not sure but that we should fall short of the truth, while, should we include the copious foot-notes, we might estimate one-half, and still fall within the truth. That the literary perfection and unity of the work are impaired by this feature will, we think, be the opinion of most qualified judges. Such constantly-recurring extracts, first from one side and then from another, are clearly incompatible with that unity and consecutiveness of thought which is the most desirable quality in a work on a subject so important, and yet so abstract in most of its bearings. Granting the desirableness of presenting the most fair and exact statement of opposing views, which we freely admit, we fail to see why a clear and concise summary by a master of the subject should not be as good as a collection of illustrations from various writers. In treating the subject of money, such a summary is rendered easy by the fact that notwithstanding the immense diversity of detail the fundamental points on which all differences turn are neither so numerous nor so complex as they appear to the casual reader. Since it is in these points that all the fallacies with which the subject is surrounded have their origin, it is of primary importance that they should be unearthed from the mass of discussion in which they are usually buried, and shown to the reader in the plainest possible light.

Although the feature of the work to which we allude is not one which we find commendable, we are inclined to suspect that the large majority of readers will be better pleased with the wealth of illustration to which it gives rise than they would be with the more abstract discussion of first

* 'Money. By Francis A. Walker.' New York: Henry Holt & Co. 1878.

principles. The turn of mind of our country, influenced as it is by the leader of the daily newspaper, is much more favorable to the study of the concrete and actual than to that of the abstract and hypothetical, and leads the average American to value a single historic fact higher than a dozen parables, a single page of statistics higher than a chapter of general principles. To this turn of mind Professor Walker's mode of treatment is admirably adapted. If we place him at one extreme of the scale of treatment, we shall find Bastiat at the other. That the mode of thought of the latter is, from a literary or a philosophic point of view, much the better, will, we think, be obvious to any one who really penetrates to the bottom of the subject. And yet we question whether the reading of Bastiat makes the slightest impression on the average victim of the fallacies which it is the great object of that writer to expose. When the protectionist reads how the manufacturers of oils and candles argued the advantages of excluding sunlight from all dwellings in order that the demand for their products might be increased, he scorns the imputation that there is any analogy between these arguments and those which he adduces in support of his favorite policy. The comparison of the two arguments requires a course of logical analysis of which he is entirely incapable. When the Crispin reads the allegory of John breaking the window that employment might be given in mending it again, and is shown how the supposed advantage in this direction is more than set off by the loss in another, the whole story has an air of unreality. He feels that he never proposed to break any man's window, and that the train of consequences which followed the supposed breakage was a mere fairy-tale, without any application to his circumstances. We therefore freely concede that our author's mode of treatment—in which the reader's attention is mainly diverted to the historic side of the subject, and the establishment of general principles is, in some degree, left to unconscious cerebration—is well adapted to the ordinary adult reader, and will really impart more instruction than would a more scientific treatise. Indeed, we are ready to go a step further, and admit that the logical acumen necessary to understand a purely scientific treatise is such that its possessor is not likely to be the victim of the fallacies which surround the subject, and that, as a consequence, the less perfect mode of treatment is nearly the only one to guard the general reader against those fallacies.

The work before us is evidently not designed for a text-book; it is therefore no criticism of its plan to say that this is not the way in which political economy should be taught to pupils. In education, modes of thought should, so far as possible, go before facts, if the learner is capable of thinking at all, and the first object should be to give him the clearest view of the elementary principles of the subject, facts and arguments being used exclusively to throw light on those principles. Then he has in his mind a few central points around which he can group, and by the aid of which he can explain, all the facts which may come to his notice in after-life. Without these points of grouping all that he ever learns will be apt to assume a half-digested form, and he will never be able to appreciate fully the true bearing of the facts of history.

To enter into a more detailed analysis of the work, and to select special passages as illustrations of its merits, is rendered difficult by the near approach to uniformity of tone and method in every part. The judicial reserve which makes so strong a contrast to the work of Professor Bonamy Price on currency, is preserved nearly unbroken. The author does not use the club until he comes to the closing chapters on American paper-money, and even then he does not lay about him with anything like the freedom we should expect from an ardent writer having before him such a history of human folly, fraud, and chicanery. The review of the operations of the Bank of England since the suspension of specie payment in 1797, as well as that of American banking, is particularly good. We cannot but wish that Prof. Walker had given a little more than two and a half pages to the New German Reichs-Bank, which, having a capital of a hundred and twenty million marks, must rank as one of the three great banking institutions of the world, but of which very little is known in this country. A good deal of the little he does say about it is either not strictly accurate or is misleading. The statements that the bank can issue only 250,000,000 marks beyond the coin held for redemption; that the penalty for over-issue is five per centum, pure and simple (not one-tenth per cent. for every eight days that the excess is out); that the shareholders neither reign nor govern, having neither the form nor the essence of power; and that all discounted paper *must* have three signatures, are incorrect. The reserve required is one-third of the circulation, and may consist of either bullion or exchequer bills without limitation; the remaining two-thirds may be represented by discounts for not more than three months. Such bills must ordinarily (*in der Regel*) have three solvent names, but never less than two. Prof. Walker has evidently confounded the penalty imposed on private banks for over-issue—five per cent., pure and simple—with the penalty imposed on the Reichs-Bank, which is five per cent. as long as the over-issue lasts, and is intended to check inflation in ordinary times by destroying the profit, while permitting it in periods of stringency. The bank is administered by a "Directorium" and controlled by a "Curatorium," both appointed by the Government; but there is also a committee of fifteen elected by and from the shareholders, and of this a sub-committee of three, both of which have a consultative voice in the administration and a vote on certain matters of importance, such as dividends and salaries; but the management is mainly in the Directorium.

The book shows due appreciation of the wants of the general reader in the index, which is very copious. Another convenience is, however, overlooked, though it might have been easily supplied: we mean a complete list of the titles, with dates and places of publication, of all the books from which extracts have been taken. Such lists are annually becoming more necessary in all works pretending to erudition, and we expect to see them gradually increasing in number.

BALAAM.*

THERE are two personages in the Pentateuch who have cost the commentators endless labor and profitless expenditure of ingenuity—Melchizedek and Balaam. That Gentiles should be Yahveh-worshippers and should be specially favored by the true God, was so hopelessly at variance with the exclusive theory of Judaism that no conjectures have been too wild to be entertained by those who found it necessary to reconcile the irreconcilable. With our present knowledge of the Chaldean faith it is easy to imagine that the wandering nomads who subsequently became fixed in Canaan as the Hebrew nation, worshipped the same gods as their fellow-tribes, each sept perhaps assigning a doubtful supremacy to some one member of the pantheon, and that there was no absolute antagonism of faith between the kindred bands. Tradition, then, may be correct when it relates that Abimelech recognized the God of Abraham, and that Abraham acknowledged Melchizedek to be the priest of the Most High God, and as such entitled to tithes. Tradition also may not be far astray in representing, at the time of the Exodus, Balaam, a dweller by the Euphrates, as a veridical prophet of Yahveh—a seer who spoke by the inspiration of Elohim. But when the lofty genius of the Hebrew prophets had conceived the idea of monotheism, and had succeeded, after long and painful struggles, lasting until the time of the Captivity, in causing it to be universally adopted, the ancient beliefs were obliterated from the history of the nation, and the surviving traditions connected with them, which had been perfectly plain and simple, became incomprehensible problems requiring incomprehensible solutions.

Thus, with regard to Melchizedek, the later Targums assure us that he was Shem bar Noah, the last survivor of the Deluge, and of course an orthodox priest of the Most High—a belief which has prevailed extensively, not only among Jews, but also among some of the most learned Christian commentators. The Kabbalists held him to be the type of the Messiah, and that this belief also prevailed among the early Christians is shown by the well-known passages in the Epistle to the Hebrews. He was even regarded as the Holy Spirit, and a sect of Melchizedekians worshipped him as a god. Others again relate that Shem opened a school of theology on Mount Tabor, where Melchizedek, as one of his disciples, learned the true faith and taught it to Abraham; while Mahometan tradition assumes that he was the son of Shem and that he built the sacred city of Jerusalem.

Balaam offered a more knotty problem, for his story represented him as, at the same time, an enemy of the chosen people and a prophet enjoying intercourse with Yahveh as direct and personal as the exceptional favors bestowed on Moses—a prophet, moreover, whose submission to the will of God was proof against all temptations. To reconcile these facts with the exclusive Yahveism of the Hebrews has taxed to the utmost the perverse ingenuity of learned critics of all ages, both Jewish and Christian; and their variously conflicting suggestions, as industriously collected by Dr. Kalisch in the volume before us, afford a melancholy but edifying exhibition of the vagaries of a false system of exegesis, which aims not at discovering the truth, but at inventing some colorable hypothesis to establish a foregone conclusion.

* 'Bible Studies. By M. M. Kalisch, Ph.D., M.A. Part I. The Prophecies of Balaam (Numbers xxii. to xxiv.); or, the Hebrew and the Heathen.' 1 vol. 8vo. London: Longmans, Green & Co. 1877.

While tradition yet was free, the rabbis gave unbridled rein to their fancies in constructing around Balaam the most incongruous stories, wherewith at once to justify his favor with Yahveh, and to excuse the measureless odium which they delighted to heap upon him; and the zeal with which they labored shows how profound an impression was made on the Hebrew mind by the matchless rhetoric of the prophecies which bear his name. According to the Mishna, among the ten things which God fashioned, in the twilight of Friday evening, after the labor of Creation was performed, were three mouths—the mouth of the chasm in which Korah and his companions were engulfed, the mouth of the well which accompanied the children of Israel through the desert, and the speaking mouth of Balaam's ass. This would seem to relieve the prophet from responsibility, since all his adventures were preordained from the beginning, and therefore is not incompatible with the traditions that classed him with the most distinguished favorites of God. Thus, he is included among the fourteen elect who, by being born circumcised, were admitted by Yahveh himself into his covenant, the others being Adam, Seth, Noah, Shem, Melchizedek, Jacob, Joseph, Job, Samuel, Moses, David, Jeremiah, and Zerubbabel. The Yalkut enumerates him among the pre-Mosaic prophets, and the Siphra and Vayikra Rabba consider him to be the greatest and last of the prophets of the Gentiles, the others being Job, Eliphaz, Bildad, Zophar, Elihu, and Beor. These would seem to be remnants of tradition from a time when Yahveh was not the exclusive possession of Israel, and the allusion to Balaam by the prophet Micah, in the eighth century B.C., apparently shows that even down to that period his name had not become a synonym for all that is loathsome and detestable, nor his coming at Balak's summons a crime of the deepest dye. Very remarkable, indeed, is the Talmudical assertion that the wicked and idolatrous king of Moab gained so much merit by the forty-two holocausts which, under Balaam's superintendence, he offered to Yahveh, although the sacrifices were made for the purpose of cursing the Jews, that he earned thereby the priceless fortune of being the great-grandfather of Ruth the Moabitess, and through her the progenitor of the house of David and of the future Messiah.

As Yahveism hardened and crystallized under the influences which find their expression in Deuteronomy, and an almost impassable boundary was established between the inheritors of the Covenant on the one side and the Goim or Gentiles on the other, it became necessary either to reject the Book of Balaam altogether, or to modify it so that it should not be too flagrantly at variance with the new ideas. The former alternative cost too much, in the sacrifice of the sublime beauty of the prophecies, so flattering and so consoling to the distracted monarchy of Judah, and the latter resource was adopted without calling into play much critical insight. There are few impartial Biblical students, we imagine, who will disagree with Dr. Kalisch in regarding as a somewhat clumsy interpolation the episode of the ass, which is so flagrantly at variance with what precedes and follows it that the Targum of Palestine is obliged to explain the discrepancy by injecting an assertion that Balaam went to Moab with the rebellious intention of cursing the children of Israel, and the Samaritan Chronicle asserts that he started on his journey without awaiting the Divine command. In the same spirit are conceived the passages in Deuteronomy and Joshua, which represent Balaam as endeavoring to curse, but forced by Yahveh to bless against his will, and the subsequent assertion in Numbers that his disappointed enmity led him to give to Balak the cunning counsel whereby the Israelites at Shittim were seduced to the whoredom and idolatry which caused the wrath of Yahveh to menace them with destruction.

When these passages were once adopted in the sacred text, Balaam, in place of a self-abnegating prophet of the Lord, became a worshipper of false gods and a sorcerer eager to exercise his evil arts and gratify his evil passions on the chosen people. The writer of the Book of Joshua stigmatizes him as a *kosem*, or vulgar soothsayer. It is thus that Philo regards him, and though Josephus still assumes him to be a prophet of Yahveh whose covetousness led him to prostitute his gifts, the almost universal testimony of the rabbis proclaims him to be a mere magician. In the Mishna, Balaam and Abraham are taken as antitheses—types of evil and good—and the followers of the former are pitilessly consigned to Gehenna. There grew up around him a wealth of legendary lore; and though the Targum of Palestine, with a truly rabbinical disregard of chronology, assumes him to be Laban, the father-in-law of Jacob, whose boundless learning had crazed him, the most generally received story represents him as one of the magician-counsellors of Pharaoh, the others being Jethro and Job; and it is curious to observe how Job, whom we have seen above classed with Balaam as a Gentile prophet and special favorite of Yahveh, shares with him in these stories the stigma of wicked opposition to the designs of the Lord. It was Balaam who suggested the slaying of the Jewish male children, for which he subsequently met his fate in Midian; Job held his peace, and for his cowardly consenting to the wrong he was punished as related in his history; Jethro fled to avoid being concerned in it, wherefore he merited to become the father-in-law of Moses. A variant of this tradition relates that a dream revealed to Pharaoh the birth of Moses and the destruction which he would work in Egypt. Balaam interpreted the dream, and when Job counselled the slaying of the males, Balaam pointed out that they must be drowned. He continued to urge his master to cruel measures, and when Moses, in the royal palace, was two years old, Balaam sought to have him put to death. Thus began the enmity which lasted throughout their lives, explaining the readiness with which Balaam accepted Balak's call to curse the followers of Moses. During the interval they had had other conflicts, for Balaam had usurped the throne of Kikanes, king of Ethiopia, and after a struggle of many years had been ousted by Moses, who had taken refuge with Kikanes when obliged to fly from Egypt; whereupon Balaam returned to Pharaoh, and was one of the magicians who attempted to cope with the Hebrew prophet at the time of the Exodus.

Extravagant as are these tales, they have their interest and importance as showing the devices to which the Jewish doctors were forced in their endeavor to reconcile the Balaam of the oldest traditions with the exclusive Yahveism of orthodoxy. Islam inherited the beliefs of Judaism, and sought to explain the mystery by representing Balaam as one of the Anakim who had succeeded in learning the Shem-hamphorash, or mystic and ineffable name of Adonai, whereby he was able to predict the future and to obtain from Allah all that he demanded; but when, seduced by presents, he sought the destruction of the chosen people, Allah deprived him of the memory of the thaumaturgic name, and he could do naught. Scarcely more reasonable than these are the arguments and assumptions with which Christian divines, from the time of Origen, have sought to construct a connected and reasonable story out of the divergent and antagonistic material which the varying phases of Jewish belief had grouped together around the name of the Prophet of Pethor.

Dr. Kalisch, we think, has missed the true significance of his subject, which lies in the evidence which it affords of the primal unity of belief of the Semitic tribes from Mesopotamia to the Great Sea. Engrossed with the desire to rehabilitate the fame of the much-maligned seer, and to set forth the manifold beauties of the narrative, he devotes himself exclusively to accomplishing this with much critical acumen and endless resources of learning. He recognizes, indeed, the change in Yahveism from the liberality of earlier times to the exclusiveness of the prophetic and Sadducee dogma, but he so utterly fails in tracing back his high argument to its origin that he does not hesitate to say that "whether the Biblical Balaam is an historical personage or not, appears to be of very subordinate moment" (p. 53). He assumes to solve all the problems, whose analysis he is so well fitted to attempt, with the careless assertion that "Balaam knows and worships Yahveh simply because the high-minded author of this wonderful narrative attributes to him that knowledge and worship" (p. 104); and he discourages further investigation with the reproof: "It is vain to ask how Balaam gained the knowledge of this God. The strange answers which this question has called forth ought alone to have shown the impropriety of the question" (p. 103). It is to be regretted that a broader enquiry did not come within the scope which he allotted to his work, for he possesses the independent self-reliance and the varied and accurate knowledge which would render him specially able to throw light on a question underlying all Semitic theology. Apart from its direct object, however, the book has no little value as a collection of materials by which the curious student can trace the mode in which popular beliefs grow up and become firmly established through the well-meaning, though mistaken, labors of the learned and pious.

PHYTOGAMY.*

IF this name has not been coined already it ought to be. For "the loves of the plants," so mellifluously sung by Dr. Erasmus Darwin in the days of our grandfathers, have been in our time, through a felicitous ata-

* 'The Different Forms of Flowers on Plants of the Same Species.'—'The Various Contrivances by which Orchids are Fertilized by Insects.' Second Edition, revised.—'The Effects of Cross and Self-Fertilization in the Vegetable Kingdom. By Charles Darwin, M.A., F.R.S.' London: John Murray; New York: D. Appleton & Co. 1876-77. 3 vols. 12mo.

vism, more scientifically if prosaically expounded by his grandson, in a series of articles and volumes of which the subjoined are the principal titles. If we have too long delayed our notice of these books, we make amends by calling attention to them at the season which invites and amply rewards the observations in field and garden which they suggest. Mainly in consequence of these writings, the subject which our new word connotes—namely, the connubial relations of plants—has become a popular and fruitful branch of biological science, which has its own laws and rules and technical terms, its distinction of legitimate and illegitimate unions, and tables of forbidden degrees. For example, it is not lawful, at least it is not *en règle* nor beneficial, for "thrum-eyed" primroses to interbreed, nor for "pin-eyed" primroses to interbreed. Such are illegitimate unions, seldom blessed with progeny. To the uncurious observer in Wordsworth's poem,

> "A primrose by a river's brim
> A yellow primrose was to him,
> And it was nothing more."

But as concerns the primrose, where seed-bearing is in question, if it be of the thrum-eyed stock, the pollen brought to it must come from the pin-eyed, and vice versa, in order to full fertility. Tiny blue-eyed Houstonias, enamelling our meadows in early spring, and fragrant Mitchellas, carpeting pine-woods at midsummer, are in similar case. It is this kind of arrangement for cross-breeding to which the larger part of Darwin's latest volume on 'The Different Forms of Flowers on Plants of the Same Species' is devoted. In such flowers—and they are rather numerous and of many families—the advantage of cross-breeding between different individuals of the same species is unquestionable, for it is essential to full fertility. The differences in structure, which consist of relative and reciprocal lengths of stamens and style in blossoms otherwise alike, have long been known; the meaning of it was one of Darwin's happy thoughts, and the confirmation is due to his labors. He demonstrated that the structure was correlated to the transport by insects of the pollen of the one sort to the stigma of the other, and that each pollen was inert, or nearly so, upon the stigma of the flower it belonged to, but potent upon the stigma of the other sort, upon which, in passing from blossom to blossom among the plants (of about equal number as to sort), the visiting insects are pretty sure to deposit it.

It is noteworthy that this significant dimorphism belongs to certain species of a considerable number of natural families, while others, sometimes even of the same genus, and in most of their species, show no trace of it; as if certain favored species had acquired a peculiarity in which their brethren have not shared. We ourselves call to mind some species in which this acquisition is either incipient or the correlations imperfect. But in his earliest work of the present series, on 'The Various Contrivances by which Orchids are Fertilized by Insects'—a fascinating volume, which has recently been brought out in a second edition—the "contrivances," as they may well be termed, are the common property of the whole order, although each genus seems to have patented a modification of its own. Here there is no dimorphism, but (with rare exceptions) all the flowers are alike, and all agree in having the pollen placed tantalizingly near the stigma, but prevented from reaching it, as well as in having some arrangement for the pollen's being transported by insects from one flower to another, and ultimately from one plant to another. Wonderful arrangements, indeed, they are, which it requires a volume to describe, and of which we can here offer no details. Suffice it to say that, in this great order, cross-fertilization must be all but universal as between different flowers of the same plant, and commonly between different individual plants.

In both these kinds of hermaphrodite flowers the practical separation of the sexes is hardly less than in oaks, willows, and other trees and herbs in which the stamens and pistils occupy distinct plants or different blossoms. To these three classes, then, Mr. Charles Darwin's aphorism, "Nature abhors perpetual self-fertilization," undoubtedly applies. But there remains an equal number of plants with hermaphrodite blossoms, all alike, with no obvious obstacle to fertilization with their own pollen, while in many the adaptations are such as must apparently ensure it, and indeed does very commonly ensure it. Wherefore it is nowise surprising that self-fertilization was the orthodox doctrine—that there was thought to be a general adaptation for the falling of the pollen upon the stigmas of the same blossom. It is true that Christian Conrad Sprengel taught the contrary, in his work entitled 'The Secret of Nature Discovered,' published eighty-five years ago, and that he—mainly upon good observations—in a measure anticipated Mr. Darwin's aphorism; but he was accounted whimsical and untrustworthy by his own generation, and was forgotten by the next. Not so the contemporary 'Loves of the Plants'—the hymnal of the old orthodox cult—which sings the

> "Gay hopes and amorous sorrows of the mead"

in verse which our fathers were fond of, but from which we will not further quote. Had Dr. Erasmus Darwin known Sprengel's book, and brought to it the insight of the grandson, how different and how much richer the poem might have been. What curious facts and teeming fancies have been left unsung!

To H. Müller and to Hildebrand, two of Sprengel's countrymen, in our own day, may be credited the confirmation of the latter's thesis as respects the general run of hermaphrodite flowers; and this by showing what a large proportion even of these are functionally unisexual, either by the shedding of their pollen before the stigma of that blossom is ready to receive it, or by the development and subsequent shrivelling of the stigma before the pollen matures, or by various other arrangements of like effect. And here, too, comes in the significant fact for the evolutionist that these arrangements belong to widely different families, but only to certain of their species or groups of species, and not to their near relatives; also that they are more pronounced in some species than in others.

Yet, withal, there is much close-fertilization, and no one has demonstrated this better than Mr. Darwin, nor so well illustrated its meaning. The more particular and special the adaptations for cross-fertilization—depending, as they mainly do, upon insect-transportation, consequent upon visits for nectar or other floral products—the greater the chances of no fertilization through the failure of the proper insect visitation. So nature, not scorning a succedaneum, arranges for self-fertilization also as the next best thing, indicating her preference, however, by endowing the pollen with greater potency upon other stigma than its own; the principle throughout being to place the pollen where it will do the most good, all things considered. But Mr. Darwin insists, apparently with reason, that cross-breeding is the general plan and close-breeding the subsidiary proceeding, or at least that no species of flowering plants is deprived of its chance of wide-breeding, or fails to receive the benefit of it for any long number of generations.

This assumes that wide-breeding is beneficial. The assumption is one which a teleologist like Darwin is bound to make, and which an investigator like Darwin is bound to verify, if possible. The assumption is that ends elaborately brought to pass in a large number of species, in a variety of ways, and by great nicety and exactness of adaptation, cannot be meaningless or useless—must somehow conduce to the well-being of the species. Happily, this inference holds equally good whether, with the old-fashioned teleologist, the word *end* denotes a result aimed at, or, as in Darwinian teleology, a result attained. The two senses are not contradictory, and, as concerns the validity of the inference, it matters not which sense is adopted, or whether the two are combined. Darwin's investigation, undertaken to determine by experiments whether such crossing is beneficial, is published in the remaining volume of the series under consideration—that on 'The Effects of Cross and Self-Fertilization in the Vegetable Kingdom.' It does not fall within the scope and limits of this notice to set forth the nature and the extent of these experiments. Readers interested will go to the book, and probably have done so already. As to the results, we may only say that, on the whole, they corroborate the inference—in some cases unequivocally and strongly, in others feebly, while in a very few the result was simply negative. While the crossing in many cases showed astonishing reinvigoration, and self-fertilization evident injury, the maximum good was obtained at the first or second crossing, and some close-fertilized plants soon became tolerant of that condition, and retained their fertility for several close-bred generations. If the Darwinian thesis was on the whole maintained, yet it was also shown that plants have many inexplicable idiosyncrasies, and that many unknown or obscure factors enter into the results of experiment. On looking over the series we are reminded of the late Jeffries Wyman's aphorism: "No single experiment in physiology is worth anything."

It seems reasonably made out that the benefit of a cross is, *cæteris paribus*, in direct relation to a certain difference in constitution between the two parents, or to some difference in their surroundings or antecedents, from which diversity of constitution may be inferred. The benefit is more decided when the parents come together from a distance than when grown side by side for several generations, and "a cross between two flowers on the same plant does no good, or very little good." The qualification is a proper one. It would be hasty to infer that it does absolutely no good, even though the advantage be inappreciable in any single instance. Still,

however just and fairly well sustained the principle of Darwin's aphorism may be, it is confronted by the immense and seemingly endless vitality of long-propagated varieties which do not seed at all.

If we were writing a popular review of this volume on cross and self-fertilization, we should make much of the tenth and eleventh chapters, on the means of fertilization, and especially of cross-fertilization; on the plants which are sterile, or more than half-sterile, without insect aid; and, above all, on the habits of insects in relation to the fertilization of flowers. A closing chapter in the volume, on the Forms of Flowers, should also receive attention—that in which *cleistogamous* blossoms are discussed, viz., small and inconspicuous ones which never open, but are far more fertile than the showy ordinary blossoms of the same plants; for capital converse testimony, to the effect that all ordinary flowers are in primary reference to cross-fertilization, may be derived from the structure and behavior of these blossoms, in which the contrary intent is unmistakable. When nature means close-fertilization she makes her purpose manifest. Also, we should note that this cleistogamy is sporadic, affects certain families only, and certain members only of families not otherwise particularly related; so that this peculiarity also seems to be of special and apparently late acquisition. When we gather into one line the several threads of evidence of this sort, to which we have barely alluded, we find that they lead in the same direction with the clews furnished by the study of abortive organs: slender, indeed, each thread may be, but they are manifold, and together they bind us firmly to the doctrine of the derivation of species.

The Life of Edgar Allan Poe. By William F. Gill. Illustrated. Fourth edition, revised and enlarged. (New York: W. J. Widdleton.)—The disappointed reader may at least recognize the truth of one sentence in this most unsatisfactory book—the passage, namely, in which it is asserted that "the relentless fate that pursued the unhappy poet [Poe] during his lifetime followed him after death" (p. 268). It is quite true up to this moment, and Mr. Gill's biography is simply Fate's latest instrument. The "phenomenal catastrophe" which, it is stated, prevented the erection of a slab over the poet's grave, has been followed by the severer catastrophe involved in the production of this memoir. Yet, after all, Mr. Gill is simply the last and worst of those relentless friends of Poe who persist in seeing in every criticism upon his sad career only a new proof that "his temperament was totally at variance with the spirit of the age in which he lived" (p. 241). If these deluded people could only recognize the fact that the cloud which rests over the poet's fame is not of Mr. Griswold's creating; that Mr. Griswold himself is almost forgotten; that nobody is fighting for him; and that the world would only be too thankful to anybody who should prove that Griswold was wrong and Poe right! Yet they do not prove it—they do not even attempt proof; they only rain down epithets with a virulence worthy of Poe himself, and end by conceding, and even reaffirming, almost every charge that ever was made against the unhappy poet.

Here comes Mr. Gill, for instance, and issues an angry controversial pamphlet of more than three hundred pages. Yet he adds not one fact of importance to our knowledge of Poe, and the only real value of the book is in its concessions. He frankly admits that Poe quarrelled with his adopted father for refusing to pay the gambling debts of his unworthy protégé (p. 40); that he made his child-wife very unhappy in the early days of their marriage (p. 140); that his word was utterly worthless when speaking of his own life and writings (p. 136); that he insulted one of his most intimate female friends, Mrs. Ellet, in a way which he afterwards owned to be "a dishonor," though he never seems to have apologized for it. As to the poet's fits of drunkenness, Mr. Gill admits them again and again, and abundantly confirms what he calls a statement of "ferocious cruelty" when Griswold makes it, that "his [Poe's] habits of frequent intoxication and his inattention to the means of support had reduced him to much more than common destitution" (p. 185). Nay, the new biographer goes so far as to print a fac-simile of a letter of the poet's, during his disastrous visit to Washington, and this for no apparent purpose but to show by the handwriting the "unfortunate condition of the author" (p. 120). If it is desirable to cover up the infirmities of genius, Mr. Gill has thus hit upon a refinement of cruelty that never would have occurred to the duller hostility of Griswold.

As if finally to refute his own theory of the malice of the previous biographer, Mr. Gill prints at the end of his book a review by Poe of Griswold's 'Poets of America,' alleging that this was what stung that prosaic compiler into blackening the memory of the poet. Now, not only is the criticism itself in the very worst style of that crude and abusive early period of American literature; not only does it show us Poe as introducing puffs of himself, over and over again, as thus: "Edgar A. Poe, who has spent more time in analyzing the construction of our language than any living grammarian, critic, or essayist" (p. 334), but it specifically refutes the precise argument for whose sake it is introduced. This review by Poe was aimed at the third edition of Griswold's tedious book; whereas any one who will refer to the first edition will find that the author had already implied there, very distinctly, the same low moral estimate of Poe which he later showed. In short, it was Poe, not Griswold, who wrote under a grudge.

The conclusion of the whole matter is, that Mr. Gill adds little if anything to our knowledge of Poe; and that little tells against the cause which the biographer so vehemently maintains. This leaves it in doubt why the book was written until we reach the appendix, and there learn that, at the dedication of the Poe monument in Baltimore, Mr. Gill recited the "Raven" publicly; that "the large audience was absolutely spell-bound by his perfect elocution" (p. 270); and that he "was made the recipient of an ovation at its close" (p. 308). We fear that he will not win a similar tribute from his readers.

Frithjof's Saga: A Legend of Ancient Norway. By Esaias Tegnér. Translated from the original Swedish by L. A. Sherman. With illustrations. (Boston: James R. Osgood & Co.)—Bishop Tegnér, of Wexiö, Sweden, who died on the 2d of November, 1846, is better known outside of his native country than any other Scandinavian poet. His great popularity is mainly due to his justly celebrated poem entitled 'Frithjof's (or perhaps more properly Fridthjof's) Saga,' a poem, or rather a combination of twenty-four cantos or ballads, based on two old Norse Sagas; that of Thorstein Viking's son and that of Fridthjof the Bold. These two Sagas furnished the plot of the story; but Tegnér found many of the finest passages of the poem in the 'Elder Edda' and in other Old-Norse lays. The poem was published complete by the author in 1822, and in 1871 the twentieth Swedish edition appeared. Sweden has had greater poets, but none whose influence upon the Swedish people has been so decisive. Numerous editions of 'Fridthjof's Saga' have appeared in Denmark and Norway, and in Icelandic there is an excellent translation by Matthias Jochumsson. Translations have appeared in nearly all modern languages including Russian, Polish, and Greek. Sixteen versions have appeared in Germany, and of the best one of these (Mohnike's) the ninth edition was published in 1863.

The English language boasts just twenty translations, eighteen of which have been made in England and two in America. 'Fridthjof's Saga' was first made known to Americans by Longfellow, who about the year 1837 spent some time in Sweden, where he made the personal acquaintance of Tegnér, and on his return to the United States published a complete translation of Tegnér's 'Children of the Lord's Supper,' and an exhaustive, enthusiastic, and critical review of 'Fridthjof's Saga,' interspersed with copious translations. In 1867 Bayard Taylor published the first complete American edition of the poem, selecting for this purpose the translation by William Lewery Blackley, one of the eighteen English versions referred to above. Mr. Taylor supplemented the Blackley translation with an original introduction and notes. In 1877 Professor R. B. Anderson published in his 'Viking Tales of the North' the two Old-Norse Sagas upon which Tegnér based the poem, and added by way of appendix George Stephen's version of the poem. 'Viking Tales' also contains an introduction, a biography of Tegnér, copious notes, a mythological vocabulary, etc., and is the only edition in any language containing the Old-Norse Sagas complete.

The first American translation of the whole poem was made by Mr. and Mrs. Thos. A. E. Holcomb, and was published in Chicago about a year ago, and now we have Mr. Sherman's. A peculiar feature of both is that every canto is rendered in precisely the same metre as the Swedish original, that the feminine rhymes are everywhere preserved, and that the alliteration in imitation of the scaldic lays is reproduced in canto xxi. The new feature in Mr. Sherman's book is the illustrations from plates purchased in Sweden, being wood engravings from Malmström's celebrated pencil sketches. It is safe to say that both these versions are very creditable to the translators and cannot fail to become popular. Mr. Sherman seems to have taken great pains with the hexameters, as there are but few lines that will not "read themselves." This is, however, a point to which English readers are not apt to pay much attention, from the fact that we have scarcely any perfect hexameter verse in the English

language. Mr. Sherman's hexameters are sometimes imperfect in reference to the cæsural pause as compared with the original. It is the rule in Swedish (of which any one can convince himself by reading Tegnér and Runeberg) that feminine cæsuras should be avoided, and they are rare in Longfellow's "Miles Standish." Still, we prefer feminine cæsuras to emasculated verses. In comparing the Holcomb and Sherman versions we should say the latter has throughout obeyed more completely the laws of metre, while the former, with its awkward hexameters and occasional false rhymes, has gained in freedom, and has rendered the spirit of the original better. We repeat, however, that both are very good and deserve to be widely read. We still think Prof. Longfellow should give us the translation of Fridthjof's Saga that he promised many years ago.

Historical Biographies. Edited by Rev. M. Creighton, M.A., late Fellow and Tutor of Merton College, Oxford. 'Life of Sir Walter Ralegh,' by Louise Creighton. With portrait and maps. (London: Rivingtons; New York: E. P. Dutton & Co.)—This work is the best of the series to which it belongs—partly, no doubt, because the character of the series has now become more definitely shaped and established; chiefly, however, we think, from the character of the subject. It is not always remembered how different in aim and style a biography is from a history. A biography should properly have to do with the personality and private life of a man; his public actions belong to history. "Historical biographies"—the lives, that is, of persons of historical importance—are, no doubt, generally the most instructive, because their characters interest us from a two-fold point of view; nevertheless, even in historical biographies, the individual man and his private actions should be the starting point, rather than the public events in which he took part. No better example of the class of men whose lives are suited to be the subject of biography can be found than Sir Walter Ralegh. He was so near the court, and so constantly in contact with public affairs, that his life touches history in every event; and yet his life was essentially private. In the history of the day he was a secondary character; and, on the other hand, in his life the great historical events of the day were but of secondary moment. Moreover he has left such ample and impressive memorials of his character and actions that it is easy to form a clear and vivid idea of his personality.

Neither of the other books of this series answers so well to the requirements of historical biography. In the first place, it is not easy, in the Middle Ages or in antiquity, to find a person—like Cicero, the younger Pliny, Grostête, and Petrarch—who has left a personal record of his inner life, or even the materials for a detailed knowledge of his private actions. Simon de Montfort, for example, is first and last a public character; we know next to nothing of his *biography*—it is all *history;* and the same is true, in a less degree, with Edward the Black Prince. Having an admirable subject to her hand, Mrs. Creighton has done full justice to it, and has produced a brief biography of the highest merit. We are not willing to close without calling attention to the excellent portrait of her hero.

Essai sur le Rôle politique et social des Ducs de Bourgogne dans les Pays-Bas. Par Paul Fredericq, Ancien élève de l'École Normale des Humanités, etc. (Ghent. 8vo, pp. 230.)—The countrymen of Motley and Kirk will take especial satisfaction in a book which makes clear many points in the history and institutions of the Netherlands which these historians must necessarily take for granted. This brief treatise consists of an introduction containing a sketch of the reigns of the four dukes, and nine chapters treating of the various aspects of their government—their relation to the clergy, nobility, and communes, their system of administration, and their military, financial, judicial, and political reforms. The judgment of the author is in the highest degree unfavorable. All four dukes are depicted as arbitrary, false, and unscrupulous, and it is impossible not to suspect a certain covert satire in the frequency with which the most selfish and harmful acts are assigned to the long and brilliant reign of "Philip the Good." The "reforms," too, are shown to consist mainly in the enforcement of a centralized despotism. Only in one case is any real and lasting benefit ascribed to their policy—in the establishment of the states-general for the group of provinces which they ruled. The territorial unity, which was the chief aim of their policy, was in itself a great gain; but, attained by the system of centralized administration, borrowed from France, it was at the sacrifice of local institutions and liberties. A common parliament for what was in truth a new nation was the only means of combining the new system with what was good in the old; but even this salutary institution was carried out by the dukes capriciously and without good faith.

In connection with this we have (p. 210) an account of an anonymous writing addressed to Philip the Good by one of his counsellors, containing sound and sagacious advice as to the government of his states. M. Fredericq calls this anonymous writer "the greatest political theorist of his time"—a praise which may be deserved in a period singularly devoid of thinkers of every class. We are surprised, however, in his criticisms and suggestions, that he makes no allusion to the English constitution as affording a model which the dukes might have easily found to their hands if they had chosen. France is justly indicated as having afforded the pernicious model which they followed; they were, indeed, French princes of the blood. England, equally near, and connected with the country by even closer ties, presented the type which the provinces themselves would have chosen.

We hesitate to undertake to correct a Netherland historian upon the genealogy of his own country; but M. Fredericq appears to be in error as to the relation of the Free County to the Duchy of Burgundy. He says twice (pp. 8 and 215) that the grant of King John of France to his son Philip the Bold was the Duchy and the Free County (Franche Comté) of Burgundy. We had always supposed that the Franche Comté came to Philip by his wife, "Flemish Margaret," and that she inherited it, along with Artois, from her grandmother Margaret, wife of Louis II. of Flanders; and that this Margaret, again, had it from her mother Jane, wife of Philip V. the Long, who inherited it from her father, Otto IV., Count of Burgundy. At any rate, there is no doubt that the County was an imperial and female fief, while the Duchy was a French and male fief; so that, while the Duchy escheated to King John in 1361, at the death of Duke Philip of Rouvroux, the County, had it been in the hands of this Philip, would not have followed the same course, but would have passed to Philip's female heirs or have fallen to the empire. Indeed, the only fault we have to find with this excellent treatise is that the exceedingly complicated relation of the Netherland provinces to one another—which neither Mr. Kirk nor Mr. Motley has made entirely clear—does not receive a distinct and adequate treatment.

Geschichte der englischen Litteratur. Von Bernhard ten Brink. Erster Band; bis zu Wiclif's Auftreten. (Berlin: Oppenheim; New York: Westermann & Co. 1877.)—We have had occasion more than once of late to call attention to the vigor with which the study of Early English is pursued in Germany. We have noted the almost simultaneous appearance of two quarterlies devoted exclusively to this subject, namely, the *Anglia* and the *Englische Studien*. The older philological reviews, such as Steinmeyer's *Zeitschrift*, the *Germania*, Herrig's *Archiv*, are giving to it more and more space, and Paul and Braune, in their *Beiträge*, have already published a number of essays betokening the rise of a new school of criticism. All this independent of detached works, such as Sievers' investigation of the relations between the 'Heliand' and the Anglo-Saxon Genesis. The efficient cause underlying the phenomena is this: the present school of Germanic philology is seeking for itself new fields, new roads of research. Old German, to speak comparatively, is exhausted. Not but that very much remains to be done, even here, in the way of explaining linguistic processes and connecting them with the general rules of Indo-European grammar. But the field has been so thoroughly mapped out, the apparatus for research is in such good order and so accessible, that the work of the future will consist chiefly in details.

It is not our purpose to enter into a detailed examination of Professor Ten Brink's history step by step. To undertake this satisfactorily one must have the amplest allowance of space at his disposal. We can only indicate its distinguishing features and commend it most heartily to the earnest study of every lover of English literature. In the first place, the author's style leaves nothing to be desired. It is simple, manly, direct, free alike from pedantry and from the desire to shine. The perusal of a single chapter will convince the most careless reader that the writer is a master of his subject and holds all the details in a firm grasp. The chapters upon Beowulf and the other remains of Anglo-Saxon epic poetry, upon the so-called Cædmon Genesis, upon Cynevulf, Aelfred, and Aelfric, are in every respect models of style. They could have come only from a spirit that is a happy blending of sound, patient scholarship with delicate poetic sympathy. Moreover, within the compass of four hundred and sixty pages we are treated to a full and continuous history of English literature from Beowulf down to and including Piers Plowman. None

but such as have themselves struggled painfully over the rough and thorny ground can know fully what this means; yet every reader can admire the work and the way in which it has been done. Nothing worthy of note has been omitted, everything receives its due and no more than its due share of attention, and the general movement of the narrative is easy and sustained. The author has not suffered himself to be misled by his individual preferences into treating one subject or person at the expense of another. His criticisms are to the point and just, and are always temperate. His comparisons between the substance and the form of English literature and the literatures of the Continent are carefully drawn and no less carefully husbanded. They are not introduced oftener than need be, and serve to elucidate the English without becoming wearisome. In short, we obtain from Professor Ten Brink's account not only a clearer but a far juster idea of our early literature than has hitherto been at all possible.

Finally, the history is not only well proportioned and ably told, but rests upon a basis of solid learning. Professor Ten Brink nowhere makes parade of his erudition. In a separate work, a *Grundriss*, as the preface informs us, he purposes giving a full bibliography of Anglo-Saxon and Early English, and establishing or developing more fully certain points which are still to be regarded as in controversy. The present work is of a rather popular nature, designed, as the author expresses it, for "weitere Kreise." Nevertheless, evidences of the most painstaking research are to be found on every page. Here, again, one must be a professed student of English to estimate the author's accuracy fully. The field is immense and the questions at issue are at times extremely complicated. The student's opinion will depend not infrequently upon the views he may hold upon certain fundamental points in comparative philology, mythology, and folk-lore, points which lie wholly outside of English, as English, and which can be settled only with reference to these sciences in general. There being in such cases a necessary divergence of opinion, we can demand no more of an author than that he deliver his own views with moderation, consistency, and after careful consideration of all that may have been said on both sides. Whoever looks to Professor Ten Brink for this will not be disappointed. He is equally at home in Germanic mythology and in mediæval folk-lore, in Anglo-Saxon and Old French, in alliterative verse and in the late Latin and Romance metres. He has brought all his acquisitions to bear upon a subject which is of great interest, but which is extremely obscure, and which has been shamefully neglected. To him is due the credit of being the first to bring order out of the chaos of our earliest literature. For the first time since we have had a literature we are able to read its primal history in a coherent and intelligible shape. We are prepared in every respect for the bright coming of Wyclif and Chaucer, when—to requote the author's motto from Dante—we hope with him *correr migliori acque.*

Lehrbuch der alten Geographie. Von H. Kiepert. Erste Hälfte. Einleitung, Asien, und Africa. (Berlin: Dietrich Reimer. 1877. 8vo, pp. 224.)—But for the circumstance that Heinrich Kiepert is known as one of the most eminent geographers of the age, and as the author of an 'Atlas Antiquus,' a 'Historico-Geographical Atlas of the Ancient World,' a 'Topographico-Historical Atlas of Hellas and the Hellenic Colonies,' a 'Bible Atlas,' etc.; of extensive special maps of Greece, Italy, Asia Minor, Palestine, and Egypt; and of critical writings on various topics of ancient geography and ethnology—not to speak of his cartographical and geographical productions on modern countries—the mass of varied and exact knowledge condensed in the unassuming book before us would surprise us as almost prodigious. We have no hesitation in saying that we consider it a treasury of information on the ancient world, equally valuable for its fulness, correctness, and freshness. By the last qualification we refer to the care and thoroughness with which the latest results of Assyriology, Egyptology, and kindred research have been made to complete and often essentially modify the knowledge derived from classical and Scriptural materials.

To illustrate the way in which the information generally given in similar works is here supplemented from Eastern sources, we cite the paragraph (29) devoted to the Mediterranean, in which we are not only told how that sea was variously designated by the Greek and Roman writers, from the early poets down to Solinus, but also that it was called by the Egyptians *vat(vaz)-ur*, "mare magnum," in contradistinction to *she-n-pun*, sea of Pun (Arabia), or the Arabian Gulf; by the Assyrians, *tihamti rabiti*, great sea, *tihamti sa mat a'harri*, rearward or western sea, and at a later period, *tihamti yaunai*, Greek sea; and by the Hebrews, *hayyām*, the sea κατ' ἐξοχήν, *hayyām haggadōl*, the great sea, or *hayyām haa'harōn*, the rearward or western sea, in contradistinction to the little salt sea (Dead Sea) in the east of their country.

The uncompromising decision with which results of modern criticism are accepted by the author as disposing of ethnological notions founded on an orthodox acceptation of old texts and traditions is best illustrated by the paragraph (158) on the names of Palestine, its main divisions, and its inhabitants. *'Ibrī* (Hebrew) "must have designated, in the tongue of the older Canaanitish inhabitants, not only the Israelites before their immigration, but also the neighboring tribes, as dwelling 'beyond' (*'eber*) the Jordan"—not the Euphrates. 'Ibri nomad tribes, probably of Arabic race, invaded Canaan from the southeast—both Mesopotamia and Egypt are here ignored—in the fourteenth or thirteenth century B.C., and "subsequently assumed the national name Israel." The invasion of the tribes was not simultaneous, but successive. The group represented in the Old Testament legends as descendants of the older mother of tribes, Leah, came first—Reuben, Simeon, Judah, Issachar, and Zebulun; Levi was not an original tribal division. The sons of the younger mother, Rachel, came next—Benjamin, Ephraim, Manasseh—occupying the fertile central region of the country, and dividing and pressing back their predecessors. Last of all, we see established the small tribes marked as people mixed with Gentile elements, the sons of the concubines—Gad, Dan, Asher, and Naphtali. "Gad and Asher—names of heathen divinities, one Babylonian and one Phœnician—are evidently borrowed." The kinship to Edom is one of the oldest recollections of the people; the story of the migrations under the patriarchs grew out of legends of other and earlier Semitic inhabitants of Canaan.

Semitic philology plays a considerable and often very interesting part in the book, as, for instance, in the portions referring to Caria, Lycia, and Cilicia. The derivation of the name of Patara, the seat of the famous oracle of Apollo in Lycia, from the Hebrew (and undoubtedly also Phœnician) word *pathar*, to interpret (dreams)—a derivation which may be old, though it is new to us—is surely very striking, especially if we remember that the town of the oracle-deliverer Balaam was called Pethor ("dream-interpreters' place," Gesenius). We are glad to find that our author is free from that hyper-Hellenism which infects some recent publications treating of ancient Asia Minor and the neighboring islands, such as Lenormant's 'Antiquités de la Troade,' etc. On the other hand, we find it surprising that he entirely ignores the identification of the names Teucrians and Dardanians with the corresponding names found on Egyptian monuments, while he accepts the similar identifications of the hieroglyphic "Shakalisha, Shardana, Turisha, Danau, Pulushta" with the Siculi, Sardinians, Tyrseni, Danai, and Pelasgians. Of the many derivations of the name *Ægyptus* and its Hebrew equivalent *Mitzraim* attempted by scholars, he mentions only Brugsch's for the former and Reinisch's for the latter, and neither as a definitive solution. The juxtaposition of various opinions is avoided throughout, which naturally renders some of the opinions adopted too positive. Few modern authorities are referred to, and views rejected are ignored. The identification of the Assyrian *Caldi* and the Greek *Chaldæa* with the Hebrew *Casdim* is admitted even on grounds of linguistic analogy, while that of *Sumir* with *Shinar* is rejected on account of the want of such analogy; while Professor Sayce, in his 'Lectures on the Assyrian Languages'—just published—unhesitatingly accepts the latter identification, and declares the former to be linguistically unjustifiable.

Our readers must, however, not be misled by our quotations and references into believing that this 'Manual of Ancient Geography' is chiefly devoted to philological research. Far from it. It is a geography in the strictest sense of the word, and amply descriptive of the natural characteristics of the various countries, in spite of its limitation to ancient conditions. The style is excellent, though for an English reader there is far too much involution in the construction of the sentences, which will render a translation into English—a thing much to be desired—a rather difficult task. The names are generally given in their purest original forms, as far as plausibly ascertained. Even in modern names a striking purism is observed, "Nigir" being used for *Niger*, "Baghdâd" for *Bagdad*, and "Scotland" as in English, instead of the German *Schottland*. The transliteration is generally strict, though not always consistent. Thus, we find "Mĕnasche," "Schekem," and "Grizim"—not *Schĕkem*, or properly *Schĕchem*, and *Gĕrizim*. Misprints, even in Oriental words, are exceedingly rare; among the few are "châròn" for *schâròn*, p. 151; פספס for פספס, p. 162; and probably לכקי for לכמי, p. 213.

A preface is to appear with the second part, as well as an index, which, if complete, will greatly enhance the value of the work.

Fine Arts.

THE LESSONS OF A LATE EXHIBITION.

THE first venture of the Society of American Artists at opening an exhibition was terminated by the closing of the Kurtz Gallery on March 30, although the announcements promised that the collection would be on view until April 4. The premature shutting of the doors was dictated not by want of success, for the exhibition was a paying one, but by motives of delicacy, the members declining to hold a display during the week opened with the Academy's annual show. We believe that everybody has forgiven the young men for their retiring modesty, and that every citizen who wanted to see, or could have been made to want to see the pictures, has seen them. The enterprise, in fact, has been very nearly compromised by the kindness of its friends, numbers of gazers having been sent to the little gallery on a promise that they would find the ordinary attractions of picture exhibitions, to be blankly disappointed by the academic studies and strictly professional successes there included. To win any such attention another year the Society must prepare what are known to the trade as gallery paintings, and be less addicted to dragging their "impressions" and their bust-portraits of models by the head and shoulders into bronzed frames, and so constituting them "pictures" perforce. As arranged in the gallery, the exhibition included two classes of canvases, the works of American pupils in Munich and the works of American pupils at Paris. With inconsiderable exceptions, the Kurtz Gallery was a field of tournament for these two rival camps alone. The pupils of Piloty and Lindenschmidt showed the fling and impulse, the ambitious dash at pictorial composition while imperfectly furnished forth with knowledge of anatomy and the antique, which have made the public flock to their work, whenever exhibited, with allurement and distrust. The French disciples displayed the want of charm, the profundity of preparation, the austere method applied to the most trivial subjects, characteristic of that school of teaching. To those visitors who were sufficiently professional to enjoy the scaffolding, the plans, and the foundation-work of an architecture still in the preparatory state, the little exhibition was full of interest. The ideas just now current in the principal art-centres of Europe could be better studied in these college exercises, so full of conviction and partisanship, than in the works of more experienced craftsmen, with more motives for concealing the source of their inspiration. If Franz Hals, for instance, has lately been taken up as a fashionable model, by advocates of the lightning method, both in Germany and France, there was work to be seen, by the pupil of Carolus Duran—who bases his instruction principally on that master—showing what is the French interpretation of Hals's crispness; on the other hand, there was the work of Currier, a Bostonian educated in Antwerp and Munich, giving Franz Hals in abject Dutch counterfeit, in the clever pasticcio called a "Bohemian Beggar," a veritable sister of the "Hille Bobbe." Weir in his boy-portrait (26), conceived in the spirit of generalization, desirous of conferring upon bone and muscle an ideal softness, approached his task in the French taste, and reached only the pulpy vagueness of Hamon. Just above hung Shirlaw's study of "Feeding the Geese," or "Good Morning," in which the countenances were generalized too, but this time in the German way, which consists in painting a disc of earthy flesh-color, on which the apertures of the face are sketchily hollowed out, so as to dissimulate the absolute flatness of the cranium.* The picture last alluded to, by the by, showed how the heroic poses promulgated by Kaulbach and his successors have become such a common baggage in the school that they can be spared for the most ordinary actions of life; nothing could give a greater start to the sensitive eye than to come upon this country *Frau* feeding poultry in the attitude of Titian's Assumption. The Munich works, in fact, as we freely concede their greater attractiveness, their better show of maturedness, seem to us the more dangerous on that account; we fear the Greeks and the gifts they bring. These Bavarian canvases are so even in merit, so self-possessed and successful in an inferior aim, that they are to be dreaded among our young painters. The pupils who have gone to Munich paint alike, and the one as well as the other; there seems to be a recipe for arranging a tableau of emotion, a tableau of *genre*, a tableau of still-life; nobody ever fails, and no success worth attaining is ever achieved. If the detection of a false ring in Macaulay's Roman ballads has been made the test of an ear for poetry, so we think an eye for the false gloss of the Munich picture might be a test for sensitiveness to art. Mr. Dyer, of Chicago, a pupil of Niel, sent to the display a piece of still-life in which the wood of the large mandolin was a more illusive piece of texture than any wood-grainer's work in the world; but the picture was a piece of pompous arrangement, with a spot for the bright object and a spot for the dark drapery, contrasting unfortunately with the perfect sincerity and real daylight of Mr. Armstrong's "Corner of my Studio," a similar composition conceived under franker auspices.

The exhibition, besides incidentally revealing this battle-ardor between the French devotees and the Bavarians, contained a few canvases of the kind that are good "drawing" attractions when in sufficient number. Mr. Pearce's "Death of the First-born" was pathetic, noble, and thorough; Mr. Bridgman's "Court of Rameses II.," brownish in color and trivial in incident though it was, betrayed diligent study and accurate archæology; Mr. Lowe's "Emma Albani," a regular "exhibition picture," isolated by a broad waste of pale background and emphasized by a cataract of rich white silk that the artist had painted exactly as he painted the sky in his "All Saints' Day," was a centre-piece that you could no more easily overlook than the épergne on a dinner-table, and was on the whole creditable to a youth who a few months back was a worker on the staff, and not the most promising worker, at Harper & Brothers'. We say creditable to the young artist, but we partly mean creditable to the system of instruction that can so soon evoke striking merit out of plodding commonplace. Portraits of exceeding care, and showing a conscience and a fidelity that will lead to still higher results if pushed in the right direction, were those of Thomas Winans and his son, by Lathrop; overhardness and the biting intensity of Burne Jones are the dangers that Mr. Lathrop will do well to steer away from. A hapless red face, intended for Mr. Bryant, puffed and exaggerated with the youthful student's besetting addiction to enlarging the forms, served as a target for universal gaiety; the hair and beard were represented with the devices by which artists express motion, as in the flow of cascades, flames, or fountains, and the public looked with wonder at these reverend locks diligently moving towards the frame from a face that seemed to swell gigantically on the sight like the Neptune beclouded in a fount. "Fishing for Oysters at Cancale," by Sargent, was one of the best studies of flashing daylight ever made by an American artist, and the remarkable heads by Sartain were examples of pure quality, needing only subject-interest.

It was to be observed that, except in landscape, nearly every work exhibited was prepared on foreign soil. The apparatus of hiring properties, arranging incidents, and employing models, by which conscientious works of art are elaborated, seemed to have been used only with two works produced in this country—Mr. Eakins's "Rush Carving the Fountain" and Roberts's "Lot's Wife," a statue. Both of these, though not above discussion in regard to the selection of subject, were thoroughly studied and artistically satisfactory. The painter of the fountain seemed to have a lesson to deliver—the moral, namely, that good sculpture, even decorative sculpture, can only be produced by the most uncompromising, unconventional study and analysis from life, and to be pleased that he could prove his meaning by an American instance of the rococo age of 1820. Mr. Roberts's statue was a nightmare theme treated with perfect self-command, originality, and knowledge. Works of this sort of thoroughness—and of higher interest and beauty if possible—are what will be needed to make an exhibition "go" next year.

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, APRIL 18, 1878.

The Week.

THE most important event of the week was the contract made by the Treasury with the old Syndicate for the sale of $50,000,000 4½ per cent. bonds at 101¼ gold and accrued interest. The first instalment, which was taken "firm," was $10,000,000; the remaining $40,000,000 are to be taken at the rate of $5,000,000 per month, the bankers being bound to take them unless such unexpected events occur as would make the bonds unsalable. By both parties to the contract it is regarded as a transaction for $50,000,000. Secretary Sherman came to New York to obtain $50,000,000 of gold, the amount he deemed necessary to be obtained by bond sales, in addition to his other coin resources, before the Treasury attempts resumption. He first endeavored to sell 4 per cent. bonds, and invited proposals from the banks; they expressed a wish to aid in Treasury resumption, but refused to take 4 per cent. bonds; the best bid the banks would make for the 4½ per cents was 101¼ gold and accrued interest, and they made this offer only on condition that they should be protected from loss, which they declared a fair offset to their offer to sell the bonds free of charge to the Treasury. The old Syndicate then offered to pay 101½ gold and accrued interest for the bonds, and engaged to take all risk on $10,000,000. That even this could be done was a pleasant surprise to the advocates of resumption. It seems tolerably clear that all the bonds will be sold by the Syndicate, nearly one-half of the first instalment having been disposed of at 102 gold and accrued interest on the first two days that the bonds were offered. The Treasury intends to continue the sale of 4 per cents to the public, and to the extent that they are sold to call in 5-20's 6 per cent. bonds for redemption.

The effect of the 4½ per cent. negotiation in London was to strengthen the market for United States bonds, and to reduce, if not wholly check, the shipments to New York. Here the price of gold fell from 100¾ to 100⅝, and later advanced to 100⅞. Sterling bills fell one-half of a cent and ruled below the point at which gold coin can be exported, although at the close the market for bills was firm. At the Stock Exchange the negotiation was construed as a guaranty of specie payment resumption, and a consequent expansion of the currency. Accordingly, there was a vigorous buying of stocks by speculators and more buying by the public than there has been for many months. The advance in prices since Friday has been 1 to 8 per cent. In the trade markets the improvement was notable in the tone or feeling rather than in prices, since these markets are not in a condition to respond immediately to any favorable change. Silver in London fell during the week to 53⅛*d.* and closed at 54*d.* The gold value of the United States legal-tender note for one dollar was as high as $0.99875 and closed at $0.99625, while the bullion value of the silver dollar was as low as 0.9126 gold, and at the close was $0.9160 gold.

Senator Conkling has been interviewed by an evidently able correspondent of the *World*, and the result fills a page of that paper. It is the most picturesque and forcible description of the Senator's own prudence and sagacity and perspicacity we have yet seen. He shows that he was the originator and chief engineer of the Electoral Commission scheme, thereby saving the country from bloodshed and anarchy; that while he was engaged in this beneficent work "the man Hayes" was engaged in making a bargain with "the friends of Nicholls," "Stanley Matthews and Sherman being privy to it." The substance of it, he says, though thus far successfully concealed, will be sure to come out in the end. "People say that Hayes is a good man, and means well, but they do not know what they are talking about." He added that when everything was known, "people would be appalled by the dishonor of the Administration." He was satisfied before the count that there was rottenness in Louisiana, and though he was accidentally absent when the vote of this State came up, he was glad he was absent. Hayes, he thinks, is now wholly "in the hands of the Southern Democrats," and is altogether a most despicable person.

Mr. Conkling's picture of his colleagues was not a pleasing one either. Gordon is "arrogant and domineering, and by no means brilliant"; Lamar is "the Jesuit of the Senate," and played with poor Stewart L. Woodford as a cat with a mouse. Both Gordon and Lamar were reported to be threatening his (Conkling's) life, one with "a revolver" and the other a "pair of Derringers," but he despised their threats. Stanley Matthews is "not a bad fellow," and Mr. Conkling "often feels sorry for him," but he is "marvellously innocent." Mr. Christiancy supports the President because he has been promised Judge Swayne's place when he dies. It looks as if Messrs. Dawes and Hoar were supporting him under an agreement that they were to have the division of the spoils in Massachusetts. General Burnside is "as weak a man in civil life as in the army, and amounts to nothing in the Senate." Patterson is justifiably "guarded in his action," considering "the political persecution" with which Hampton's government threatens him. The Senator also gave some further account of his Utica troubles about offices and back-pay with "little Roberts"; accused Hayes of intending to start a newspaper, and gave some illustrations of his civil-service reform. Finally, he explained why he had made no speech on the Silver Bill, and nobody would ever have guessed the reason. It was that the New York papers had made the silver-men so mad by their abuse that there was no use in talking to them. In fact, the statesman's conversation was about as instructive and dignified as a budget of Brooklyn gossip on the Scandal.

Another Republican caucus has been held in Washington to decide on some line of action with regard to the fall elections. Only one positive suggestion was made—by Mr. Sargent, of California—that the President should rescind his celebrated civil-service order, so as to leave "the ninety thousand office-holders" free to help the party in the election. It was pointed out, however, that the Attorney-General's gloss deprived the order of its injurious features, and that the ninety thousand could "work" fruitfully under it, and on Mr. Edmunds's suggestion the whole subject was referred to a committee. In fact, the only thing remarkable about the caucus was that no attack was made in it on the Administration, a piece of self-restraint due, doubtless, to the failure of the Howe speech. We would suggest that the "grand old party" should go before the people this fall, if it takes no interest in the more stirring questions of the day, with one great and impregnable truth inscribed on its banner, truth as impregnable as the existence of the universe—viz., that the "Secretary of the Interior was born in Prussia." No Democrat, however debased, will venture to deny this, and how it will rouse the people! A member of the Republican Campaign Committee appointed at the caucus informs the *Tribune* that the leadership of the party will be "cordially tendered" to the President, if he will take it. The meaning of "tendering the leadership" was not explained, but it probably signifies that if he will give certain offices to certain persons they will speak respectfully of him.

Two Democratic conventions have been held during the week. The Illinois platform is very long and minute, and declares for a revenue tariff only; an income-tax on "the surplus profits of the wealthy, who escape their just proportion of taxation"; the taxing of U. S. bonds and greenbacks; the discharge of national obligations in "lawful money" unless otherwise provided; the issue of silver-bullion certificates and the receipt of greenbacks for customs dues; the issue of greenbacks in place of national-bank notes, the

unconditional repeal of the Resumption Act, and the repeal of the Bankrupt Law; and making the wages of employees a first lien on the property and earnings of corporations. It declares against repudiation, against reduction of the national debt, against further contraction of the greenbacks, against the appointment of receivers by Federal courts in the case of "corporations who resist payment of taxes, disregard the rights of citizens, and turn the savings of corporations into foreign channels"; and against the system of leasing convict labor. It pronounces the election of Hayes a "monster political crime." The Oregon Democratic platform takes the same position as regards greenbacks and silver and the fraudulent election, but distinctly approves the proposed new tariff, and calls for a law to prohibit Chinese immigration. The party cue appears still to be to underbid the lowest demagogue, and its rival is now no longer simply the Republican party, but the mushroom organization of greenback and labor politicians known as the National Party. This secret organization has made its most effective stroke in Michigan, in the town elections, but it has also gained unexpected headway in New York, and has for the moment so disturbed the relations of the two older parties as to make speculation about the fall elections hazardous. Its success is symptomatic of party decay, but still more of the loosening of public morality and the spread of communistic doctrines. Its cohesiveness is doubtless of the feeblest.

The Senate, by a vote of 37 to 6, passed on Monday the bill to repeal the Bankrupt Law. On Thursday it received and referred to the Judiciary Committee the resolution of the Maryland Legislature devised by Mr. Blair to reopen the Presidential controversy. It asks Congress to provide a way for the State to bring an action in the Supreme Court of the United States, on the ground that "due effect was not given to the electoral vote of this State" at the last election, "by reason of the fraudulent returns made from other States," and to secure a revision of the returns from Louisiana and Florida in behalf of Mr. Tilden. The resolution was presented by Senator Dennis, of Maryland, who took occasion, in very fit terms, to announce his entire lack of sympathy with the object of its promoters, and his intention to vote against it if it should come before the Senate. The same memorial made its appearance in the House on Monday after a bill to carry it into effect had already been introduced. Mr. Garfield, more or less wisely, moved that it be neither printed nor referred, as is customary in the case of bills, but disposed of at once by rejection. This gave rise to a great controversy over rules and precedents, the Democrats calling to their aid the sacred memory of John Quincy Adams's defence of the right of petition, and the Republicans taking the ground that when a petition had been read its "right" had been fully satisfied. We believe this is the correct view, and that a reference to the debates which led up to and followed the adoption of the famous Atherton "gag" rule in Adams's time will show it to be so. The House had another lively debate on the question of compensating William and Mary College for damage from Federal occupation during the war. Mr. Townsend, of New York, made some frank remarks, in good humor but execrable taste, against it, and it was clear that the college was not well advised in presenting a "claim," however just. An outright gift, in consideration not only of the loss sustained but of the probable utility of the college to the South just now, would have found more favor.

Mr. Potter, of New York, has introduced a bill in Congress "Providing for the judicial ascertainment of claims against the United States," which adds some impetus to the movement of which we spoke last week. As the title indicates, this bill does not provide for the judicial "determination" of claims but for their "ascertainment." The distinction is founded upon the fact that nearly if not quite all of the claims pending in Congress are either outside of the jurisdiction of the Court of Claims or have attached to them some technical defect or bar which makes the relief sought a matter of legislative discretion and not one of judicial right. In such cases the facts are now ascertained by committees of Congress on such *ex-parte* proofs as the claimants choose to produce; no one appears for the Government to cross-examine witnesses and hunt up rebutting evidence, and the most convincing arguments are made while "buttonholing" individual members of the committee. Mr. Potter, who is both an experienced and intelligent member of the House, evidently recognizes the dangerous and demoralizing tendencies of the present system, for his bill provides on the one hand that any person having a claim "founded upon equity and justice" of which the court has not now jurisdiction, may file his bill in court asking for such relief as he believes himself entitled to; and on the other hand that "Congress shall not consider nor allow nor authorize the payment of any private claim" "until the same has been heard and reported to Congress by said Court of Claims, as herein provided." In this class of cases the Attorney-General is to appear and defend as in others, but the court, instead of rendering a final judgment, is merely to find the facts and report them to Congress. On this "judicial ascertainment" of the facts, Congress may then exercise legislative discretion. The bill, to be effectively obligatory upon Congress, should absolutely prohibit committees from investigating the facts of a private claim unless especially authorized by a vote of the House or Senate, and should attach to the finding of the court the finality which generally attaches to the verdict of a jury. If the court, in a judicial way, can ascertain one set of facts, and a Congressional committee, in a legislative way, another, it is tolerably certain that the *ex-parte* affidavit mill will continue to run in Congress.

Mr. M. H. Throop, the chief author of the "new Code," has issued a pamphlet in reply to Governor Robinson's criticisms contained in his recent veto message. His reply is substantially a general denial of all that the Governor says on the subject, and as no human being can possibly form an independent opinion on the subject without a minute examination of several dozens if not hundreds of statutes, it is safe to say that no one at present knows which is right. That the Legislature is in the same condition of ignorance is equally certain. Under ordinary circumstances the bar might be looked to for advice; but the bar is divided, many lawyers whose opinions are entitled to weight taking one side, and many of equal standing taking the other. The dispute has now been running on so long, and has enlisted so much interest on one side or the other, that the lawyers concerned in it are in danger of losing sight of the fact that it is the existence of the dispute which is most deplorable, and that it is having a seriously bad effect in impairing confidence (already taxed pretty severely by an elective system and the exposures of a few years ago) in the legal system under which we live. Mr. Throop's Code may be an improvement on the "old Code," or it may not; but a dispute in which the Governor vetoes a revision of the laws on the ground that the revisers have surreptitiously "upheaved" our entire system of rights and remedies, while the revisers reply that the Governor is grossly ignorant both of the nature of their duties and of the manner of their execution, and half the revision goes into effect with the other half vetoed, cannot fail to arouse a suspicion in the minds of the laity generally that there is something wrong with a system which, in the name of legal reform, produces such queer results. The first requisite of codification is an absolute confidence in the competence and faithfulness of the codifiers. No legislative body can codify by the usual methods of legislation (as Sir James Stephen has very truly pointed out in his excellent digest of the English law of evidence) any more than it can paint a picture. The work must be entrusted to somebody with final discretion.

Mrs. Tilton has made another confession of her guilt in the Beecher affair. It had been heralded for a week or two by rumors in the newspapers that something serious was going to happen. The confession is in the usual rhetoric of her tribe, and contains nothing that she has not already often affirmed and denied before God and man. The morning papers all deplore deeply the reopening of the matter, and are especially troubled by its probable effect on the youth of the country. This has not, however, prevented their

making the most of it. Every one of them makes it the most prominent piece of news of the day, and gives from three to five columns to it. Reporters were despatched at the double-quick to everybody who has been prominently connected with the case to learn his or her view of it. Of course, all the views might have been known beforehand with perfect accuracy. Mr. Beecher's friends, beginning with himself, deny the confession stoutly, and pity the poor woman; his enemies raise up their hands in horror and say that the truth is out at last. Not one particle of new light has been cast on the matter. Nothing has been, or is in the least likely to be, revealed about it that has not been revealed. The only visible effect of the confession will be to deepen the degradation of the unhappy person who has made it, and draw larger crowds to the Beecher and Tilton lectures. Nobody's opinion will be changed or modified by it. We would accordingly respectfully enquire of the editors of the daily papers whether, if they are really troubled about the influence of all this filth on the youthful mind, they would not do well to call home the reporters and let the thing alone. At present they constitute the sole channel by which the filth reaches the youthful mind. As long as they give pages of their space to it they may rely on it that the brethren over in Brooklyn will keep confessing, accusing, and praying for each other. An attempt will probably now be made to "discipline" Mrs. Tilton in the church; and the mere prospect makes one ask whether the police have no duties in the matter? Where is Anthony Comstock?

The London *Economist* gives a sorry welcome to the proposal for an International Conference on the silver question. It opens by expressing the hope that Senator John P. Jones will not be one of the three commissioners selected by the United States, and intimates pretty plainly that no competent and self-respecting Europeans would be willing to meet this personage in any financial negotiation; which, indeed, is not surprising, and yet he is the great head of the silver movement in this country. He was the principal author of the report of the Silver Commission which drove so many Western editors crazy, and we believe was the originator of the great hoax about "the fraudulent conspiracy" to pass the Coinage Act. In 1875 he was a vehement hard-money man; he now, we believe, is an advocate of "fiat money." What he will be in 1880, of course, neither he nor anybody else knows. The *Economist* quotes as a specimen of him some of what it calls his "vehement nonsense," from one of his silver speeches, which is bad enough, and doubtless sounds to English, French, or German financiers like a passage from a theatrical burlesque, but we could readily cite worse passages from his orations. Taking counsel with such a man about the standard of value, of course, seems like debating it with *Colonel Sellers*.

The Paris *Moniteur* has also an article on "The Remonetization of Silver in America," which the *Economist* translates, and which ascribes the burst of enthusiasm for the silver standard within the last two years to the desire of the silver-miners for a market for the product of their newly-discovered veins. It also pokes mild fun at M. Cernuschi, who has, it says, been christened in America "the Bi-metallic Pope," and then goes on to predict the probable course of the negotiation as far as France is concerned. It says that the Americans will demand 16 to 1 as the ratio; the French 15½ to 1, and if the Americans hold firm the negotiation will break down, because the "idea of striking five-franc or gold pieces differing from their value in francs of the present weight will never be brought before a French legislature." If, on the other hand, the Americans yielded to a counter-proposition from France, and abandoned the ratio of 1834, they would be driven back on a single standard of silver, and all hope of gold would be taken away from their creditors. But even then it would be "the marriage of two shadows," for the Americans only dare to coin silver in small doses, and France has forbidden it to be coined at all. The *Moniteur* winds up by doubting whether the negotiations will have any result, and says they are "meant to serve as a humanitarian passport to a measure important and disagreeable to many creditors of the Union." It is reported that Switzerland has accepted the invitation to participate in the conference.

The despatches from Europe about the Anglo-Russian trouble are very numerous and voluminous, but it may be safely said that there is nothing in them of any importance. There has been no change in the situation. The two principal disputants are eyeing each other suspiciously. Germany is trying to mediate, but Bismarck pleads that his position is so delicate that he is afraid to make suggestions lest Russia should look on them as threats. Austria, after much humming and hawing, appears to have made up her mind that it would be a good thing for her to occupy Bosnia as the only means of restoring order there, and enabling the Christian refugees, large numbers of whom are living on her bounty, to return to their homes with confidence and security; and Russia is willing, but Turkey objects. Russia in the meantime shows herself more and more conciliatory in tone, and is evidently determined not to fight for a trifle or a formality, but the Government seems to be embarrassed by the popular feeling that England is seeking Russian humiliation. On the whole, war seems to grow less and less likely. The public mind in England is much calmer, and now that the reserves are called out and Lord Beaconsfield has his own way in the Cabinet, his martial ardor will probably decline. He has always been a theatrical soldier: that is, he likes the pomp and pride and circumstance of preparing to fight, but does not like the heavy responsibility—crushingly heavy for a valetudinarian of seventy—of actual fighting.

Colonel Baker has come home and is receiving, it is said, with the Queen's sanction, a kind of social rehabilitation—another curious illustration of the depth and strength of the anti-Russian mania. The Turks were assailed for cruelty and misgovernment, and because they fought well the Turcophiles maintained that they ought to be let alone in their cruelty and misgovernment. So, also, Baker, having been dismissed from the army and punished criminally for a gross outrage on a lady, is held to have atoned for it by showing in the Turkish service, what no one ever doubted, that he was a good cavalry officer. The sympathies of society, however, followed him into his exile, and the pro-Turk newspapers did everything in their power to embellish his exploits. The only one he had an opportunity of performing outdoes, as reported by them, the great feat of Roland at Roncesvalles: with 2,800 Turks he held 40,000 Russians, commanded by Gourko, in check for a whole day on open ground, and retired in good order with the loss of only half his force. With 5,600 men, therefore, he would probably have turned Gourko, and flung him back into the Balkans.

The Pope's first allocution to the Cardinals in Consistory has appeared, and has been read with a good deal of interest as shadowing forth, however faintly, the policy of his administration. The rhetoric is not very different from that of his predecessor, and we presume belongs to a fixed official type. He describes himself as alarmed by the immensity of the burden of responsibility imposed on him by his election; eulogizes his predecessor; takes the old ground with regard to the loss of the temporal power; draws a very dark picture of the actual condition of the Church, and of the violence of which she has been the victim. The rest of the paper is devoted to the establishment of the Scotch episcopates. Nevertheless, the general opinion seems to be that the new régime will be much more liberal than the old one. M. de Molinari has hunted up an episcopal pastoral of Cardinal Pecci, issued last year to the clergy and people of his diocese, in which he discusses the relations of the Church to science and modern civilization, and it certainly seems to have the seeds of improvement in it. His statements in it of the nature of civilization and progress, of the leading doctrines of political economy, and of the connection between scientific and religious thought, contain nothing that would not pass current in any convention of political economists. But it must be admitted that at that portion of the argument which seeks to make the Syllabus appear friendly to science and civilization, the machinery creaks and groans terribly.

SECRETARY SHERMAN'S RESUMPTION.

MR. SHERMAN'S success in selling fifty millions of four-and-a-half per cent. bonds in this city makes it all but certain that greenbacks will either be at par or sufficiently near par between now and January, 1879, to make it possible for him at and after that date to pay in gold all of them which are likely to be presented. Whether he will be able to continue to do so during the ensuing two years, while silver is gradually making its way into use as a cheap legal tender, is of course still doubtful; but the uncertainty on this point does not trouble him, as he has the right under the law to pay in silver should gold be scarce, and he informed the House Committee the other day that should he find himself short of both metals he would resort to an expedient which he mentioned as something he had heard of as having been used in foreign countries—viz., a suspension of specie payments. Against this contingency, however, he will be protected both by his supply of gold, his supply of silver, and the power which he claims and which he declares his intention to exercise, of reissuing the greenbacks reserved by him in exchange for gold, and by the power which he asks Congress to give him of receiving greenbacks in payment of customs duties after July. This prospect is naturally giving the public a great deal of satisfaction. Some are pleased because it promises to relieve the Government from the discredit of having its notes circulating at a discount; others, because it seems likely to disconcert or quiet the silver-men in Congress, and also the advocates of the repeal of the Resumption Act, their main objection to which was that it could not possibly be executed, and that the preparation for its execution was inflicting great loss and suffering on debtors. To these two classes, however, the most attractive feature in Mr. Sherman's scheme is its inflation feature. If carried out in the way he proposes, the gold he pays out for greenbacks will be a clear addition to the circulation, as long as the exchanges do not turn against us and silver has not become too plentiful, for he will reissue the greenbacks as soon as he takes them. Consequently it is thought we may look forward to a year or two of rising prices, during which we shall all be able to "unload" our unsalable stocks and real estate. This to the sufferers of the last five years is naturally a most agreeable outlook. But after this year or two—what?

The answer which the Secretary himself, and that large and growing portion of the public which does not like remote views, would make to this question would probably be this: That the return of confidence and hopefulness produced by the resumption of specie payments by the Government, in conjunction with inflation, would doubtless put an end to the financial vagaries bred by the long-continued depression, and bring Congress and the country into a rational and moderate frame of mind with regard to finance, and abate the growing desire to despoil the public creditor; that, therefore, by the time the silver legislation began to make itself felt and work mischief, it would be possible to procure from Congress a repeal or modification of the law, and to reconcile the country to the total disappearance from circulation of the Government notes; that, in short, we should get back gradually to our old and sound financial status not by any systematic or carefully-planned process, but in the plunging, floundering fashion which seems to be more and more accepted as the only fashion in which a genuine democracy can escape from difficulties. As this is prophecy, it is, of course, impossible to refute it. The most one can do is to disbelieve it; but it must be admitted that it is by no means improbable prophecy, and that it would not be surprising if we did reach dry land in some such way. In any event, it is a great gain to have the Government notes made at last payable in gold at par. If the process of paying them is once begun, too, so many interests will be enlisted in support of its continuance that it will not be abandoned again without a severe struggle or the occurrence of some great public calamity.

On the other hand, no finance, whether public or private, can be called sound in which the consequences of things not turning out as you expect them to turn out have not been considered, and as far as possible provided for. It is not likely that any prosperity brought about by a sudden inflation of the currency, no matter of what the currency consists, will be lasting or healthy. All experience forbids us to expect it. Moreover, it is not likely that any effect of inflation during the next two years will make the burden of debt at the West, whether private or municipal, seem much lighter. The payment of any debt in gold, or its equivalent, is something which the West will hardly become reconciled to within that period, and yet the success of the Secretary's plan depends on the three legal tenders continuing equal in value. Should they cease to be so through any contingency, he would have to abandon gold payments, and the attention of "the debtor class" would be again turned to the Government paper which he proposes to keep afloat as the true instrument of its deliverance; and this time it would undoubtedly be made to work its deliverance. His plan of resumption, in short, though it may ease matters for the moment, and may prepare the way for real resumption, is not the resumption which was intended when the notes were issued; is not the resumption which the defenders of the public credit have been working for; and is not the resumption provided for by the Resumption Act. When these notes were first issued they were regarded as a forced loan, and the legal-tender character was bestowed on them not because the Government had determined to take up the business of a bank of issue, but in order to sustain their value as currency. The notion that they would, could, or should be made to constitute part of the permanent circulation of the country was due to the discovery by the Democrats of the fact that they could probably be made the instrument of fraud both on public and private creditors. Since that period all the thoughtless and dishonest classes in the country have adopted the theory that they were true money, the best kind of money, and that we could not have too many of them. There are, too, hundreds of thousands East and West who, while repudiating the idea that they are fit to be the permanent money of the country, nevertheless hold that they are "good enough money to pay debts with"; and nobody who does not make it a business to watch the manifestations of popular opinion on this subject, can form an adequate conception of the strength of the hold which has been obtained, both in Congress and at the West, by the notion that the burden of debt under which the country is now laboring cannot be got rid of by the ordinary process, but must be disposed of by an issue of Government paper made for the purpose, so that we can all make "a fresh start" without liabilities of any kind.

There is only one mode of salvation from this craze, and that is the one provided by the Resumption Act, which directs the Secretary of the Treasury "to redeem in coin the United States legal-tender notes then outstanding on presentation," etc. Redeeming a note in coin means paying it; and when it is paid it has no longer any function or value in law or morals. The sole duty of the Treasury with regard to it is to cancel or destroy it. To put it afloat again is to issue it afresh, or, in other words, to do a thing which the Supreme Court has denied the right of the United States to do in time of peace. Secretary Sherman put this construction on the Resumption Act in 1875, when he procured its passage. He now, however, claims the power of reissuing the redeemed notes under the old statute, which gives the Secretary the power of reissuing notes "returned to the Treasury" in payment of taxes and in the purchase of bonds. That this is a quibble is, of course, plain, and it is impossible to characterize it, considering who the author is, in language that would seem moderate. The result of acting on it will probably be the following:

1. The assumption by the Government, without any clear or definite warrant of law, or any proper checks and restraints, of the functions of a bank, managed by one man, armed with enormous and irresponsible power over the money market.

2. The confirmation and further diffusion of the growing and dangerous popular delusion that whatever the Government stamps as money is good money, and may be of indefinite amount, and that Congress is the proper judge of the amount needed at any particular time.

3. The encouragement of that other and more dangerous delusion which has been born in this country mainly of the issue of irredeemable paper—that the Government is responsible for the condition of industry and the prosperity of the people in other ways than through the provision of security, and, as an inexhaustible fountain of wealth, may be fairly called on to provide remunerative employment for all who seek it.

That Secretary Sherman's plan, and, above all, his shifty, evasive, and changeful utterances on all financial problems, will but strengthen all the alarming tendencies of the day, seems at this moment highly probable, and it would be a great misfortune if his proposed attempt to disregard the law, whatever one may think of his motives, passed without the protest both of honest and far-seeing men. If he means to reissue the greenbacks, he ought in decency to ask Congress that they may be deprived of their legal-tender character and allowed to circulate for what they are worth as Government promissory notes. It is exceedingly doubtful in any case whether his reissues would be accepted as anything more than this, and whether the courts would hold them to be a legal tender.

THE MORAL OF TWEED'S CAREER.

THE death of Tweed, the late Boss of this city, has drawn forth the usual number of funeral discourses, both from the press and the pulpit, and by most of them he has been made to serve as a warning of extraordinary solemnity against dishonest practices and sensual indulgence. We cannot help thinking that this is great waste of a fine and conspicuous example. The only preacher, within our observation, who has turned it to proper account is the New York *Times*, in pointing out that what Tweed's career most effectively illustrated was not the inexpediency of individual wickedness, but the badness of the social conditions in which such wickedness could be so successful. There is no city in the civilized world which does not contain plenty of men capable of doing all that Tweed did and more, if they got a chance. London, Paris, Vienna, Berlin, Boston, and Philadelphia, all have them in abundance; men, we venture to say, with full as much ability and audacity, with as huge a greed for money and as capacious stomachs. In every one of these cities there are scores of "mute inglorious" Tweeds, waiting for an opportunity to play his part. If we never hear of them the reason will be, not that *he* was a man of matchless powers of mischief, but that the community they live in will not give them a chance of imitating him. He was undoubtedly an eminent man in his field, but he was not an eminently bad man. With similar culture and manure dozens like him could be raised in a year in any great capital, and by going to any State prison much more valuable illustrations of the consequences of knavery might be produced for the use of the Sunday-school teacher.

To say that he was produced by certain social conditions is, however, not strictly accurate. He was produced by certain political conditions which grew into existence almost without the knowledge of the American public, and to which their eyes were only fairly opened by his rise and fall. American political theories and traditions had made absolutely no provision and provided no place for the community which raised him. According to these theories and traditions, when a number of capitalists, owning or controlling vast amounts of property, collect for the transaction of business at the mouth of a great river and draw around them hundreds of thousands of poor, ignorant, or shiftless persons to work for them in their warehouses and factories and docks, these hundreds of thousands become animated by an eager desire for efficient, orderly, and economical municipal government, and unite with the property-owners for its creation and maintenance; they become, in short, the personage known in American jurisprudence as "the people," inheriting the supposed attributes of the sovereign of the Old World—that is, a perspicacious, vigilant, upright master, keeping a watchful eye over the public interests, and careful in the selection of public servants. In fact, however, the growth of American cities has followed no such lines. The population by which they have been rapidly built up during the past twenty-five years has had many of the characteristics of a plebs, and rapidly began to ask for leaders which should put it in the way of living off the rich without violating the law. Tweed succeeded because he was the first to perceive the work which this class wished to have done, and the first to discover the way of doing it. Having once secured, through the ignorant, greedy vote, the control of the local taxation, he introduced Americans to another startling novelty—the wholesale corruptibility of legislatures composed of country farmers and lawyers of small means, by the use of sums which far exceeded with most of them the possible savings of a frugal and successful life. With the instruments in his hands, his work, as we all know, was perfectly easy. He met with no check from the very first until the exposure came. And let us remember that he fell without loss of reputation among the bulk of his supporters. The bulk of the poorer voters of this city to-day revere his memory, and look on him as the victim of rich men's malice; as, in short, a friend of the needy who applied the public funds, with as little waste as was possible under the circumstances, to the purposes to which they ought to be applied—and that is to the making of work for the workingman. The odium heaped on him in the pulpits last Sunday does not exist in the lower stratum of New York society. We can appeal for the truth of this to any one who has during the past six years taken the trouble to test the opinion of this stratum on Tweed's life and fate.

The intelligent and wealthy classes, of course, do not like to believe these things, and men with political ambition, if they believe them, do not dare to utter them; but they are none the less true and important. They constitute "the great-city problem," which is perhaps now the most pressing one of American politics, but which politicians and primitive Americans (with the New England town governments still fresh in their minds, however) either refuse to see or shrink from dealing with. It is the problem, too, by which the seeds of that communistic spirit which is now assailing the nation's finances was sown and is being steadily fostered. The power lodged in the hands of the penniless municipal voter over large masses of property furnishes either a constant lesson in spoliation or a temptation to spoliation, and is keeping alive or stimulating all over the Union the schemes for getting a living out of the Government by hook or by crook which are now showing themselves in the arena of national politics, and even becoming the foundation of a party. In this new field—new in America—Tweed was simply the earliest worker, but he was not a particularly skilful worker. He lost his head very early in the day, and thus precipitated his downfall. Had he gone more slowly and carried on his operations on a smaller scale, and been simpler in his habits and less ostentatious in his pleasures, he could have retained his power until now, and might have strengthened it and made his overthrow far more difficult. A villain of more brains would have had a modest dwelling and would have guzzled in secret. He found, however, the seizure of the government and the malversation of its funds so easy at the outset that he was thrown off his guard. His successors here and elsewhere will not imitate him in this, but that he will have successors there is no doubt. The resolute refusal of the community which he spoiled and corrupted to make any essential change in the system by which he rose, or even to acknowledge the desirableness of a change, is a kind of standing invitation to all the demagogues of the world to come here and try their hands on us again, and the taxing system of nearly every city in the Union offers them a ready instrument for the attempt.

THE AMERICAN COLONY IN FRANCE.

PARIS, March 20, 1878.

NO one can have resided long abroad without noticing that Americans as a people are neither liked nor respected by the French, in spite of their purchasing power and of the pretty speeches made at the Grand Hôtel dinners about Lafayette, Rochambeau & Co. Frenchmen are not prejudiced against us by the stories of our barbarous customs and financial irregularities at home. They only shrug their shoulders when they hear them. "Que voulez-vous! chaque pays a ses usages," as one of them said to a lady who complained that African cannibals had eaten her

husband. They judge us by what they see here. Some thoroughly good Americans get to Paris even during life, but what are they compared with the crowd which quick travel and low fares impel every season over Europe? The United States has become the *officina viatorum*. Our citizens, male and female, manage to beg, borrow, or steal at least one trip to Europe; and as misfortunes never come single, they bring their children with them—numerous, noisy, and uncontrolled. French and English children are left at home when their parents travel. They also bring with them a wonderful ignorance of the habits, behavior, and feelings of Europeans. Indeed there are many whose untutored minds expect to find here a repetition of the ways and manners of their native town. Everything is compared with home, and nothing that differs seems as good. "Paris is a' very weel, but Peebles for pleasure." The Boulevard is not like Lake Avenue, and at the cafés you cannot get pork and beans or fried ham. We except the Bon-Marché shop in the Rue de Bac; that is the Caaba of the pilgrimage of American women.

Plato says that a certain brisk pertness and self-assertion is the result of democratic government. For other reasons America is not a good training-school of manners for the multitude. Not that Americans wish to be offensive—on the contrary, they are very good-natured; but they seem not to know the kind of treatment or attention (*égards* is the French word) a civilized being has the right to expect from a stranger. They simply do as they are willing to be done by. But here the standard of out-door manners is very different, and American shortcomings in this respect cause many uncomplimentary remarks. We overheard an exasperated Frenchman assert that no people were so ill-mannered as the Americans, except the Germans. Another difficulty for the American traveller is that he does not know his place in this complex society. In his ignorance of custom and etiquette he will thrust himself even upon royalty, utterly unconscious of the disgust he is producing; or, if ignorant of all languages but his own, he will bestow his company upon hotel servants who speak English, confiding to them his troubles and consulting them about his little wants and purchases. A distinguished New York politician, who missed, no doubt, in Paris his home constituency of ragamuffins, used to address the servants of his hotel, urging them to go to America, where all men were equal and labor respected. Our lucky countrymen who have struck oil or bonanzas have more pretension. They hire a courier, to whom they bow down—an accomplished creature, who speaks six languages unintelligibly, and who knows the best hotels and the best shops all over the Continent. He tells them what to do, what to eat, how to dress; drives with them inside of their landau, pats them on the back when he is good-humored and condescending, smokes in their faces, makes love to the maid, and pockets his ten per cent. on everything they buy.

In October, when the summer flood ebbs homeward, numerous stragglers are left stranded, who give various reasons for stopping. Health, education of children, economy, study of science or art. Some of the students follow the apostolic rule of travel, take neither scrip nor purse, and find it difficult to pay their bills without borrowing, and some are mere adventurers, "gentlemen of independent morals and ladies unattached." One meets single ladies who have come to study for prima donnas or for "general culture," with no visible means of support; married ladies without their husbands (many American families, like their mercantile houses, having branches on this side); widows of the class called *vedova pericolante* in Italy, sometimes alone, sometimes with a daughter pretty, dressy, not bashful, *qui s'habille et babille;* and young girls travelling together without chaperonage or duennage, *sans peur* and all, of course, *sans reproche;* but no amount of conscious rectitude will get them the respect of people who are accustomed to draw certain inferences from certain appearances. Above and beyond these waifs and strays is the "Colonie Américaine," a collection of families who inhabit the Champs Elysées and the quarter about the Arc de Triomphe. Some of them reside abroad to save money, and others because they wish to spend it, and their sudden fortunes have given them no positions at home. The general theory is that they can lead an easier life and get more comfort and luxury from their incomes than they could in the United States, which is probably true. The colonists, in spite of repeated attacks on French society, see very little of it, except, indeed, a few young men attracted by dinners, dances, and daughters with "*dots.*" They lead an idle, aimless existence, enlivened for the men by daily visits to Drexel's or Cuvillier's; and for the women, by tea-drinkings and gossip like that of a small New England village in the winter season—a life not without its attractions for the ladies, especially when they turn Catholic, which is rather the swell thing to do; but, one would think, insufferably dull to a man of energy and character. The Colonie has its little gradations of rank and its *grandes dames*. All unite in sneering at those they call "low Americans." Foreigners do not perceive this distinction, but look upon all Americans as occupying the same social plane, differing only in spending more or less money. Of their own country the Colonie speaks with mild contempt: "Better fifty years of Paris than a cycle of Broadway." New York is provincial; the streets are unswept; men chew tobacco; the servants are not respectful and get very high wages. "It is not fit for a gentleman to live in." All the uses of that new world seem weary, stale, flat, and unprofitable. The Colonie washes its hands of it and addresses new-comers as "You Americans." And yet, in spite of these excellent sentiments, very good apartments, correct servants, strict adherence to the fashions of the natives and prompt payment, the Colonie is not respected. No educated Frenchman or Englishman can understand why a man who is soundly constituted, mentally, morally, and financially, should permanently reside out of his own country, unless as a merchant or a diplomat or an exile for cause.

The critical foreigner is also amused by the love of orders and titles displayed even by the sturdiest American democrats. A red ribbon, or ribbon of any color, is ostentatiously worn, whether derived from a jury position in some International Exposition, or given by the late Emperor as a reward for inventing a clothes-wringer or a new method of making artificial teeth. *Décoré comme un dentiste américain* has become a French proverb. It is said that one of our officials on this side, keenly feeling that this outward and visible sign was wanting to complete the get-up of a great ex-military traveller, invented an order composed of the badges of the different army corps during the war, which was worn both by the great man and himself about their necks on suitable occasions. American girls can marry titles, but they are manifestly unattainable by American men. They try to meet this difficulty by the use of Honorable. A man who has held any office, from President to constable, thinks himself entitled to put this word before his name; or if he has been a volunteer officer, or even honorary aid-de-camp to the governor of his State, he puts Major or Colonel on his visiting cards and conspicuously on his luggage. This particular weakness obtains as much in the aristocratic class of Americans as in the "lower" varieties of the race. There *is* an aristocracy in the United States, although it may be difficult to note in what it consists. Perhaps a rough but tolerable definition is that the father of the American aristocrat kept the shop and bequeathed the fortune. As a consequence, the descendant of the rich family has a better education in the amenities and accomplishments of social life than the fellow-citizen whose head has just appeared above the surface. Indeed, in my opinion there is no nicer person to be found on the planet than a well-bred American of education and sense. But when established here their good sense deserts them on this point. Their sympathy with European manners and social distinctions "o'erleaps itself and falls on the other side." Laboulaye hit the mark when he said: "*Tout Américain à Paris se croit gentilhomme.*" Although they only see society abroad as the Mussulman women do Paradise, through the boundary railings, they wish to live near the upper class and to live like it. They have no other way of asserting their position. Hence many spend more than they can afford; more, certainly, than foreigners of the same fortune would think themselves justified in spending. By some mysterious process of reasoning they consider it necessary to live up to an imaginary social dignity at home. All that the "right people" do they carefully imitate, struggling to avoid sinning against the conventionalities in equipage, dress, and habits. Thinking always what foreigners will think of them begets an uncomfortable self-consciousness, a want of confidence in themselves. They are not genuine; only imitations. The "low" American has here the advantage. He may have little taste or appreciation of art, he may be too ready to assert himself and to boast of his country, but he really believes in himself and in his country. The better-bred man, who looks down upon him, is in his inmost heart ashamed of his country. He will resent any open attack upon it with vigor; he may talk of its wealth, prosperity, ingenuity, and enterprise, but secretly he wishes he had been born elsewhere. If you care to make him your friend for life, tell him he has been taken for an Englishman. It is the greatest compliment you can pay him. Give him time, and ten to one he will tell you himself how often this "odd mistake" has occurred. To England he turns his face when he worships. English opinion decides all social questions for him without appeal. He wears only English clothes, and tries hard to catch the accent. He is familiar with Burke and the history of English families, and does not forget to mention his English friends. If his name is Smith Brown he connects these two aris-

tocratic patronymics with a hyphen, or if it be only Smith, he will spell it with a *y*, trace his descent from the noble family of that name, and adopt their crest on his note-paper and his harness. We are the only powerful nation whose sons and daughters display this lack of moral fibre. Englishmen and Frenchmen are proud of being English and French, and generally proclaim their nationality. The Anglo-American has no confidence in his ability to command respect as an American; he tacitly admits himself to be an inferior creature.

Herein lies a double foolishness. The world, like Alfieri, prefers *originale, anche tristo, a ottima copia*. A certain flavor of the soil is never disagreeable in a well-bred person; rather, it is attractive, as a slight foreign accent is pleasing in a stranger who speaks English well. It is much better form to be American and to have a national individuality of one's own than to offer to foreign eyes a pale imitation of European models.

> "That man's the best cosmopolite
> Who loves his native country best."

In the second place, imitations are always failures. As false teeth and hair-dye deceive nobody, and he who runs may read the age of the person who uses them, so no American, dress, talk, and live as he may, can shake off the land of his birth. The Yankee will show through the London clothes, the carefully studied accent, and the foreign habits. It is impossible long to conceal the melancholy reality.

I. M.

Notes.

PORTER & COATES, Philadelphia, will republish in this country 'A Trip up the Volga to the Fair of Nishni-Novgorod,' by H. A. Munro-Butler-Johnstone, M.P.——Lee & Shepard, Boston, have published 'Music and Some Musical People,' by James M. Trotter, a work curious for its "sketches of the lives of remarkable musicians of the colored race, with portraits," and its "appendix containing copies of music composed by colored men." The author served in one of the Massachusetts colored regiments during the war as a non-commissioned officer.——Prof. C. E. Norton, Cambridge, Mass., proposes to issue a set of thirty or thirty-five heliotype reproductions of Turner's rare and costly etchings of the designs of the 'Liber Studiorum.' They will be made under Prof. Norton's scrupulous supervision from the etchings loaned for the purpose by Mr. Ruskin, and will be issued to subscribers only at ten dollars a set.——The important article in No. 5 of the *Pennsylvania Magazine of History and Biography* is Mr. Townsend's painstaking account of Charles Armand Tufin, Marquis de la Rouerie, one of the foreign officers in our Revolutionary service whose names have been almost forgotten, and who are not always fortunate in finding a Kapp to restore them to their rightful place in history and in the gratitude of the nation.——Among the amenities of the religious press we have lately been struck by the following announcement: "Marriage notices, not exceeding three lines in length, except when sent by an officiating minister who promotes the circulation of this journal, fifty cents."——*Nature* celebrates the three-hundredth anniversary of the birth of William Harvey by publishing a characteristic biographical sketch of him from the pen of Professor Huxley. The steel portrait (in the "Scientific Worthies" series) which was to have accompanied the sketch has been delayed, but will be supplied next month.——*Cocagne*, the Cornell equivalent of the Harvard *Lampoon*, contains in its first number some decidedly clever drawing, some that is crude enough, and letter-press of a grade which we hope represents the low-water mark of the literary capacity of the University.——*La Patria* is a monthly magazine edited at Bogotá, Colombia, by Adriano Paez, and issued in two separate parts—literary, and political and educational. The "Revista Politica y de Instruccion Publica" for February is noticeable from its references to the United States, having articles on "The Great Men of America (Washington)" "Great Philanthropists (Peabody)," "Public Instruction in the United States," "Methods of Instruction in the United States" by J. P. Wickersham), "The Street Arabs of New York," "The Cotton Industry of the United States," etc., etc.——Not long since we called attention to the treatment of the Franco-German war in the German "Volksliteratur." Now the Germans, who make monographs on everything, have prepared one on the French war-poetry. Dr. Jos. Schlüter, in his 'Die französische Kriegs- und Revanchedichtung' (Heilbronn, 1878), has prepared a full and in some aspects rather amusing history and anthology of the poetical insults heaped upon his countrymen by their mortified foes since the war—amusing because the French eagerness to abuse and the German indignation at being abused seem equally childish to an outsider; and yet not altogether amusing, because all this sound and fury does signify something, and one cannot help remembering what an amount of misery national hate may lead to.——A poetic rendering of Longfellow's "Pandora" into German by Isabella Schuchardt has just been published at Hamburg.——No. 72 of the Berlin Geographical Society's *Zeitschrift* contains the usual summary by Dr. Koner of the geographical publications of the past year. In No. 73 Dr. Klunzinger contributes a systematic account of his observations of the vertebrate fauna in and about the Red Sea during his stay at Koseir, and A. Bastian describes the pictured rocks of Colombia, which are also figured in plates.——Recent German works of importance are A. Springer's 'Raphael and Michael Angelo: Book I., to the death of Julius II.'; H. Brugsch-Bey's 'Journey to the Great Oasis, El Khargeh, in the Libyan Desert,' with 27 plates; Calvary's new edition of Becker's 'Charikles,' by H. Göll, nearly completed; A. Goebel's first volume of a 'Lexilogus to Homer and the Homeridæ'; and Vámbéry's 'Etymological Dictionary of the Turko-Tataric Languages,' published by Brockhaus.

—Mr. William Minturn, on behalf of the Société des Gens de Lettres, calls the attention of our public to the International Literary Congress to be held at Paris during the Exposition. "The chief object of this Congress, to which all foreign writers are invited, will be the discussion of the questions relating to international copyright, and the recognition of this right, which heretofore diplomatic conventions have been powerless to protect." Victor Hugo is expected to deliver the opening address.

—Mr. Daniel Cottier's collection of pictures, now for the first time seen side by side in the gallery No. 817 Broadway, is a peculiar demonstration of a certain phase of art-belief. The keynote, struck by the grand Corot, the "Orpheus" from the Demidoff collection, is harmoniously prolonged through the half a score other whispering Corots, the sombre and brooding Millets, the rich but still dreamy utterances of Rousseau and Diaz—which acknowledge a certain enjoyment of life—and the exalted color-raptures of Monticelli. Monticelli and Matthew Maris, artists whose works have been almost exclusively bought by artists, and whose lives have been squalid epics of romantic poverty, have been brought out by Mr. Cottier into broad daylight and in considerable numbers, though the intimate and personal appeal they both make to the artistic sense gives them a shrinking air when a Philister brings his creaking boots into the gallery. The first-named used to sell his fancies at starving prices to Diaz and Daubigny and Théodore Rousseau; they seem like Turner's dreams and schemes of color-melody applied to figure-subjects; the other, the youngest of three brothers Maris, a plotter of intricate themes while they have been working for fame, exhibits a cool and mystical water-scene in a privacy of willows, and a Norman girl apprised of the coming of her lover by the quick ears of her goats. Three studies by Vollon, each of fine quality, still-life subjects by Philippe Rousseau, a Velasquez-like hunting-group by Roybet, a *Chouan* by Ribot, and a positive figure of a housewife by Bonvin, painted in the most realistic of the many manners of Jan Steen, give the accent of literalness here and there. The general impression, however, is as unlike that of a dealer's gallery as possible, and reminds us of the secrets of the deep dragged into the daylight of a public aquarium. Such a collection of art for artists, such a singular gage of defiance thrown down to the opinions of the market and the loves of the picture-dealers, has not been known, we think, to London or Paris or any other capital.

—The "Exiles," as given at Booth's Theatre, is described in the playbills as a "drama in five acts and nine tableaux." The *dramatis personæ* are so numerous as to bring out the "entire strength of the company." The stage effects are good, and the acting is not sufficiently marked, either for goodness or badness, to interfere with one's appreciation of the play, as such. It is, we believe, founded on a novel, which, by a series of adaptations and other metamorphoses, has at length become a highly sensational melodrama. The scene is laid in St. Petersburg and Siberia, and the "Exiles" are the unfortunate and innocent victims of the plot of *Schelm*, "Chief of the Fifth Bureau of Imperial Police." He loves the beautiful *Nadege Lanine*, but his advances are repelled, for she is the betrothed bride of *Max de Lussières*, a Frenchman (very well acted by Mr. D. H. Harkins). *Schelm*, whose villany knows no bounds, has the lovers, as well as *Nadege's* brother and her brother's wife (*Count Vladimir Lanine* and the *Countess Tatiana*), all sent off to Siberia, on a false accu-

sation of participation in a Nihilist conspiracy. They now go through much privation and wretchedness, but in the nick of time, disguised as a priest, the faithful servant of the Frenchman comes to their rescue, and on the reappearance of the hated *Schelm* the men escape, to take part in a rising for their liberty. The women fall into his clutches, however, and he forces a promise of marriage from *Nadege* as the price of his assistance in saving the life of her sister-in-law, who has swooned in the snow and lies exhausted and dying. This brings us to the end of act third, and precisely what takes place afterwards we are unable to state definitely, inasmuch as the extraordinary length of the performance on the evening when we saw it precluded the possibility of staying it out. The plot is undoubtedly interesting, and with better acting might have a long run. Who Prince Lubomirsky, one of the persons jointly concerned in the authorship of the play, may be, we do not know, but from his name take him to be a member of a state which is not over fond of the Russians. The play is certainly strongly anti-Russian, exhibiting as it does the official rascality and tyranny of that people at their worst. By changing the Frenchman to an Englishman, and introducing a few pointed allusions to passing events, the "Exiles" might be converted into a play which would have a great success in England. Here it depends for its interest upon purely human appeals to our sympathies. It is melodramatic in the use the authors make of situations, as distinguished from the dramatic development of character; but there is in *Schelm*, in *Max*, as well as the *Countess Tatiana* and *Nadege*, room for acting of a higher order than plays in "five acts and nine tableaus" usually provide. The tableaus were generally very good—though in one of them we noticed a curious illustration of the difficulty of reconciling art with morality; the miscellaneous teams of animals harnessed to the sledges in the third act having to be helped with their somewhat excessive burden by active "supes" in the rear—a compromise between the professional passion for theatrical effect and the modern spirit of humanity, which does great credit to the heart, if not the head, of the manager.

—Miss Elizabeth Hoar, who died in Cambridge on the 7th instant, was a sister of the well-known Senator and Judge of that name, and had the intellectual stamp of the family in a marked degree. Her scholarly acquirements were akin to those of her life-long friend Mrs. Ripley, of Concord, whose biography she prepared for the Centennial volume called "Worthy Women of Our First Century"—the only monument of her literary skill which survives in print. In 1844 she accompanied her father, the late Samuel Hoar, on his memorable mission to South Carolina on behalf of the colored seamen of Massachusetts, whose liberties were endangered at that port, and suffered expulsion with him. Her maternal grandfather was Roger Sherman. Miss Hoar was in the sixty-fourth year of her age. Another recent death which should not pass unnoticed is that of Dr. Charles Pickering, naturalist of the Wilkes Expedition, and author of 'The Races of Men and their Geographical Distribution' (1848), 'The Geographical Distribution of Animals and Plants' (1854), and 'The Chronological History of Plants,' now passing through the press. Dr. Pickering was a grandson of Colonel Timothy Pickering, and a graduate of Harvard in 1823. He died March 17.

—Our readers have doubtless had enough of the controversy, transferred to these columns, over the Philadelphia Harvard examinations for women, so far as courses and catalogues are concerned. The discussion had, however, drifted away from the main points—the main points not only in Philadelphia but wherever the Harvard examinations are set up—and it has just been incisively recalled to them by Prof. Charles F. Dunbar, of the Harvard Faculty. In the April number of the *Penn Monthly* he undertakes to show how gratuitous Provost Stillé's opposition was, not only on such trivial and unworthy grounds as that Harvard was an intruder and trespasser, and that the innovations in her curriculum were regarded by the other New-England colleges as "heresy," but on these three, viz., (1) that there was no need of the examinations in Philadelphia, (2) that as they were probably committed to the charge of the younger instructors, the certificate of proficiency carried no weight, and (3) that they were pernicious as cultivating the memory at the expense of the other faculties, and as encouraging the idea that thorough scholarship could be acquired privately without the aid of schools or teachers. We shall not try to summarize Professor Dunbar's temperate but crushing rejoinders on all these issues; but we think it will be clear to most unprejudiced readers that Provost Stillé had not prepared himself for this encounter by mastering the facts involved, and that his public protest against examinations which his own University had declined to furnish, was prompted by wounded *amour propre;* in other words, that he himself is in the category of "the average school-teacher," whom "nothing irritates more," to use his own words, than the demand for exceptional instruction and the consequent derangement of his general system of teaching.

—The reviews of Mr. Cook's 'Biology' and 'Transcendentalism' in the April number of the *Bibliotheca Sacra* belong to the class of apologetics, and are rather good specimens of the class. But the "scholar" who apologizes for the 'Transcendentalism' intimates that carefulness and propriety, however desirable in an essay on grave topics, are somewhat needless in an oration, as tending to be wearisome. The "scientist" who reviews the 'Biology'—which bristles from head to tail with dogmatic proof and positive demonstration—has discovered that "the argument of the work, although not prominently so stated, is precisely the argument of Butler's 'Analogy,' modernized, popularized, and brought down to the last discoveries in the domain of organic nature." This likening of the 'Biology' to the 'Analogy,' whether for matter or tone, is most original. Of all the Butlers it is not in the tribe of Joseph that a parallel to "the Lecturer" would ordinarily be sought.

—A correspondent writes us from London, under date of March 22:

"There has for a long time been no more interesting exhibition in London than the little collection of drawings by Turner, the property of Mr. Ruskin, which is now to be seen in Bond Street. I call it a 'little' collection because, although the result of many years of ardent activity on Mr. Ruskin's part, it has been much curtailed by his liberality in parting with some of its most valuable features, many of which he has given away to the two Universities. In its decimated condition, however, it contains many treasures. The interest of the exhibition is increased, moreover, by the fact that Mr. Ruskin is just now lying very ill, and that telegrams and bulletins relating to his condition are suspended in the room, and also by the fact that the catalogue consisted of a collection of notes made by the owner of the drawings. This catalogue is extremely characteristic, containing, as it does, amid much exquisite criticism and much that is a genuine help to enjoyment, many of those incongruous utterances of which the illustrious art-teacher has of late been so prolific. I may add that a portion of it appears to have been dictated at the moment when Mr. Ruskin felt the approach of his illness, and that these pages bear the marks of this condition to a degree which makes it seem almost a cruelty—an irony—to have published them. A drawback, on the other hand, is that the drawings are hung quite without method and without any reference to their chronological order. The room, which is small, is also densely crowded with (apparently most appreciative) visitors. But in spite of drawbacks it is possible to obtain an abiding impression of the genius of this mightiest of all painters of landscape. I have not space to enumerate these drawings, which are chiefly in water-colors. They are divided in the catalogue into groups which correspond to decades in the painter's life, and to which Mr. Ruskin has affixed characteristic headings: '2d Group—The Rock-Foundations; Switzerland, 1800–1810. 3d Group—Dreamland; Italy, 1810–1820. 4th Group—Reality; England at Rest. 5th Group—Reality; England Disquieted. 6th Group—Meditation; England Passing Away. 8th Group—Morning; By the Riversides.' The English series in this list is decidedly the richest and finest, though the most valuable drawing in the collection is undoubtedly the splendid little 'Rouen' from the 'Rivers of France.' Turner rarely surpassed what he achieved within the few inches' space of this small sheet, rarely rendered more wonderfully the immensity and the impressiveness of nature than in the diminutive brush-work of this crimson western sky or the onward flow of this almost microscopic Seine. In the English drawings the subjects are usually of extreme loveliness, and worthy of Turner's transfiguring vision. That imaginative quality with which he invests his work is often such as to make the reader of the catalogue admit those ultra-metaphysical intentions which Mr. Ruskin attributes to him. From what Mr. Ruskin says about the beauty and delicacy of the work, as simple work, he at any rate rarely ventures to differ. And this is the lesson of these admirable drawings—the feeling they impart, that idealism like Turner's has for its main condition of beauty the fact that it rests upon a solidity of execution which almost defies ultimate analysis. In these water-colors of his healthiest time everything is equally light, clear, and unerring. There is never (save occasionally in the figures) a touch of violence. At the moment at which I write Mr. Ruskin continues seriously ill; but the crisis of his malady—which his almost violent activity during the last few years appears to have rendered inevitable—has, I believe, been passed. There are few persons who will not be interested in hearing of the recovery of a writer whose eccentricities of judgment have been numerous, but for whom, at least, it can be claimed that he is the author of some of the most splendid pages in our language, and that he has spent his life, his large capacity for emotion, and his fortune in a passionate—a too passionate—endeavor to avert, in many different lines, what he believed to be the wrong and to establish his rigid conception of the right."

—The American public is not ignorant of the division of sentiment in the Royal Geographical Society in regard to the proposed unreserved welcome to the explorer Stanley on his return from Africa—a welcome which was ultimately extended, in spite of all efforts to the contrary. Colonel Henry Yule, the learned geographer, whose name is indelibly associated with that of Marco Polo, retired from the Council of the Society in

consequence of its decision; and he, in conjunction with Mr. H. M. Hyndman, a fellow of the Society, whose endeavor to obtain a resolution of disapproval of certain acts of Stanley's was seconded by Colonel Yule but suppressed by the Society, has published a pamphlet which they call the 'Record of a Protest.' The acts in question were described by Mr. Stanley himself in his letters to the *Daily Telegraph*, and were committed on the way to, or on the shores and waters of, the Victoria Nyanza. They consisted of engagements with the natives in which attacks were repelled with unnecessary destruction of life and property, including the burning of villages; or in which Stanley was wantonly the aggressor in revenge for treachery already amply punished, and no longer of any consequence as affecting his freedom to pursue his explorations. The story is a long one and we cannot even summarize it here. Colonel Yule rehearses it with the greatest fairness, and Mr. Stanley's explanation at Willis's Rooms, based upon his diary, is reproduced with the other proceedings, articles in newspapers, speeches, letters, etc. We believe that no moralist can read this pamphlet without accepting Colonel Yule's conclusion as to the character of the deeds confessed (and explained) by Stanley. The duty of the Royal Society was, perhaps, not so clear, especially considering its lukewarmness towards Stanley after his return from Livingstone. There may also be some difference of opinion as to how much the British flag was stained by these proceedings under it. But the protest was right in spirit, and should have been frankly met by Stanley, who could have fallen back on his loyalty to his employers and to his followers as, next after his formidable armament, the chief cause of his excesses. We acquit him of bloodthirsty intentions or disposition, and believe he has shown as much tact as any explorer who had not to rely on "the unresistible might of weakness." And we believe he exculpates himself sincerely if not altogether logically in the outburst following the reading of his diary, and which will be found on page 38 of Colonel Yule's pamphlet.

LECKY'S HISTORY OF ENGLAND IN THE EIGHTEENTH CENTURY.*

I.

MR. LECKY'S book ought to have been entitled 'Essays on the Growth of the British Empire during the Eighteenth Century.' Such a title would have saved his work from the one serious criticism to which it is open, for it would have warned the public not to look for that complete, consecutive, and well-arranged narrative which they have a right to expect from an historian. Such a title would also have brought clearly into relief a feature in Mr. Lecky's work which is of pre-eminent importance and yet might easily escape notice. He has seized more clearly than most writers the fruitful idea that the importance of the eighteenth century in English history lies in the transformation of England into the British Empire, and further, that no part of British history can be understood unless the development of the Empire be regarded as a whole. The statesmen of the eighteenth century, for example, if judged by their triumphs, might rank among the greatest politicians the world has seen. They pacified the spirit of faction which seemed to be tearing England in pieces. They "closed," to use a modern expression, "the era of revolution." They united Scotland to England by a union which has now become so close that the term union hardly expresses the complete identity of what not two centuries ago were disunited and hostile nations. They decided the struggle for colonial empire between France and England, and, if human foresight be not utterly deceived, determined that the civilization of the new world shall bear for ever the stamp of English and not of French influence. While securing the Western continent for the Anglo-Saxon race they gained for England herself the empire of the East. Looked at, therefore, from its favorable side, the annals of England during the eighteenth century may be well described, in the words of Mr. Lecky, as the "broad" and "majestic stream of events bearing the fortunes of England to the first place among the empires of the world." But if the same statesmen be judged by their failures, they might be placed amongst the most incompetent leaders who have wasted the resources of a great people. Their misgovernment of Ireland, whether judged of by the damaging narrative of Mr. Lecky or by the damning apologies by Mr. Froude, exhibits in strange combination the opposite evils of anarchy and of tyranny. Their management of America forced a peaceful population to take up arms and drove loyal subjects into rebellion, whilst the object for which the mother country lavished her treasures and lost her colonies was one which, could it have been attained, would not after the lapse of a century have repaid to England one-tenth of the sums lost in the attempt to maintain a supremacy which, under proper management, would never have been challenged. Common sense, however, suggests that the history of a great people is never really a paradox, and that national triumphs and national calamities can never be explained by a series of antitheses. With nations as with men there is always a close connection between their weakness and their strength, and to examine the annals of the British Empire as a whole is to advance half way towards understanding both the strength and the weakness of what may be called the imperial policy. That Mr. Lecky has done this, and has seen that the dealings, for instance, of English statesmen with Scotland throw light on their dealings with Ireland, is his peculiar merit, and the best service we can render our readers is to show by a few examples gathered from his pages how the history of one part of the Empire illustrates and is in turn illuminated by the history of another.

The condition of Scotland, for example, before the union casts a very curious light on the state of Ireland. Mr. Lecky has himself pointed out that the lawlessness of the Highlands bears a strong similarity to the lawlessness which, according to Mr. Froude, has its source in some special depravity of Irish nature. He might have pushed the comparison further with advantage. The tragedy of the Darien Scheme remains a permanent memorial of the bitterness of feeling which may grow up between nations whom nature meant to form one people. The judicial murder of Captain Green is proof enough that, under the influence of popular excitement, "Scotch ideas" may deviate at least as far from justice as any of the "Irish ideas" recorded with cynical complacency by Mr. Froude. If any one supposes that what has been termed the "worship of inequality" did not make Englishmen in the last century as slow to admit that Scotchmen were really fellow-citizens as Englishmen of the present century have been slow to admit that Irish Catholics have a claim to something more than mere legal equality, he can do nothing better than study the history of the fifty years which followed the Scotch union. Bute was hated much more because he was a Scotchman than because he was a Tory, and Junius was not more truly the representative of popular sentiment when he attacked the most contemptible of George the Third's contemptible ministers, than when he assailed with ignorant invective the greatest judge who has sat on the English Bench. "It will be observed," again, as Mr. Lecky points out, "that the conduct of England in destroying the trade and the most important manufacture of Ireland was a much less exceptional proceeding than Irish writers are disposed to maintain. England did to Ireland little more than she had done to America and to Scotland, and she acted in accordance with commercial principles that then governed all Colonial policy. It was a fundamental maxim that the commercial interests of a dependency should be wholly subordinated to those of the mother country, and to an English mind there was no reason why this maxim should not be rigidly applied to Ireland." In other words, a mistaken and selfish theory, carried out to its full logical results, ruined Ireland, and (what is the point here worth observation) adherence to exactly the same theory lost England her American colonies. Her failure in America, that is to say, both illustrates and is in turn explained by her failure in Ireland.

If we turn from the outlying parts of the Empire to its centre we shall again find the same marked connection between the condition of each portion of the imperial fabric. Mr. Lecky dwells at considerable length on the disgraceful disorderliness of the streets of London, and readers who like historical gossip may find ample amusement in reading his account of the achievements of the Mohawks and other pretty gentlemen who playfully crushed the noses, poked out the eyes, and slashed the bodies of peaceable men and women who had the misfortune to be out in London streets of an evening; but students who wish for instruction will reflect that the traits of London life have a serious importance. They exhibit in a concrete form that weakness of the central government which in England, and, to a certain extent, even on the Continent, characterized the eighteenth century. In England no body of police, except the small corps of Bow-street runners, were in existence. The army was generally not much larger than the force kept up in ordinary times in this country. Hence, if large popular demonstrations took place the Government became helpless. An Edinburgh mob hung Porteus. A London mob, in 1780, held for three days possession of the town, opened Newgate, and burnt every Roman Catholic chapel within their reach. Over large parts of the coast bodies of smugglers held their own against revenue officers, and, if Mr. Lecky has not been deceived into taking exceptional cases for examples of the ordinary state of things, highwaymen were a terror to travellers even within the metropolitan counties. When

* 'A History of England in the Eighteenth Century. By William Edward Hartpole Lecky.' 2 vols. London: Longmans, Green & Co.; New York: D. Appleton & Co. 1878

the fact is realized that the organization of the state fell far short of that completeness which it has attained in modern England, some of the strangest features of Irish history become at least intelligible. Mr. Froude's pages record a state of lawlessness which, even if exaggerated by his rhetoric and prejudice, had undoubtedly a real existence; but when the state of the Empire is studied as a whole, the fact becomes apparent that utter lawlessness in Galway is the result of the same causes which produced nightly disorder in London.

It also becomes clear that, paradoxical though the assertion sounds, there was a close connection between the weakness and the strength of the Empire. The weak points of the political system were that the old social organization derived from feudalism had been suffered gradually to die away, whilst no pains had been taken to replace it by an improved system of administration; that, from Walpole downwards, ministers of the Crown were content as far as possible to leave things alone; and, lastly, that the whole national policy was influenced by commercial ideas, and by the real or supposed interests of the mercantile classes. Now, in Great Britain, where society rested on the whole on a sound basis, this policy of practical *laissez faire* had considerable merits. It soothed the bitterness of party spirit, and gave time for the nation to right itself after the disturbance of a revolutionary period. It enabled Puritans to turn into Whigs, and Jacobites into Tories. It allowed full play to the natural resources of the country. In spite of pauperism and drink, the poorer classes flourished. Abuses, no doubt, grew up, but national prosperity outgrew them. If the clergy were indolent and self-indulgent, they became practically tolerant, and were on the whole popular. The mercantile energy of the nation gained for England the Indian Empire, checked the power of France, and supplied the force which carried the policy of Pitt to its triumphant success. Where, as in Ireland, there was need of bold remedies applied to inveterate social diseases, the English statesmen of the eighteenth century failed. Where, as in England and Scotland, the main need of the country was to be at peace and to be left alone, the same statesmen succeeded. Their work was, at the end of the century, tested by the severest test which any work of statesmanship has ever stood. If the Whigs, who governed England for half a century, need, as they certainly do, an apology for many shortcomings, they may find it in the fact that their policy turned a country distracted by factions nearly as fierce and far more corrupt than the parties which distract modern France, into a state so firmly knit together that it braved unmoved the storms of the great Revolution and the power of the great Napoleon.

MUHAMMADANISM.*

AS, alike for their matter and for their manner, we have to commend Major Osborn for his two volumes, the fruit of long years of research and reflection, so we may congratulate him on the opportuneness of their appearance. Our readers will not soon have forgotten the tepidity of aversion to slavery and its horrors which, at the time of our temporary disruption, all at once stole over the British conscience. In its twofold function of exponent of the English sentiment of the hour and of creator of that sentiment, the London *Times*, as many must remember, even went so far, one memorable day, as to venture an essay in the theological line, with "bonds" as its pious text. We of the North had already been demonstrated to be hardly better than an illiterate rabble of rapacious and puritanic shopkeepers, much given withal to the unpardonable sins of undisguised expectoration and a nasal twang. Our odious career was to be endured no longer; and, finally, a new rendering of the passage about Saint Paul and Onesimus was delivered by way of an *ictus gratiosus*, for which we were to premise due thanks and then give up the ghost. To the same spirit that moved the *Times* to turn Biblical expositor may be traced the free handling of sundry old-fashioned ideas which has been observed across the ocean since the embroilment between Russia and the Turk. To the British aristocracy and its ready tools Russia is Gog and Magog rolled into one, a mysterious monster at whom any quantity and any variety of vague vituperation may be hurled quite appropriately. On the other hand, the noble, fearless, cavalier-like Turk, even though he does torture and kill his prisoners, and though he entertains notions of the fair sex which are unfamiliar and abhorrent to uncultured and narrow-minded Philistines, yet is not he a follower of the faith of Muhammad? And Muhammad, is not he one of the great exemplars prescribed by an eminent Scotch philosopher as a fit object for hero-worship? And so it has come to pass that the English book-market is flooded with new and cheap editions of Sale's Koran; and beardless ensigns, who spell much as they pronounce, have discovered, after dawdling over the portentous rubbish, that the Arabian impostor was "a fine fellaw"; and Lord Beaconsfield, with his lieutenants and wirepullers, have all but succeeded in working up the nation to embark in a semi-crescentade against the interests of civilization, not to speak of commonsense. Looking to these facts, we hail the publication of Major Osborn's eloquent volumes as being especially seasonable, calculated as they are to counteract the unreason which threatens to precipitate our English friends into the perpetration of an enormous blunder and crime combined.

What Major Osborn has to offer us is a series of treatises, each consisting of several chapters, on Islam, the Fatimides, and the Khalifs of the House of Ommaya, in his first volume; and on the Church of Islam, the Rule of the Persians, and the Decline of the Khalifate, in his second volume. His references evince a wide range of reading; and since, besides being at home in Persian, he is acquainted with both French and German, it is unlikely that any noteworthy materials, available for his purpose, have escaped his scrutiny. His subject is, to be sure, one which appeals but slightly to general curiosity. Indeed, it is not far removed from being intrinsically repulsive. The rare grace, picturesqueness, and vigor of his style, however, are such that whatever topic he might choose to discourse on, he could not but make a most fascinating book. But the contents of his volumes are much too multifarious for us to think of conveying a conception of them by analysis or abridgment. Instead of attempting what is impracticable, we shall, therefore, content ourselves with quoting some of his general conclusions touching Muhammad, his religion, and the followers of that religion.

Of Muhammad he writes:

"To achieve worldly dominion, he has recourse to assassination; he perpetrates massacre; he makes a heathen superstition the keystone of his faith; and delivers to his followers, as a revelation from God, a mandate of universal war." "The Arab gloried in the traditional practices and customs of the desert—murder, predatory war, slavery, polygamy, concubinage. Muhammad impressed upon all these usages the seal of a divine sanction."

Regarding one of his main dogmas, we further read:

"Because Muhammad taught the doctrine of the unity of God, it has been too hastily concluded that he was a great moral and social reformer as well. But there is no charm in the abstract doctrine of the unity of God to elevate humanity. The essential point is the character attributed to this one God." . . . "Muhammad conceived of God as separated, by an impassable gulf, from the creatures He had made, and finding *His* ideal of human existence in the customs of the desert Arabs. To the end of time men were to venerate the black stone; to the end of time they were to practise slavery and polygamy, and believe in the doctrine of fatalism." "Sin, he taught, was a material pollution adhering to the body; and the Muhammadan jurisconsults, following out this notion, have reduced righteousness to a state of ceremonial purity, and sin to a state of ceremonial impurity. Thus, prayer is absolutely useless if any matter legally considered impure adheres to the person of the worshipper, even though he be unconscious of its presence. Prayer, also, is null and void unless the men and women praying are attired in a certain prescribed manner."

The traditions rank, in point of authority, but little below the Koran itself. Throughout these sin "is regarded as an external pollution, which can at once be rectified by the payment of a fine of some kind. Even murder demands no inward repentance, nor requires a heavier external punishment than the payment of a certain number of camels." Again:

"When one remembers that these traditions, thus implicitly believed in for many centuries, are a gigantic collection of false morality ridiculous legends about angels, demons, the origin of the world and of all created beings, absurd and often contradictory rules respecting ceremonial observances, the wonder is, not that Moslems should be steeped in ignorance, vice, and superstition, but that their moral and intellectual capacities have not been more completely crushed beneath this weight of rubbish."

As to Muhammadan law, an educt from the Koran: "The system, as a whole, rejects experience as a guide to deeper insight or a wider knowledge; tramples upon the teaching of the past; pays no heed to differences of climate, character, or history; but regards itself as a body of absolute truth, no jot or tittle of which can be rejected without incurring the everlasting wrath of God." And what is the upshot?

"Since the death of the Prophet, Islam has not been a religion so much as a barbarous code of laws, which consigns those who reject them to hopeless political servitude, and scornfully rejects all thought of improvement from within. Wherever the Muhammadan conqueror pene-

* 'Islam under the Arabs. By Robert Durie Osborn, Major in the Bengal Staff Corps.' London: Longmans, Green & Co. 1876. 'Islam under the Khalifs of Baghdad.' By the same. London: Seeley, Jackson & Halliday. 1877.

trates he enforces this code in all its unmitigated barbarism." . . . "There is a dismal identity in the decrepitude and corruption existing in all Moslem lands which points unmistakably to a common parentage." . . . "Sunk in an ever-deepening barbarism, a prey to almost every evil, social and political, which can descend upon much-enduring humanity, the Muhammadan still conceives himself to be the elect of God." "The further and the faster men progress elsewhere, the more hopeless becomes the position of the Moslem. He can only hate the knowledge which would gently lead him to the light." "No religion can rise higher than its source. Christendom will never ascend to a higher spiritual level than that manifested in the life of Christ; and the Muhammadan world, at its best, can never be more than an image of the gross vices and imperfect virtues which made up the character of Muhammad."

An excellent account of the puerile and fantastic science which every Muhammadan must accept as revealed truth will be found in 'Islam under the Arabs,' beginning at page 171. An Arab also firmly believes that his mother-tongue, in its antique form, is spoken in Heaven. As a parallel to this, it occurs to us that the patriotic and learned Goropius Becanus contended that Flemish was the language of Adam and Eve before their expulsion from Eden.

Having spent a good part of his life in India, and in constant intercourse with Muhammadans and Hindus, Major Osborn, naturally enough, allows himself here and there to glance, for the sake of illustration, at the country which, with its various religionists, he knows so well. In his view, "the rule of the Arabs in Asia was marked by all the defects of British rule in India, aggravated tenfold, and possessed none of its compensations." And how does he characterize the latter?

"The experience of British rule in India shows that where the subtle and persuasive power of sympathy is wanting, where social equality does not or cannot exist, there the gulf which divides the conqueror from the conquered remains unfilled. Within the boundaries of Hindostan we have established peace, and placed within the reach of her people the intellectual treasures which the happier West has accumulated; but we are further than ever from winning their affections. Never, perhaps, did the people of India regard the Englishman with a profounder dislike than at the present day." "What we have done for India is to convert it into a gigantic model prison. The discipline we have established is admirable; but the people know they are prisoners, and they hate us as their jailers." . . . "If we estimate the effects of British rule, not by trade statistics, but by its results on the spirit of man, we shall find that the races of India have declined in courage, and manliness, and all those qualities which produce a vigorous nation, in proportion to the period they have been subjected to the blighting influence of an alien despotism."

Further extracts of a kindred tenor we would fain give if we had space for them. The author's luminous and masterly article on the siege of Delhi, published some years ago in the *North American Review*, led us at the time to hope that we should hear from him again as a contributor to Indian history. And this hope, we are gratified to find, is likely to be realized. He now promises us, conditionally, a work on 'Islam in India.' The subject is one on which Major Osborn will all but absolutely be the first to break ground. Printed and manuscript, there exists a whole mine of records and dissertations in Persian and Urdû, which, towards the exhaustive treatment of it, he would be under the necessity of exploring. However, what with his learning, industry, constructiveness, philosophic stamp of mind, and evident facility in composition, there is hardly room for question that if he were to take it in hand the result would leave nothing to be desired.

RECENT NOVELS.*

WE have seldom met with a novel calculated to inspire the reader with a more lively curiosity as to its authorship than the 'Wreck of the *Grosvenor*.' From the first line to the last it is marked by power of so rare an order, managed with such an uncommon degree of skill, as to convince one that it must be the work of some writer of fiction of acknowledged standing. Yet there is nothing in the style to indicate the hand of any one with whose writings we are familiar on either side of the Atlantic. Some pains, apparently, have been taken to conceal the authorship, inasmuch as the whole story is told dramatically by the leading character. His style of narration still further confuses the matter, for it is that of a man well educated but not a gentleman by birth, whose vocabulary allows him great range of expression, and behind whom the author is completely concealed. Again, the scene of the story is entirely laid on board ship, and the description of the working of the vessel in fair weather or foul is technical and minute to the last degree. The sea-language employed is always correctly used, and some of the descriptions of the atmospheric effect at sea show that the writer is thoroughly familiar with the ocean. In fact, the book is the book of a thorough seaman. There is no living novelist of distinction within our knowledge who knows the sea well enough to write about it in this minute way except Charles Reade, and the idea that Charles Reade could be the author is preposterous. His impatience, his exaggeration, his fondness for theatrical effects, and his many little peculiarities of expression reveal themselves in every one of his stories. If it were a fact, as we have sometimes been inclined to imagine, that George Eliot receives illegitimate assistance in the composition of her stories from some superhuman source, we could conceive of the purely literary part of the book being produced by her, and the nautical part being furnished her from a quarter we will not name; but this is simply a confession of utter perplexity. Instead of trying to guess who the author is, let us give in a few words a hint as to the character of his powerful story.

It is, in the first place, a tale of the wildest adventure, and hence must be enjoyed by any one who enjoys reading thrilling stories of terrible dangers, heroic acts of bravery, hand-to-hand fights, and marvellous rescues. The adventures in this case, however, have the advantage of being astonishingly real. Antecedently we should venture without much hesitation to predict that any one undertaking to recount the history of the ill-fated *Grosvenor* would make himself thoroughly ridiculous before he came to the end of it; and, to justify this assertion, let us mention the incidents one after another in cold blood. The voyage of this vessel, bound to Valparaiso, begins with a mutiny in the English Channel, caused by the rotten food provided by the owners for the crew. The captain and first mate (a pair of brutes, who care nothing for the crew, and are rather pleased than otherwise at the prospect of maltreatment and cruelty this beginning holds out) ship a new crew, and get clear of England. The teller of the story, the second mate, Mr. Royle, a humane man, sympathizes with the crew, and soon finds himself in a hard position, as he feels that the food provided is a natural cause of discontent, and at the same time his advancement is dependent upon his pleasing his employers. A wreck is sighted, and on it a woman making signals for help. Mr. Royle insists on taking the vessel slightly out of her course to save whatever living beings there may be on the wreck. The crew side with him; the heroine of the story and her father, a wealthy shipowner, are rescued from the wreck, and Mr. Royle, on his return to the *Grosvenor*, is thrown into irons by the orders of the captain and mate for his mutinous conduct. The crew now rise, kill the two villains in command of the ship, and rescue the second mate, whom they put in command. He is the only man on board who can navigate the ship, and they insist that he shall take her to some port on the American coast, where they can leave her and escape as shipwrecked mariners, and so avoid all enquiry into the history of the voyage and the mutiny. He finds, however, that this is only part of the plan, the remainder being to scuttle the ship, and leave him behind, with the rescued heroine and her father, to perish miserably. He wins over to his side, however, the boatswain and the steward, and the game for their lives now begins. By deceiving the crew as to the distance and course of the ship, he takes her to within a short distance of the Bermudas, where he knows he shall find a Government station. By another trick the boatswain appears to be lost overboard at night, when in reality he secretes himself in the hold, where (when the critical moment finally comes) he plugs up the holes in the ship's bottom made by the carpenter Stevens, who is at the head of the mutineers. The crew leave the ship, and lie off at a few cables' lengths in the long boat and the quarter-boat to see her sink. Now, of course, comes the tremendous crisis, when the boatswain reappears, the heroine takes the wheel, the three men by a sudden manœuvre get the ship under way, and the smaller boatful of baffled mutineers make an attempt to board her. A terrific hand-to-hand fight ensues, which results in the destruction of all the boat's crew but one, who, with the boat, is captured; the *Grosvenor* stands off, leaving the long-boat far behind. After this there is a terrible southern storm, in which the long-boat reappears for one awful moment, driven on to certain destruction by a mighty sea—a storm in which the brave heroine and her deliverer perform prodigies; a sail is sighted, which proves to be a Russian, who, after coming almost within hailing distance, basely leaves the *Grosvenor* to her fate; and, finally, the ill-fated vessel springs a leak, and the water gradually gains in her hold. At last, after being driven about for days on frightful seas, they take to the boat captured from the mutineers, and, half-dead with suffering and fatigue, they leave the *Grosvenor* to sink. (It should be said that meantime Miss Robertson's father has died, and Miss Robertson herself is betrothed to her deliverer, Mr. Royle.) It is

* 'The Wreck of the *Grosvenor*. An Account of the Mutiny of the Crew and the Loss of the Ship when trying to make the Bermudas.' New York: Harper & Bros. 1878.

unnecessary to add that they do not perish, but are rescued and are happily married. It will be seen that this story borders, to say the least, on the improbable; but we may candidly admit that, after reading it, we have no more doubt of its being true than we have of the actual occurrence of the events connected with the mutiny of the *Bounty*. We will not compare it with 'Robinson Crusoe,' though the comparison is one that naturally suggests itself. In fact, we will not compare it with anything. It stands by itself as a work of fiction, and we can only say that, if its author does not prove to be some writer of established reputation, he will be one by virtue of this story, as soon as his identity is made out.

'The Sarcasm of Destiny' is peculiar in one respect, as being a story of American society written by a person evidently a member of what in America is called society. She—for there can be no doubt of the author's sex—moves easily among the usual conventions; she is not overwhelmed by the fine clothes of her heroine, alludes naturally to some of the current *mots* of society, and forms the title of her book by varying a phrase hardly yet hackneyed—"the irony of life." All this is so unusual that attention is at once attracted to the book, and there is something to repay it. The moral seems a little uncertain (perhaps not the less true to American society on that account), and, as usual, many of the events occur abroad, and some of the personages most essential to the plot are foreigners. This seems inevitable in American novels. Hawthorne is almost the only modern American novelist who detains his characters in America. Mr. James's heroes and heroines gaily join the continuous exodus to Europe, and even Hawthorne's last story adorns itself with the beauty and the charm of Italy. The instinctive seeking of the novelist for picturesque externals and strongly-marked types turns eastward even those who, according to Mr. Pogram, have "their bright homes in the setting sun."

The hero of this book is the son of a Hungarian physician and an English lady of rank. His wooing of Nina, an American lady of French descent and great wealth, is interfered with by the discovery that he has a wife living in the neighborhood; he disappears, and Nina, after some delay, marries her kinsman, Vigée La Fontaine, and goes with him to Paris. She is established in the Faubourg, in the imposing and gloomy hotel of her mother-in-law, and her sister is at the same time an ornament of the American colony. The relations and differences of the two sisters are well described, and all the French part of the book is written with *connaissance du fait*. The plot here grows complicated. Vigée becomes brutal, and the same woman who was the wife of Nina's lover, Dr. Derwent or Wesselenyii, turns up as Vigée's mistress, and dies, leaving a child whom Nina adopts and brings back to America with her. She loses her fortune, endures hardships of many kinds, her husband dies, and finally, of course, she marries her first love, whose career seems to be considered peculiar and unfortunate, but not particularly blameworthy. The old lady, Miss Brown, who is supposed to tell most of the story, is cleverly sketched and quaint, and there is a great deal in the book besides what we have indicated—a description of Washington during the war, a lady traitor, a high-toned lover, a dip into English society, and a subordinate love affair with suppression of letters, etc. Indeed, if we wished to be critical, we might say that the book is a little like a young minister's first sermon, beginning at the Deluge and telling all he knows. On the contrary, we do say that the book has much liveliness and "pace," and we have no doubt the author can write a much better one.

'Renée and Franz' is a translation of 'Le Bluet,' a "moral" tale, which had in Paris last year what may be called *un succès fou d'estime*. The author's name was not given, Gustave Haller being a *nom de plume*, but Madame Sand wrote a laudatory preface for it, and 'Le Bluet' was added to the short list of books accessible to the "jeune fille." King Solomon says: "There be three things which are too wonderful for me, yea, four which I know not." Certainly if he had lived in these days he might have added a fifth mystery—a Frenchman's notions of morality. The whole substance of this book consists of careful, detailed description of relations, abnormal and other, between young men and young women. Intimate friendship between a noble girl and a young farmer, carefully discriminated from love or desire of marriage, is one *motif*; the love of another noble but penniless beauty for the same young farmer, illustrated by passionate scenes, masquerading in a peasant's dress, and a very curious description of the young lady's delight in her own beauty, witnessed by her lover, who has climbed a high tree at night in order to look into his mistress's bedroom—this and the lady's final revolt from marriage with a peasant, and prompt acceptance of the hand and fortune of a Russian prince, with the soliloquies and speculations of the rustic lover, make up the chief part of the book. There are some rural descriptions; a scene where the Count arranges for his wife a private interview with her former lover, and apparently listens to their conversation behind the door; still other scenes between Franz and the husband of his first friend; and these altogether make up as unwholesome a book as we have lately read, but which, from its omission of murder, seduction, or suicide, is considered in Paris a moral and "most refined" tale.

Mrs. Rebecca Harding Davis writes stories which can hardly be called pleasant, and which frequently, as in 'A Law unto Herself,' deal with most unpleasant persons, but there is an undercurrent of recognized rectitude and a capacity for calling a spade a spade which sets her writings in a category far removed from French morality. She is worse than careless often in her language, as when she describes a person coming sidewise towards another as "slying into his vision," or says that "a corpse has gone by"; but though she shows bad taste in various ways, or perhaps because of this, she succeeds in giving a truer impression of American conditions than any writer we know except Mr. Howells, while there is a vast difference between his delicately illuminated preparations of our social absurdities and Mrs. Davis's grim and powerful etchings. Somehow she contrives to get the American atmosphere, its vague excitement, its strife of effort, its varying possibilities. Add to this a certain intensity, a veiled indignation at prosperity, and doubt of the honesty of success, and we get qualities which make Mrs. Davis's books individual and interesting if not agreeable.

'Bourbon Lilies' is written, we suppose, by Elizabeth Champney, though with an affectionate familiarity she writes herself "Lizzie" on her title-page. One gathers from the book that the author has lived at Ecouen and among artists, has seen something of the outside of a part of French life, has read Mérimée's stories, is captivated with the picturesque externals of foreign existence, and writes what used to be called "a tale" but now "a novelette," in which the reader is confused by national characteristics, strange organizations, and complicated circumstances used promiscuously to carry on a not particularly original or powerful story. The worst catastrophe is the destruction of a picture, and the rupture of an engagement with small regret on either side; and one has a dim sense of having seen a great ado made about nothing, and wonders why Charlotte de Montmorency and the first Napoleon, and a Russian with two absolutely different sides to his face, need have been trotted out for no more apparent object. Otherwise it is a readable story, and, we dare say, will be liked by young people who do not object to the intolerable vulgarity of Miss Fanny Fitz-Flirt, the American heroine. If asked to suggest a motto for a future edition, we should offer "In the name of the Prophet, figs!" believing the writer quite capable of depicting the rustic basket and the purple fruit—if she will let alone the Prophet.

'Through the Needle's Eye' is a description of a few lives lived almost entirely in an English seaside village. It tells how love and wrongdoing, temptation and repentance, worked together to shape and to alter the quiet ways of the Squire and his family, and those committed to their charge. A picture, not exactly vivid but careful and finally effective, is drawn of the old house and its inherited acres, that was as a weapon in the father's hands, a stumbling-block and a snare to his successors, and which had so strong a hold on the affection of all three. What the owning of certain land means to English people is strongly though perhaps unintentionally portrayed. Justin, the hero of the story, is tempted to belie his true self in order to possess and manage the land he has loved all his life; and his wrongdoing and his repentance and its consequences make the story (with due accessories), and it is told with truth and delicacy. It is true to the laws of life that though Justin can clear his own soul and restore twofold, his daughter, who is the light of his eyes, should suffer from her knowledge of his frailty, suffer from its consequences falling on herself, and, unable to construct a new life out of the ruins of the old, should fade and die. There is a true and kindly perception throughout the book, and there is a marked absence of melodrama and of snobbishness.

We take 'What a Boy!' to be inspired by what is called an "American sentiment," and it is that which makes it such very depressing reading.

'The Sarcasm of Destiny; or, Nina's Experience. By M. E. W. S.' New York: D. Appleton & Co. 1878.

'Renée and Franz ("Le Bleuet"), from the French of Gustave Haller.' Collection of Foreign Authors. No. vii. New York: D. Appleton & Co. 1878.

'A Law unto Herself. By Rebecca Harding Davis.' Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott & Co. 1878.

'Bourbon Lilies: A Story of Artist Life. By Lizzie W. Champney.' Wayside Series. Boston: Lockwood, Brooks & Co.

'Through a Needle's Eye. By Hesba Stretton.' New York: Dodd, Mead & Co. 1878.

'What a Boy! By Julia A. Willis.' Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott & Co. 1877.

There is evidently no judge in Israel, and every man does what is good in his own eyes. Rampant children and absurd parents fill the book, and live in a condition of society which we trust is impossible; there is a plentiful lack of common sense, and, we are sorry to say, one or two indecent allusions. Stir this all up with a good deal of animal spirits and some faculty for constructing a plot, and we have a book of which we may say there was small love between us at the beginning and it pleased God to decrease it on further acquaintance.

Deutsch's Letters. A Practical and Grammatical Course for easy and thorough self-instruction in the German Language, prepared with special regard to the close affinity existing between the English and German languages. By Solomon Deutsch, A.M., Ph.D., author of 'A Practical Hebrew Grammar,' etc. Published in semi-monthly parts of one lesson each. (Hartford, Conn., 1878. Numbers 1–5.)—This grammar is equally remarkable for its comprehensive scope and thorough elaborateness. Students who will devote to it a fair measure of energy and diligence will not only become masters of the grammatical rules of the German language, and of most of its lexicographical treasures, but they will have grasped its very marrow and spirit, learned its evolution and development, and acquired a knowledge of its relations to English, Anglo-Saxon, Gothic, and other Aryan tongues. The study is made comparatively easy by strictly methodical progression, by typographical helps to the eye, and chiefly by the aid of English parallels. Thus, in the reading exercises, instead of words picked out at random, we find only such as are cognate to the corresponding words in English: under *I*, for instance, *Bier*, beer, *wild*, wild, *Winter*, winter, *hindern*, to hinder, *Giebel*, gable, *Kiel*, keel, *Knie*, knee, *mild*, mild, *binden*, to bind, *finden*, to find, *blind*, blind, *spinnen*, to spin, *Lilie*, lily, etc.; under *Oe, ö, Flöte*, flute, *strömen*, to stream, *Hölle*, hell, *Föhre*, fir, *fördern*, to further, *König*, king, *rösten*, to roast, *schwören*, to swear, etc. In the portion of the exercises which serves to elucidate Grimm's law of the permutation of consonants and similar changes in the Germanic idioms, the German *p* and English *b* are thus contrasted: *Polster*, bolster, *Stoppel*, stubble, *Rippe*, rib, *Krippe*, crib, *plappern*, to blab, etc.; the German *sch* and English *s* thus: *Schmied*, smith, *Schnauze*, snout, *schlitzen*, to slit, *schmelzen*, to smelt, *schlafen*, to sleep, etc.; rejection in English is illustrated by *Trommel*, drum, *Stempel*, stamp, *Esel*, ass, *als*, as, *solch*, such, *welch*, which, *Wald*, wood, *Dohle*, daw, *Raspel*, rasp, etc.; and insertion by *Nachtigall*, nightingale, *Fledermaus*, flinder-mouse, etc. The pronunciation of the German words is given in every list. The translating exercises are also made easy by the careful choice of cognate words, as far as completeness allows. The philological notes are numerous and concise, but here and there perhaps too learned, at least for the average student, to whom the author addresses himself in his letters. Proverbs are introduced in the exercises; and conversations, as well as valuable quotations from the German classics and progressively arranged reading matter, are to appear in the later numbers.

Fine Arts.

THE FIFTY-THIRD EXHIBITION OF THE ACADEMY OF DESIGN.

As is always and doubtless must always be the case, we find some of the best pictures pushed up to the ceiling, above the broad self-assertions of painters in office. Indeed, although we have often protested, and always incline, against criticising the hanging committees, it has come to this, that an effort is required not to look with too much sympathy at the works of those painters who are skied. One of the most perfect canvases of the season is undoubtedly the invisibly-placed "Turkey Pasture" (481) by George Fuller, an Associate, but a Bostonian. The level gold rays of late afternoon, casting confusion on the sight, amid which confusion the dark blots of the birds make accents in the deep pasture, while a distant group of white turkeys form a light in the middle plane, are felt by the painter with luxury and unction, while every shade of color introduced is completely modified and melted in the general richness. The notion of borrowing Giorgione's brush and palette to paint poultry with is probably not a common one, but Mr. Fuller seems to have found his account in the stratagem. A not dissimilar theme is treated very differently by Bolton Jones, of Baltimore, another exhibitor exalted to the rafters by the committee-men. Mr. Jones shows us, in his "Taking Geese to Market" (275), a blank country path coming down across the bald top of a hill, patched with sprouts of grass, upon which an army of geese dart their white necks here and there, as they pompously explore the strange country with a sense of being discoverers. This is a literal daylight picture, carved rather than painted, with every curve of every fowl heightened in white and gray as a matter of conscience. Florent Heller's "Spadassin" (624), a tiny panel of miniature finish, representing a bravo extending his sword for an assassination as he lies in wait on the secret stair of a Borgia palace, is carefully put out of harm's way over two or three rows of frames; this picture has been warmly commended by the artist's instructor, Gérôme, and was hung on the eye-line when sent to the Paris *Salon*. A portrait by J. J. Henner is exhibited, the painter of the "Susannah Bathing" in the Luxembourg Gallery, and of the "Head of John Baptist," in the last *Salon*—that gymnastic of sweeping manipulation, with the eyelid defined by the cut of a thumb-nail in the shadow, which enthusiasts declared to be one of the finest pieces of quality since Velasquez; and there is a portrait by Bonnat. The Henner is hung in the corridor, and the Bonnat over a door. It is true that the two examples of European portraiture are the worst that could possibly be found. The subjects of both are fine ladies, of the type that would be more satisfactorily taken up by Cabanel or Giacomotti, whereas Henner is best known in serious work, more or less anatomical, while Bonnat has never come nearer to a feminine success than in the man-like features of Mme. Pasca. We are inclined to think that an implacable enemy of French kickshaws has gone through the world seeking the worst possible examples of Messieurs Henner and Bonnat, and are inclined to fasten the selection upon some fanatic disciple of the Munich school, say Mr. Chase, champion of Piloty, or Mr. Shirlaw, an energumen possessed by Lindenschmidt. Still, there is something in the claims of international courtesy, and there is something in the dictates of modesty, when a country without a national art is concerned; and there would have been no harm in taking M. Henner out of the entry, where his black shadows look still blacker in the dark, or in lowering M. Bonnat where his really fine work upon a pair of dimpled elbows and buckskin-gloved hands could be studied by our young artists.

And what are the portraits by which these portraits signed by famous names are hidden? They are the portraits of Mr. Baker, and the portraits of President N. A. Daniel Huntington, whose hand has long since forgotten all the cunning of invention and all the secrets of color for which it was famous in youth. The works of these gentlemen hang upon the eye-line, which is the unkindest of pillories for them. We do not recollect that any of the better portraits of the year hang at the level of the sight, except perhaps that of Mr. Porter (377), certainly a striking piece of characterization in black satin. The bride, in white, and resembling a plaster cast, by Mrs. Loop (416), is assuredly not one of her "advances." Lifting the eye to the second range above the dado, we notice Mr. Alden Weir's magnificent likeness of his father, an energetic and possibly testy old gentleman who turns himself in his chair smartly upon a swivel formed of his right hand placed upon the elbow, and sends a keen glance in the same direction, while his spectacles and handkerchief are held loosely on the other knee. This strong work, of which the strong sketch was lately remarked in the American Artists' Exhibition, might well have been placed in the centre of a room, and before, rather than above, the visitor's eye; it is the more creditable as a piece of style, since the author has completely abandoned and reversed the manner of the artist who taught him, the minute and microscopic painter of the "Pollice Verso." Another able portrait, placed above the level of the eye, and in the little sculpture-room, where a work of life-size never looks well, is that of an elderly lady writing with a gold pen, by Miss Ella A. Moss (690). The work is thorough and well understood, the kind, firm lines of a strong character are rightly laid upon the face, the figure is singularly real, energetic and impressive, while the attention of the spectator is quickly cajoled by the *tour de force* which makes the hand and pen seem to be solidly moulded upon the table on which they rest.

It is extraordinary that we should have to explain that in referring to a portraitist as an artist of the academic kind, we do not mean to use the phrase disrespectfully; yet the term has sunk to just that degree of opprobrium, and we are obliged to protest to Mr. Le Clear that in referring to his works as in the manner of our old academicians we mean to signify not so much a style as a period. He seems to us one of the best of the portraitists who joined the ranks of the Academy fifteen years or more ago. His painting is thinner and more gelatinously glazed than that of the modern advocates of vigor, who mix whites with their shadows; but his modelling, less boisterously expressed than that of his younger contemporaries, is exact, sensitive, and elegant, with a dainty perception of planes and reliefs that reminds one of Stuart. His profile face of Mr. Martin E Green (363) is a tenderly chiselled study, not in

very high relief, it is true, of one of those clear-cut types of physiognomy that seem adapted to medal-work, and have been called numismatic. His portrait of Judge Durrell (406) is capitally posed for the expression of a temperament, and stands up dry, contemptuous, aristocratic, the image of a Bourbon justice supreme in the society of the *ante-bellum* days in Louisiana.

We can allude to but a few of the landscapes this week. One of the best, though small, is certainly Mr. Wyant's "Late Afternoon" (621). In the melting haze of a warm afternoon—a haze that seems to run in tender streams down the precipices of mingling cumulus clouds—stands a solitary hickory tree, that most graceful and stately of American growths, with a respectful court of smaller trees around it at some distance. This proud and sculptural figure, solid and dark, and undercut through its leafage like the tree-work of a Japanese bronze, is as dignified as a celestial apparition; the sense of majesty we derive from the sight of a rare and monumental tree has seldom been better given than in this small picture; and we are apt to think that the country boy placed in front of it feels its control also, and is engaged in some artless rite of sylvan worship, like the farmer mentioned in one of Wordsworth's prefaces. Other landscapes that catch the attention are striking at second hand. The "Long Island Landscape" (375) by Miller is simply a quotation from Constable; here are the tumbling cumulus clouds intersected by blades of straight and keen cirrus, the ditch-water turning up the rough edge of its ripple to meet the sharp radiance of the refulgent palette-knife, the willows tossing and pushing—the whole apparatus of the Suffolk painter, in fact. Mr. T. Moran, in his "Dream of the Orient," gives us Turner so illusively that it seems like a jest; the most perfect counterfeiter of Turner living, when he chooses—having once completely deceived keeper Wornum with one of his clever imitations—this chameleon of the arts only need acquire a style of his own to be a capital painter. Last spring he exhibited a perfect Jacques; this year, for the American Artists, he showed an illusive Diaz. Owen Meredith is not more accomplished in forging the style of a poet than Mr. Moran in catching the peculiarities of a painter. His powers are his greatest misfortune, and, while they tend to cheapen uncomfortably the magic trick of the master he imitates, they leave him in an unpleasant predicament himself, as a man of mere clothes, an artist without conviction, a painter who can see nature through everybody's eye but his own. Mr. Quartley, again, who has formerly shown real originality in extracting artistic motives from the most sordid parts of New York, is going in an unfortunate direction when he puts the water which Ziem paints in Venice in front of the rocks of the Coast of Maine, in his "Afternoon in August" (380).

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, APRIL 25, 1878.

The Week.

THE *Herald* has "interviewed" all the members of both Houses *seriatim* with the view of ascertaining their opinions with regard to the Blair scheme of reopening the Presidential question, and found that all but an insignificant minority treat it with utter contempt. Only fifteen were found willing to favor it. This is what might have been expected, and, in fact, it has been so near being well known that the amount of space given to the subject in the newspapers has been singular. Apropos of this, the chairman of the Florida Returning Board and some other members have, it is said, confessed to frauds in the count of the vote in various counties. Whether the confession be true or false, it is of little consequence now except as showing the character of the men whose performances the country watched with breathless interest in the winter of 1876–7 and nearly went to war over, and as showing, too, the enormous importance of arranging some plain mode of deciding disputes at the count in Washington before another election. We are in the second year of Mr. Hayes's term and Congress is near adjournment, and nothing has yet been done, although it is certain the country will be in a most inflammable condition on this subject in 1880.

The interview with Mr. Conkling published in the *World* proves to be the production of a Mr. Mines, a former editor of a Conkling paper in Utica, who recently met the Senator at dinner in that city. Mr. Conkling was, of course, promptly waited on by the reporters to see what he had to say about it; but his denial or repudiation only went to the complete accuracy or fulness of the report. In fact, the conversation seems to have been in the main correctly rendered. According to some, the interviewer is a base person who has betrayed the confidence of a private dinner-party; according to others, the whole affair was, like the interview published some time ago in the *Herald*, arranged beforehand, including the partial disavowal of the interviewer, and is simply a mode by which Mr. Conkling likes to get certain opinions and stories before the public without assuming too much responsibility for them. The sentiments ascribed to him are generally recognized by his friends as his, and are highly approved of. He has, it appears, decided not to bring the matter up in the Senate. It will be observed that in neither interview does he display the smallest interest in any subject of legislation. His talk runs, as his thoughts doubtless run, on "the mechanism of government"—or, in other words, on offices, the persons who got them, and those who ought to have got them and didn't, the knavery by which some were cheated out of them, and the folly with which they were bestowed on others. Of real politics there is no mention, and, in fact, it seems as if it did not matter much to him what bills passed or did not pass, provided they did not interfere with his personal fortunes.

The interview is a curious picture of political manners, and of the type of statesmen who are succeeding the old pro-slavery and anti-slavery men. These at least believed and felt strongly about subjects. Even the vain men among them, Mr. Sumner for instance, went out of themselves and were easily roused into passionate advocacy of measures which in no way concerned them personally. The new men appear incapable of anything of the kind. They are ready to vote for a measure, or vote against it, or keep silent about it, or "straddle" it, with sole reference to their own fortunes. The vanity, too, of the old school, as in Mr. Sumner's case, was based on the possession, real or supposed, of certain intellectual powers or accomplishments, on knowledge or eloquence, or great achievements; the vanity of the Conkling type, on the other hand, is simply what Daudet in the *Nabab* happily calls "vanité dindonnière," or turkey-cock vanity—that is, the self-esteem of a male animal *quâ* male animal, without reference to the quality of his powers or the use made of them.

Mr. Blaine "straddled" the tariff question most successfully in a speech at Chester, Pa., on Saturday. After giving a woful and perfectly correct account of the decline of American shipping since 1860, and the transfer of our carrying trade to European bottoms, he said the Government as well as the people had made enormous donations in aid of the construction of railroads for the transportation of our products from the interior to the shores of the ocean; therefore it should not stop at the shores of the ocean, but should help to pay the expense of transporting them to Europe. The fun of this is — for it is funny — that one would suppose from Mr. Blaine's discourse that the goods lay on the beach worthless for want of any means of reaching the European market. The fact is, that our enormous exports, on reaching the beach, find more ships than they can possibly fill waiting to carry them abroad at unprecedentedly cheap rates, so that the owners of the products could not possibly be better served than they are. What Mr. Blaine proposes is, that these owners should now make up a purse, in the shape of taxation, to pay shipowners for carrying their goods at present rates; that is, that besides their ordinary freight they should pay a bonus through the Government. After this, one would have supposed that he would announce his intention of advocating in Congress a Government subsidy to American shipping. Nothing of the kind. Throwing one leg over the subject, he said that he spoke only as "an American citizen," that there was much opposition to subsidies in the public mind, and that what he would advocate in Congress it would be "improper" to mention.

On Wednesday week the Senate indefinitely postponed a bill introduced by General Burnside, of which the design was to enlist colored soldiers on the same footing as whites—*i.e.*, to distribute them through the ranks and not gather them in regiments by themselves. On the same day Mr. Voorhees's famous resolution declaring it "of the highest importance that the financial credit of the Government be maintained," etc., was called up by that gentleman and passed without opposition. On Tuesday, the 23d, the bill to extend the time for the completion of the Northern Pacific Railroad was passed. The Senate has done little else except voting to adjourn on June 10. This resolution was immediately brought up in the House and opposed by Mr. Wood, who, in the interest of his tariff measure, demanded its reference to the Committee of Ways and Means, of which he is Chairman. He was defeated, having against him all those, of both parties, who do not wish the existing tariff disturbed—at least in the way he proposes to disturb it; but on Thursday he recovered control of his party, and on Friday he secured not a reference but a postponement of the resolution till May 15, by a vote of 129 to 113, a few Democrats voting with the minority. On Monday, Butler's bill to provide a convenient currency by the reissue of fractional notes, and of one and two-dollar notes to the amount of one-sixth of the whole legal-tender notes outstanding, came up under his call for a suspension of the rules to put it on its passage, and received only 120 votes against 124. The River and Harbor Appropriations Bill, involving an outlay of upwards of seven millions, was more fortunate, and in spite of much uproar and a vigorous protest on the part of Mr. S. S. Cox and other Democrats, was passed without debate and without consideration in Committee of the Whole, the rules having been suspended for the purpose. The strength of the measure had been carefully calculated in advance by "natural selection," the West and the South being allotted about six millions against less than a million and a half for

the Eastern and Middle States, where, nevertheless, the evidences of *quid pro quo* were also plainly visible.

The vote on this bill was followed for two days by very unusual scenes of disorder, owing to a formal protest entered by Mr. S. S. Cox and signed by himself and twenty-seven others, setting forth the reasons why bills of this character ought to be debated and carefully examined in detail. Some of these were sound, as that there is in them a tendency to combine local interests "for general spoliation upon the Treasury"; while others, as that the House has a sacred right and a traditional privilege to consider appropriations, and that the constitutional authority to "regulate commerce among the several States" does not justify the improvement of rivers whose course lies wholly within a single State, seem open to objection. The majority (whether two-thirds or less) is the House for all practical purposes, and it cannot be said by any action of its own to deprive the House of a right, whatever may be thought of the rights of the minority. On the other hand, a river like the Hudson is, although wholly in New York State, as much a part of the navigable waters of the United States as is the harbor at its mouth. So far as the protest was directed against indecent haste in the appropriation of public moneys, especially for objects that will not bear scrutiny, it ought to command public sympathy, although it seems out of place except in the body of a speech, and was, we think, rightly pronounced by the House not a question of privilege. But Mr. Cox might have remembered his own share in suppressing debate on a measure of infinitely greater moment—the Silver Bill. The time to respect the rights of the minority is when one is in the majority.

The same question will, we apprehend, arise when the Tariff Bill fairly comes upon the scene. There appears to be little expectation that Mr. Wood can save it from its enemies, who are mainly but not wholly on the Republican side, unless by the exercise of the severest party discipline, and for this almost the only instrument at his disposal is the "previous question." There is, from the democratic point of view, a great injustice as well as absurdity in the Committee of Ways and Means forcing such an important measure on the House without any opportunity for discussing it; but it must be said that our experience is rather favorable to such a course. We have already expressed our belief that the House can do little more than mar the present bill, not because we are not conscious of its imperfections, but because from the tussle of private interests in open House there are sure to emerge greater and more serious inconsistencies. Jobbery stands a better chance with a mixed, uncritical assembly which cannot stop to detect the motive that lurks behind innocent phraseology, than with a committee of ordinary integrity and discernment. It would stand no chance whatever with a chancellor of the exchequer whose duty it was to devise tariffs or to modify them, and who would be held responsible to the whole country for changes in the interest of private parties. In this, we believe, lies the solution which would satisfy the spasmodic scruples of Mr. Cox about the right of debating all fiscal measures, and relieve the anxiety felt by all friends of rational legislation whenever Congress undertakes to deal with such complex and scientific questions as the revenue. Mr. Sherman and his budget are a dream of the future, but Mr. Wood's budget has been spread before the country, and has generally been recognized as a substantial advance over anything that has preceded it in this generation, if not in any other. We may think the sugar-refiners would not fare so well in the House as they do in the bill, but we may be pretty sure that if they are cast out there will be found plenty of decaying interests to take their places. As between the abuse of the rules of the House in the employment of the previous question, and the abuse of debate, the country may in this instance profitably choose the former.

Bills on London advanced during the week to 4.89¼ to 4.89½, or, in other words, to the rate which makes the export of gold coin profitable. Accordingly the price of gold advanced to 100⅝ from 100⅛ to 100¼ last week. The rise in sterling was not caused by importations of United States bonds, but by the reduced supply of commercial bills at a time when the receipts of foreign silver were large. The Treasury, with the approval of the Syndicate bankers, has re-established its London agency, and a large amount of 4½ per cent. bonds were sent there during the week. Even with the rise in gold and the hostility shown in Congress to any kind of specie payments, the sales of 4½ per cent. bonds in this country continue, and more than one-half of the first $10,000,000 have been sold. Among bankers there is no doubt that resumption, according to the Treasury plan, will be begun at the appointed time. General business is somewhat better than it was, but the spring trade for 1878 will be remembered as the worst in the history of the country. The reports concerning the growing crops are, however, most encouraging, and there comes from Chicago the astonishing information that harvesting of winter wheat in Illinois will be begun in May. Silver in London ruled at 53⅞*d.* to 54*d.* per oz. At the close of the week the bullion value of the silver dollar was $0.9137 gold. The gold value of the legal-tender note was $0.9950.

Belgium, as a great manufacturer and exporter, and a member of the Latin Union and one of the double-standard nations, has discussed the silver question as much as any other country. Its leading financiers have now for some years been slowly giving up the double standard as a chimera. What Belgium has to say in reply to our invitation to European nations to join us in the great silver experiment is, therefore, of considerable importance. It is to be found in an article from the leading commercial paper, the *Précurseur* of Antwerp, translated in the last *Economist*. It is worth the attentive perusal of the sons of thunder in Cincinnati and Chicago, but we can only give a brief summary of it. It says the international understanding can only be negotiated on the ratio of 15½ to 1; but there could be no guarantee that this, if agreed on, could be kept up without regard to the market value of bullion; that its universal adoption, anyhow, is a utopian idea; that what will probably result from the attempt will be the division of the commercial world into two camps—the gold camp and the double-standard camp; that the latter, no matter what it may say, will be really a silver camp; that from this division great commercial disturbance and great difficulty in adjusting exchanges will result; that if legislators indulge in Utopias commercial men will have to protect themselves as the Californians did against the greenbacks. The poor "gold-bug" concludes as follows, evidently not having heard the convincing yells from the Mississippi valley:

"It is obvious that the solution of the problem proposed by the bi-metallists is not so easy as they imagine. From whatever side it is considered there is nothing but uncertainty and obscurity. What the bi-metallists propose is nothing else than a leap in the dark; and we doubt whether there are be found statesmen worthy of the name who will consent to take the responsibility upon themselves of a realization of so chimerical a project. On the contrary, every doubt and uncertainty would fade away if it were decided to deal summarily with the question by adopting the single standard of gold."

The fresh news about the Anglo-Russian imbroglio is that Bismarck is still trying to mediate, and that opinions about the probability of his success vary from day to day. One of the signs that he is not acting wholly in the Russian interest is the cordial reception given by him to the Rumanian agents presenting the strong protest of the Principality against the annexation of Bessarabia and the stipulation with Turkey, without the sanction or adhesion of Rumania, for the passage of Russian troops through the territory of the latter for two years. The fact is that the defence of the Bessarabian clause in the Treaty of San Stefano was the one weak point in Prince Gortchakoff's reply to the Marquis of Salisbury. Annexation cannot be justified. The territory taken does not belong to Turkey; it belongs to Rumania, which has done nothing to warrant Russia in exacting any sacrifice from her. On the contrary, her aid during the war was invaluable, and gave her a

fair claim to a share in the negotiations, as well as to compensation. Nor is the annexation necessary in any way to the protection of the Christians or the organization of the new Bulgaria. It is, in fact, simply proposed as a sentimental tribute by the Czar to his father's memory; but it is asking too much of the Western powers to ask them to allow an important feature in the Treaty of 1856 to be set aside on this ground.

In England the effect of the Gortchakoff Note appears to have been pacificatory, and its power as an answer is not denied. In France it has had the effect of checking the strong support given hitherto by the press to the English position. The *Temps* acknowledges the absurdity of the claim of Lord Beaconsfield and the *Pall Mall Gazette*, on which we commented last week, that Russia shall bring her treaty to the Congress as a mere "suggestion," or petition, after having sacrificed 100,000 lives in getting the Turk to sign it. It admits that, although it might be desirable that Russia should do this, it is preposterous to expect her to do it. It might go further, and say that as long as England proposes nothing of her own in place of or in amendment of the Treaty, it is almost insulting to ask Russia to submit it for simple approval or disapproval. Gortchakoff, in fact, is at his strongest when he says: If you do not like this, say what you do like, and then we shall both appear on equal terms at the Congress, each with his plan; but do not ask us to appear like a suppliant for the simple acceptance or rejection of our plan only.

There has, however, been since the beginning no more important contribution to the controversy than the great debate in the House of Lords on the 8th instant, when Lord Beaconsfield moved the address in reply to the Queen's message. He went over the situation in a speech lasting more than an hour, following substantially the line of Lord Salisbury's despatch. He commented on the secrecy with which the negotiations with the Turks were conducted in spite of the warning given by England that the Powers would have to be parties to any treaty that might be concluded. When the Congress was proposed by Austria, England asked that there might be an agreement beforehand that all the questions raised by the Treaty of San Stefano should be submitted as "subject to be discussed," to which Prince Gortchakoff replied with "classic ambiguity" that the Treaty would be submitted and each Power "would then have full liberty of criticism and action." Lord Beaconsfield then went over the Treaty article by article, showing that it destroyed Turkey in Europe, created a new Principality wholly under Russian influence, promised reforms in Epirus and Thessaly to be framed by Russian hands, would convert the Black Sea into a Russian lake, put the commercial communications between Turkey and Persia in her power, and would enable her to march down through Syria against the Suez Canal. He wound up by threatening Russia with an army of 74,000 men, which, like a true rhetorician, he did not show to be equal to the job proposed, but said it was double the British force ever commanded by Marlborough or Wellington. In fact, most of the speech reminded one forcibly of the political speculations of 'Coningsby.'

He was followed by Lord Derby in the most powerful speech the latter ever made, and which nothing but national madness can prevent having a great effect out of doors. Some of his opening revelations upon the causes of his resignation showed the kind of comedy in which the Cabinet had been engaged—such, for instance, as that he had determined to resign on account of the proposal to ask the vote of £6,000,000, but had been pacified by the Chancellor of the Exchequer's statement that they needed a vote of confidence, and that only a small part of the money would be spent; so that the demand for the money, in so far as the blame of it was put on Russia, was in great part buncombe. Lord Derby then pointed out that the gravity attributed to the failure of the Congress was largely factitious, inasmuch as the questions it was expected to settle could be settled by negotiation between individual Powers; he showed, with the clearness of a man who knows what he is talking about, that in case of war England could count on no ally but Austria, and that Austria, owing to the peculiar composition of her population and her army, could not be relied on for a long war, and might at any stage in the struggle be compelled to make separate terms with Russia. He then came to the tremendous question—What is to be the object of the war? It cannot be to restore Turkey, for all are agreed that that is impossible. If it is to procure a reduction in the amount of the indemnity, there is no good reason for thinking that this cannot be accomplished by peaceful negotiation. There is, he said, however, behind these excuses a stronger motive than any of them, and that is a desire to restore English prestige, which the public has got into its head has been diminished. He denied that English prestige had been diminished: the existing anxiety about her course all over Europe was proof of the contrary. But if it had been diminished, it was due to the ridiculous course of the English public in refusing passionately eighteen months ago to interfere in behalf of Turkey, and in now proposing just as passionately to go to attack Russia for conquering her, as if nobody supposed that the war could result in her defeat. He closed with a stroke which had the force of a sledge-hammer, by asking what England would do, supposing she now went to war and took from Russia all Russia had won. She could not retain European Turkey, or even substitute in it English influence for Russian influence, because Russian influence had roots which neither the English nor Austrian sword could destroy, namely: community of religion, traditional and historic sympathies, and a common hatred of a common enemy.

The anxiety prevailing in England about the war, and which many people begin to fear the Government is bent on at all hazards, is aggravated by a great strike in Lancashire, throwing between 80,000 and 90,000 persons out of employment, and intended to resist a reduction of wages. There is not much likelihood that the operatives can succeed, but the struggle will of course cause vast suffering and loss, and is likely to last for many weeks. The one remedy for these collisions between labor and capital is, as Mr. Brassey has so well pointed out, the employment by the workingmen of agents or representatives capable of understanding the conditions of the employer's business and the force of his arguments about wages; but no progress in this direction has been made, and there is, of course, the great difficulty that any person competent to fill such a place could do better.

The Berlin correspondent of the London *Times* recently gave an account of the funeral of the noted Socialist Heinsch in that city, and it contained many things which are supplying food for reflection both in Germany and elsewhere. Heinsch's coffin was followed by 10,000 men and women wearing red ribbons and flowers, red being, as in Paris, the Socialist color. To avoid giving the occasion an air of solemnity the men mostly smoked as they went, and also dropped out of the ranks now and then to take a pull of beer. He was buried in the cemetery of the sect, which has inscribed over the gate: "There is no hereafter and no meeting again." The funeral discourse was long, and, besides praise of Heinsch, ridiculed the idea of his being judged by anybody but the people, and advised all true Socialists to follow his example in being good haters. The ostentatious contempt of the party for the Christian religion is ascribed to a recent ill-advised attempt of some of the clergy to start a mission among the Socialists, in which, in order to make religion more attractive, they proposed along with it laws for the regulation of labor and heavy taxation of the rich. The plan met with the fate that might have been expected. At the first meeting the ministers were interrupted with ribald and blasphemous remarks, and the hymns were drowned in obscene songs. Finally a Socialist speaker took possession of the audience and abused the clergy, and ridiculed the idea of a future life, and encouraged his brethren to fix their attention on this and get all they could out of it, and leave Christianity for the Hottentots. The movement has died out, leaving the Socialists more bitter and determined than ever.

OUR POSITION IN CASE OF A WAR.

THE fact that the newspapers on both sides of the Atlantic have already begun to discuss the position which this country will occupy in case of a European war, shows at least that the matter is worth consideration. The despatch published in the *Herald* a week or two since to the effect that in case of war Russia was going to fit out a fleet of "corsairs," with an organization apparently similar to that of a benevolent society, and with one of the Grand Dukes as its chief officer—possibly to give it a good position in the fashionable world—seemed a little improbable; but it has been followed by another to the effect that Russia is already buying American ships (as of course she has now a perfect right to do if she can find them) for use should a war break out; while Sir Samuel Baker has written a letter to the London *Times*, prophesying that in case of war Russia "will issue letters of marque to American adventurers, and a swarm of *Alabamas* may interrupt our commerce." From these and other indications it appears to be the popular impression in Russia, and in certain quarters in England, that privateering instead of being (as it was formerly considered) a belligerent privilege, has ripened into a cardinal neutral right; and that the main business of a neutral nation in time of war is to fit out fleets of armed cruisers to prey upon the commerce of the belligerents. It would appear to be a corollary from this view that the neutral must prey upon both belligerents equally; but some publicists may take the ground that a discrimination may be made, possibly applying Count Bernsdorff's doctrine of "benevolent neutrality" to this new case, or holding (under the decision of the Geneva Tribunal that the "due diligence" required of a neutral must be exercised in proportion to the likelihood of damage to the respective belligerents) that, Russia having no commerce to speak of, we are bound to destroy the English mercantile marine, to make everything even at the start.

It is, we may say at the outset, a creditable proof of the progress made in the United States since the war in sobriety of thought and discussion that the grotesque idea of our repeating England's flagrant breach of her neutral duties, and letting loose a "fleet of *Alabamas*" to prey on the commerce of a friendly nation, appears to be of British or Russian rather than American growth. There are several difficulties in the way of any more "fleets of *Alabamas*." In the first place, at the time of the Declaration of Paris our Government refused to agree to the announcement of the great Powers that privateering "is and remains abolished," not because it approved of privateering, but because it desired to go further and protect even belligerent commerce. Since that time we have learnt to our cost what a "fleet of *Alabamas*" means; we have seen our commerce swept from the seas by one, and we have exacted a heavy fine from the nation which was the cause of our losses. That now, only twenty-two years since the signing of the Declaration, it should be tacitly assumed by anybody that, in case of a war between two nations with whom we are on the most friendly terms, the only thing that will make us, a neutral nation, refrain, not from issuing letters of marque to defend our own interests, but from making use of them to harass one belligerent for the benefit of the other, will be brute force, shows that our position must in certain quarters be much misunderstood. It would, of course, for the United States of all nations be an infamous piece of wickedness to do what England did in our Rebellion. That we should be supposed capable of anything of the sort, particularly after our loud talk about the duties of neutrals at the time of the *Alabama* dispute, is a curious illustration of the survival of foreign conceptions as to American qualities and tendencies long after the facts out of which the conceptions grew have ceased to have any existence. That Russia, in case of war, would only be prevented from resorting to privateering either by the impossibility of getting ships or the difficulty of disposing of her prizes, seems to be taken for granted. The idea that Russia would refrain from privateering as an obsolete and barbarous method of warfare has not suggested itself to any one. But Russia is actually a party to the Declaration of Paris, and therefore is bound, if that Declaration means anything, to refuse to issue letters of marque. In recent discussions, however, in the English Parliament, it has been urged that the Declaration of Paris is of no binding authority, and that in case of a general war it will not be treated as having any. As we have before pointed out in these columns, Europe in 1856, looking forward to a long period of peace, abolished privateering in the interest of commerce; now, armed to the teeth, and every nation regarding its belligerent as of more importance than its commercial rights, it begins to look back at privateering with regret—particularly in the case of governments which contemplate the possibility of war with commercial nations. This change of feeling is perhaps natural in Europe, but an analysis of its causes ought to show the Russians how little reason they have to expect a similar change of feeling in this country. We may look forward to a long period of peace and prosperity; we have no great standing armies and no foreign quarrels. That we should sigh for the good old times when privateers ravaged the high seas, and long to plunge ourselves into a European quarrel by helping one friendly nation to resort to them against another, would be little less than madness.

But as it seems to be fancied abroad that all moral notions on the subject of our conduct in a European war are "played out," and that expediency and interest are alone to govern us, it is worth while to enquire what our legal position as a neutral will be—what will be our rights and duties as established by the law of nations and by treaty. Here, at the outset, we are confronted by a somewhat anomalous state of things, such as, we believe, has hardly ever presented itself before. As to both belligerents, we should of course be neutral; but in addition to our neutral duties as regulated by the ordinary principles of international law, there are also our obligations as defined by the Treaty of Washington. Between these two there is a considerable difference, although at the time of the *Alabama* controversy we maintained that there was none. By the general rules of international law a neutral's duties are defined very aptly by the word "neutrality" itself. The neutral must not in any way become a party to the war, and must not give assistance to either party. Its commerce is not to be interfered with, and it may, therefore, supply either belligerent with food and other products, subject to the right of capture in the case of contraband of war. These rules, accordingly, would govern the conduct of American citizens in their dealings with England in case of a war between that country and Russia.

Our behavior, however, would have to be regulated also by the Treaty of Washington, since that instrument provided that the "three rules" on the subject of neutral duties should be binding as between the Governments of England and the United States not only in the *Alabama* case but in the future as well. The Treaty stipulated, it will be remembered, that Great Britain and the United States should bring these rules to the notice of other governments and urge their general adoption; but, unfortunately, owing to the fact that Mr. Fish and the British Secretary for Foreign Affairs never could agree upon the meaning of the rules, no progress has been made in advancing their general adoption. And this is certainly not singular when we examine their nature. The three rules declare that a neutral government is bound to use "due diligence" to "prevent the fitting out, arming, or equipping within its jurisdiction" of any vessel which it has "reasonable ground to believe" is "intended" for use against a power with which it is at peace; to use "due diligence," also, to prevent a like employment if the vessel has been "specially adapted in whole or in part" to "warlike use"; that it is bound not to permit either belligerent to use its ports or waters as "the base of naval operations" or "for the purpose of the renewal or augmentation of military supplies or arms, or the recruitment of men"; further, that it is bound to use "due diligence" in its own ports and waters, and as to all persons within its jurisdiction, to prevent any violation of these obligations.

It is needless to point out the extreme stringency of these regulations. It was felt by England to be so great that she refused to agree in the Treaty that at the time of the escape of the *Alabama* they

formed any part of international law. Under these rules, taken in connection with the interpretation given them at Geneva by the American "case," and by the arguments of the American counsel, Mr. Evarts and Mr. Cushing, the United States is bound, as regards Great Britain, practically to watch every vessel that there is the slightest reason to suspect is being fitted out in any of our ports for warlike use against England, and to prevent its putting to sea at all hazards. Further than this, if, in order to stop her, new laws are needed, or even new constitutional amendments, the Government is bound to have such laws or constitutional amendments adopted at its peril. If a conflict arises between State and Federal jurisdiction, and our courts decide that the Federal jurisdiction is wanting, so much the worse for us, for under the Treaty of Washington no defence of this sort arising out of the peculiarities of municipal law can be set up. In the eyes of international law as expounded by that Treaty, the duty of neutrality is one of nearly absolute obligation, and cannot be avoided by the fact that the neutral has not provided the legislative or constitutional machinery for enforcing it. We may be of opinion, like Mr. Bumble, that if the law says this "the law is a hass," but that will make no difference; neither international law, nor treaties carrying it into effect, can be changed except by the consent of both parties; and we may be very sure that, in case of a war such as now threatens Europe, it will not be England which will endeavor to have the Treaty of Washington rescinded.

At the first blush, therefore, it would appear that, in case of a war between England and Russia, our duties toward one belligerent would be governed by a different law from that governing our duties to the other; that with regard to Russia our obligations would be those generally recognized as forming a part of the law of nations; that with regard to England our duties would be drawn from the more stringent rules of the Treaty of Washington; that the vessel which we should be obliged to stop if destined to cruise against English commerce, we need not stop at all if it could be made out that she was to be used in any way against Russia. Of course, this particular dilemma would not be likely to arise, because England would not be likely to be in need of American privateers. But it might easily arise with regard to some other obligation covered by the Treaty; as, for example, the recruitment of men in our ports. In this way we should be brought face to face with the question, Can there be a neutrality with different degrees of obligations to the two belligerents? If there can, we should have something like a practical illustration of what Count Bernsdorff called "benevolent neutrality." Our neutrality would (at any rate in its practical results) be extremely "benevolent" as regarded England, and very much the opposite as regarded Russia. But it seems very clear that such a neutrality is out of the question. The very term imports an absolute equality of treatment of both belligerents, and consequently any obligations which we admit to exist in the case of the one must exist in the case of the other. It follows from this that our neutral obligations with regard to Russia will be precisely the same as those with regard to England, and will be defined not only by international law, but by international law as modified by the Treaty of Washington.

It is needless to point out the gravity of the responsibilities which will attach to our Government under the three rules. It is fortunate that we have in Mr. Evarts a Secretary of State whose connection with the Geneva arbitration must have made him fully alive to the magnitude of the responsibility they throw on the country. So far from its being true, as many persons suppose, that in case of a war Russia will be able to furnish a "fleet of *Alabamas*" from our ports and sweep English commerce from the seas, nothing is more unlikely. Our Government will, on the contrary, have to devote a great part of its energies to doing police work for Great Britain, and we think it quite safe to say that not a single privateer equipped "in whole or in part" for "warlike use" will get to sea from an American port. Since the Treaty of Washington we have, for good or evil, abandoned our old position as the champion of neutrality, and under the "three rules" may be considered as the leading protector of belligerent rights. Morally, it cannot but be a cause of satisfaction to reflect that the position we took in order to win the *Alabama* case will now force our Government to prevent its citizens from gratifying their predatory instincts in defiance of law and the good opinion of mankind.

THE ENGLISH LIBERALS AND THEIR LEADERS.

AN article of Mr. Goldwin Smith's in the last number of the *Fortnightly Review*, entitled "Whigs and Liberals," though it may not be an authorized expression of Liberal opinion, gives vent to the growing feeling of discontent in the Radical wing of the Liberal party with the manner in which it is led or represented by its chiefs of the Conservative wing. This discontent has been growing ever since Mr. Gladstone went out of office, but it has been greatly stimulated by the management, or rather mismanagement, of party interests in the House of Commons during the Turco-Russian crisis. The precipitate retreat of Lord Hartington, Mr. Forster, and Lord Granville on the vote of the six millions, under the influence of sham news from Mr. Layard at Constantinople, and the general feebleness and indecision which have characterized their course on the whole question of war or peace, have, even if justified by facts, had naturally a most demoralizing influence on the rank and file of the party out of doors. It has become, too, among the Whigs or "gentlemanly" Liberals the fashion to join the Tories in abuse and repudiation of Mr. Gladstone, and to pretend that the party is well rid of him, and ought to disclaim all responsibility for him, and yet it is none the less true that nobody in the Liberal party has retained the hold he has over the mass of voters, or has been as faithful to the really great party traditions. It was due to his eloquence and activity, and to the strong popular confidence in the purity of his character, that the connection of England with the Turks was finally broken before the beginning of the war, and that all talk of England's fighting for the integrity and independence of the Turkish Empire was made impossible even for Lord Beaconsfield. Mr. Gladstone forced the Conservatives, in fact, into a tacit dropping of the Turks, in spite of their keen sympathy with them, and obliged them to disguise their philo-Turkish schemes in clamor about "British interests" and in abuse of Russia. But with "British interests" and abuse of Russia they have, owing to the half-hearted conduct of the Liberal leaders in Parliament, been able to carry the day, in spite of the opposition, as Mr. S. Laing well says, "of a large proportion of the best intellect and conscience of the country."

This half-heartedness of the Whigs, as Mr. Goldwin Smith would call it, is due to what may be termed their "gentlemanliness," or their sympathy with the large and powerful body of wealthy persons, and the connections of wealthy persons, beginning with the Queen and stopping at the shopkeepers, who form what for political purposes is called "society." It is by no means a homogeneous body, and contains many grades and circles from the court down, who do not mingle freely, the upper one being a kind of Plevna, on which the others make incessant assaults, and such of the assailants as get inside the works incontinently help to man them against their old comrades. But their intestine dissensions about "position" do not prevent substantial unity in political feeling, especially on questions of foreign politics; and to appreciate the force of this unity one has to remember that "society" has increased enormously in numbers and wealth within the last thirty years; that to the old landed aristocracy has been added the great commercial class which made fortunes in trade and industry since the passage of the Reform Bill, and whose fondest desire is to be at one in manners and feeling with the older court circle. The sensitiveness of this body of persons—the like of which no other country has to show—to influences from above is very great and is cultivated in every possible way, so that the gentlemanly view of any current topic of the day travels through its ranks like an electric shock; and when its influence is thrown in one direction it forms a very powerful political force. How near it came, in spite of the strong moral and religious and economical forces which the North

had on its side, to driving England into some kind of physical support of the South during the late war, is fresh in everybody's memory, and this in spite of the fact that the Queen, in so far as her bereavement allowed her to show any interest in the matter, on the whole was on the side of the North. In the present case the Queen is very well understood to be intensely anti-Russian, doubtless largely owing to the fact that Prince Albert was much embittered against the Russians during and after the Crimean War, and it probably now seems to her disrespectful to his memory to revise his opinions, even in view of a great change in the facts of the situation. The publication, from his private papers, of his invectives against Russia written over twenty years ago, in his Memoirs by Mr. Theodore Martin, coupled with the recent royal visit to the bellicose Premier, was well understood to indicate that Russia was considered in court circles a desperate and wicked power.

Society was already fully in the mood to adopt this view owing to the gallantry of the Turkish resistance. It had been a little cowed by the undeniable atrocity of the Turkish modes of repressing insurrection; but when Osman Pasha began to hold his own against the whole Russian army it threw aside all restraint, and made no secret of the feeling, which is always current or latent in the clubs and at dinner-tables in great houses, that a great deal must be pardoned to a landholding class which fights well and has to do with dependents who are cowardly and submissive. The piles of women's and children's heads blackening in the sun at Batak were an ugly fact, but, after all, the defenders of Plevna were "fine fellows" and ought to be let alone. This feeling reached at one time the point of burlesque, after the fall of the place. There is not and never was any reason for supposing that Osman Pasha was in any way different from the other Pashas, except in having a better military eye and a more dogged courage. But the philo-Turk imagination, after working on him for a couple of months, made him a sensitive, high-spirited gentleman of the Bayard and Sidney type, so that when the *Daily Telegraph* published a false report of his having committed suicide after his surrender the *Pall Mall Gazette* swallowed it whole, and then, commenting on it, showed how natural it was that so noble a soul should find the degradation of captivity in the hands of such coarse, vulgar people as the Russians intolerable, and death by his own hand a welcome escape. Osman, however, has lived on comfortably, and is now a warm friend at Constantinople of a Turco-Russian alliance, and must smile at hearing that it was supposed by his English friends that he would sooner die than endure the company or civility of a Grand Duke.

The effect of this separation of the Whig element in the Liberal party from the rank and file is, however, likely in the long run to work considerable mischief, the full extent of which we doubt if the Radical leaders fully perceive. Whig leadership, if timid and slow, and in times like these too gentlemanly for common use, has had the great merit of making Liberal politics both thoughtful and cautious, and of giving the party management to men who got it with so much ease that they had time for the study of questions and for careful legislation. There is a strong disposition now to substitute for this management the caucus system, and in fact the substitution has been begun under the auspices of Mr. Chamberlain and other Radical leaders; and this disposition is, of course, greatly stimulated by the division of the party on the Turco-Russian difficulty. "The formation," Mr. Goldwin Smith says, "of a more distinct party of thoroughgoing Liberals would necessarily be accompanied by a corresponding change in the character and bearing of its members. They would find it necessary to stand more decidedly apart from the court and the aristocracy, and to give their followers the guarantee, and to themselves the moral force, of unquestionable independence. They would also find it necessary in selecting their own leaders to look less to oratoric powers and more to powers of action." We fear, however, that in making this change the Radicals will fall into the error under which this country is now groaning, of creating, in lieu of the leadership of aristocrats or persons closely connected with the court and the aristocracy, an elaborate nominating machinery the management of which will wholly absorb the time of working politicians, and leave them none for their proper business. Such a change as this England could not support as the United States supports it. Her political fabric is too complicated, and too delicate, to permit with impunity the absorption of the most active minds of the country in the business of electioneering. The English Liberals enjoy at this moment the great advantage of knowing whom to blame for what they do not like. With the caucus in good working order, the fixing of responsibility would become increasingly difficult, and the separation between "politics" and public business rapid and wide.

ENGLAND DRIFTING INTO WAR.

London, April 5, 1878.

ON the 29th of February, 1876, or more than two years ago, I hazarded a criticism in one of my letters to the *Nation* upon the dispositions and tendencies of the members of our present Cabinet which I venture to repeat. It was in these words:

"Lord Salisbury and Mr. Disraeli are the men of strong will and dangerous determinations in the Ministry. Lord Derby means well, and would be honest if he could. But he is not a far-seeing man; neither is he courageous. He is like Lord Aberdeen in the Crimean Cabinet, and would follow, protesting and vacillating, where the stronger spirits lead. Mr. Gathorne Hardy is of that impetuous temperament that would make him follow also after what he would be told was the 'Imperial instinct.' Mr. Ward Hunt will probably have to leave them soon. The Duke of Richmond, the Earl of Malmesbury, and Lord John Manners are of no account. There remain but four men in the Cabinet who have wills of their own. Lord Cairns would in all probability incline towards the stronger natures, and Sir Stafford Northcote could be persuaded to move reluctantly where they lead. Mr. Cross, the nominee and friend of Lord Derby, is a man of some character and independence, but he has no knowledge of foreign affairs, and has neither political reputation nor official experience to warrant him in asserting his own opinion against that of his colleagues. There is only one man in the Cabinet who could be trusted to take a decided line apart from Mr. Disraeli and Lord Salisbury, and he is the present Colonial Secretary, Lord Carnarvon. He is a man of strict integrity and good judgment, and one who thinks for himself. So long as he remains in the Cabinet, it is unlikely that any fatal mistake will be made. But he may leave his colleagues, as he did in 1867. If he was gone, and the popularity of the Ministry was waning, I should be sorry to think of the difficulties and troubles into which we might be precipitated by the eccentric vanity of Mr. Disraeli and the arrogant wrong-headedness of Lord Salisbury, acting upon a public opinion which they, with the aid of a portion of the press, had stimulated and excited into a 'longing for action' and a desire for an 'extension' of the empire, whether in India or nearer home."

It is curious to look back now upon these two years and two months and to see how far we have advanced in the direction foreshadowed two years ago. Before this letter reaches you "the difficulties and troubles into which this nation has been precipitated" may be close upon us. The changes in the Cabinet suggested in that extract have taken place. Mr. Ward Hunt has left them, though not in the manner anticipated. Lord Malmesbury has been changed for the Duke of Northumberland. But that is merely the change of a dumb dog for a dog that cannot bark. Lord Carnarvon has resigned and has washed his hands of all responsibility, and has now taken up an attitude of hostility to his late colleagues. Lord Derby, "protesting and vacillating," followed the stronger spirits until they felt themselves powerful enough to do without him, and then they intrigued him out of the Cabinet, and now even such ballast as his caution and his dogged dread of war gave them has been thrown overboard. True they have got his brother, Captain Stanley, on board instead. But though clearer-headed than Lord Derby, and a man perhaps of firmer nerve, he is not old enough or strong enough to hold his own in the Cabinet. He has gone to the War Office, where he simply will become an animated registering machine of the Duke of Cambridge, the Commander-in-Chief, and a subservient instrument of the Prime Minister. Two other names are added to the Cabinet, Sir Michael Beach, the Colonial Secretary, and Mr. Smith, the First Lord of the Admiralty. The former is an amiable baronet with a gracious manner, and very little else. The latter is a bookseller of accurate business habits and a turn for details, but of no sort of personal influence or authority to remove a featherweight out of his own department. We are, therefore, handed over, tied hand and foot, to the two men "of strong will and dangerous determination" in the Cabinet—Mr. Disraeli, now Lord Beaconsfield, and Lord Salisbury. And what makes our position the more anxious is this, that whereas two years ago war, or even warlike preparations, was as remote from the contemplation of the people as it had been at any time during the last quarter of a century, to-day the peace

party is as helpless and impotent to restrain the warlike tendencies of the noisier and more thoughtless sections of the nation as it was in the Crimean War. To the great bulk of the Liberal party throughout the country the idea of war on any pretext that has yet been suggested is hateful. But they cannot move. The "Rule Britannia" spirit has taken possession of the body of the nation, and you may as well argue with a fire raging in a house and explain that it will be much better for it that it should not burn the house, as argue with "Rule Britannia." It has all come upon us so gradually and consistently. We have been educated, first, that it would be unpatriotic to divide the nation, then that it would be uncourageous to submit to Russian supremacy in the East; then, that it would be foolish to be duped any longer by Russian diplomacy; now our emotions have been excited by the publication of the Rumanian protest, and by the hectoring ingratitude of Prince Gortchakoff towards a nation which we believe saved the Russian arms from disgrace at Plevna; and, finally, we have been brought to think that the best chance for peace is to show a united front, and to support the Government when now, at the eleventh hour, they have begun to give some indication of a definite policy—however false we may consider that policy to be. And thus step by step, by indirect appeals, partly to their generosity, partly to their reason, the Liberal party have been induced to abandon their opposition to a war, and both they and the country at large have become habituated to the prospect of our being engaged before long in what may prove the most exhausting and destructive struggle of this century.

The collapse of the Liberal resolve commenced last session when the debate on the Gladstone resolutions broke down. It was strengthened early in this session when the right centre broke away from the more exacting left on the Forster amendment on the vote of credit; and now, on the address to the Crown thanking her Majesty for calling out the reserves, even the ghost of an opposition will have vanished. A rump of some forty or fifty irreconcilables, possibly a few more, may divide upon the question whether the emergency to meet which the reserves are to be called out is or is not sufficiently critical to justify the resolution. But the acknowledged leaders of the party, including Mr. Gladstone and Mr. Bright, have acquiesced in the determination that any organized opposition should cease. They do not see that there is any great emergency, but they throw the responsibility of the situation upon the Cabinet. It is a strange commentary upon popular government to contrast the difference in tone and disposition in this country at the time of the St. James's Hall Conference, eighteen months ago, with what it is to-day. I remember being much struck with a remark made by a political friend of mine on the evening of the Conference. We had both attended it in a critical rather than a sympathetic mood, and my friend said, with something of regret, "It seems to me impossible, after such a demonstration as this, that this country can ever go to war again; no war party could ever excite the industrial classes as the body in St. James's Hall were excited. England will never see another war." I thought the statement bold, but under the temporary influence of the moment I acquiesced in his view. Now I recognize with Burns that

> "The best laid schemes o' mice and men
> Gang aft a-gley,"

and that the difficulty of the moment is not to make war, but to keep the peace. The great Mississippi of philanthropic and pacific emotion which poured over the whole country and penetrated every household from one end of England to the other, eighteen months ago, has dried up and shrunk into the dimensions of the runnel of a private irrigation scheme promoted by Sir Wilfred Lawson and one or two others, whose patriotism is inspired as much by the personal vanity of appearing to be peculiar as by any higher virtue. We are not, it is true, actually in the war; and there are men among us who still cling to the hope that Russia will yield, and that some peaceful solution may be found. Our instinct, they say, tells us that we shall not fight, though our reason may speak the other way. Until the first cannon shot has been fired we will not believe that it has come to this. One can only hope that these optimist views may prove true, and that war may yet be averted. But this can only be brought about by concessions being made by Russia which only the most sanguine among us believe that a proud country will make.

As to the result, if war should unhappily break out, I am bound to say that no one whom I have met shows much apprehension. If England were allied with Austria we feel assured that Russia could not maintain her present position. Instead of "Beati possidentes," the refrain of the song would more likely be "Miseri possidentes." Russia has gone too far for her own safety. The facility with which she brought the Turks to terms would be her destruction. The British fleet could destroy her communications by sea. A hostile army marching upon her flank through Croatia and Servia on the one side of the Danube, and through Transylvania on the other, with a flotilla of gunboats operating on the Danube, combined with a hostile Rumania in her rear, would come near to the practical destruction of the army in Bulgaria and Rumelia. The Russian position would be untenable. But, to speak frankly, we do not count upon the Austrian alliance, and even without it we believe that this country could so far exhaust Russia that she would have to come to terms in time. A protracted war carried on with a view to material exhaustion on one side or the other is almost more painful to contemplate than a short, sharp, and decisive struggle like the Austro-Prussian war. But a war of exhaustion is the only war which this country can undertake against Russia, and of the two countries England is much more capable of standing a prolonged strain upon her resources than Russia. We never were so strong materially as we are at present. The capacity for taxation is practically unlimited. There would be much grumbling, much discomfort, some poverty, even some misery. But the boast that we could undertake three or even four campaigns without feeling seriously the effects is not without foundation. Neither should we be at a loss for men if they were wanted. In India alone the supply of men from among the fighting tribes—men who, led by British officers, would make excellent soldiers—is almost inexhaustible. And there is nothing that these tribes would more enjoy than an energetic struggle with a white race at the cost of another white race. At home, too, there are multitudes of men ready and willing to enlist if they are required—many of them who have already had the advantage of some elementary training. As it is, recruiting has gone on actively for some weeks back, and men are pouring into the ranks more actively than at any time since before the outbreak of the Crimean war. There will be no lack of men. But the difficulty that all of us who are not inclined to rush blindly over the precipice cannot solve is this, For what definite object is the war to be undertaken? We want none of the Turkish territory; we have no more call to share in the partition of Turkey than we had to share in the partition of Poland; we do not want to lay in a stock of military glory; we cannot see that our interests are assailed. It may be true that Russian influence will be greatly extended over the east of Europe and over Asia Minor if the treaty of San Stefano be permitted to stand. There are many among us who regret to see the extension of a scientific despotism such as Russia over countries which ought to flourish under free institutions, and we consider that this has been brought about largely by the almost wilful blindness of our present rulers. But it is not our exclusive affair. Austria and Germany have as much to lose as we shall have. Why, then, should we rush into a quixotic enterprise and engage in an exhausting and perhaps horrible war for the protection of interests which, where they are not imaginary, are the interests of other Powers rather than our own?

JAMES'S 'FRENCH POETS AND NOVELISTS.'

PARIS, April 5, 1878.

IT is said that the judgment of foreigners is the judgment of posterity; it is calm, it is disinterested, it is devoid of all the mixture which personal passions and which fashion are too apt to introduce into criticism. Is it possible for Prince Napoleon to judge Victor Hugo? for the Duc de Broglie to judge Renan? for Bishop Dupanloup to judge Alexandre Dumas? We are apt to feel too subjectively about our contemporaries. It is curious to compare the judgments passed on Henri IV. by such men as D'Aubigné, as Madame de Rohan, as the Duc de Bouillon, with the impartial judgment of history. We ought, therefore, to feel much obliged to those among foreigners who take the trouble to give a studied and elaborate opinion of our writers of the day. I have read with the greatest interest and pleasure the volume just published by Henry James, Jr., on 'French Poets and Novelists.' It is, I believe, the first time that an American writer of distinction has made a profound analysis of our modern French literature. This analysis is still incomplete, as Mr. James speaks only of Alfred de Musset, of Théophile Gautier, of Charles Baudelaire, of Honoré de Balzac, of George Sand, of Charles de Bernard and Gustave Flaubert, of Mérimée. There is no study yet of Victor Hugo, of Lamartine, of Alexandre Dumas the father, of Alexandre Dumas the son, but Mr. James has shown himself extremely competent to accomplish a critical *tableau* of all our contemporary literature. He is himself a novelist, a man of great imagination, and therefore it is quite natural that he should devote himself more especially to

the poets and the novelists. Thus far he has not occupied himself with our great critics, nor even with our dramatists; his partiality to novelists has even induced him to give a place to Ivan Turgeneff among our own writers. We have, it is true, quite adopted Turgeneff in Paris, and in a certain way he has adopted us; his works are no sooner written in Russian than they are translated into French. But he is essentially a Slav; his body is in France, his mind is always dwelling on the great plains of Holy Russia; his imagination is wandering in that chaotic world which is now in commotion, and out of which something yet unknown will come forth that will alter the face of Europe.

As a Frenchman I ought at once to thank Mr. James for a certain tone of sympathy which runs through all his volume. He does not scold France in that harsh manner which has sometimes been adopted by foreigners. He has seen us in our misfortunes, fallen from our ancient glory, and he evidently feels that this is not the hour for adopting towards us the insolent tone of a Carlyle. He cannot, however, help showing at times the puritanic instincts of a well-bred inhabitant of New England. His essay on Alfred de Musset is really admirable. It is, in my opinion, the best of the series; but his severity towards Musset can hardly be restrained by his admiration. He finds the muse of Musset a little too warm, but those of Byron and of Thomas Moore were surely not colder. Musset was extremely young when he wrote the 'Contes d'Espagne et d'Italie,' and Mr. James is a little hard on these "Andalusian passions." "From our modest Anglo-Saxon point of view," he says, "these same 'Andalusian passions,' dealing chiefly with ladies tumbling about on disordered couches, and pairs of lovers who take refuge from an exhausted vocabulary in *biting* each other, are an odd sort of thing for an ingenuous lad." Perhaps I could find my answer to this in some lines of Musset:

> "Celui qui ne sait pas durant les nuits brûlantes
> Qui font pâlir d'amour l'étoile de Vénus," etc., etc.;

but it is needless to insist on such a point, as the criticisms of Mr. James are always light and, so to say, volatile when he speaks of our great poet. He does not walk on flowers.

His appreciation of Madame Sand is excellent; he does full justice to her manly activity, to her descriptive powers, to her style, to her extraordinary spontaneity, to the simplicity of her rich nature, to the frankness of her character. I don't know if Mr. James had occasion to see Madame Sand, for of late years she appeared very seldom in Paris, but he paints her exactly as she was—a very unostentatious, unambitious woman. She was all her life very simple, and what the French call *bon enfant;* she never attempted to be witty, and she was always extremely willing to hear *you* talk and not to talk herself. She must have been, even in her youth, very motherly in all her numerous love affairs; she probably never felt that passion of love to the description of which she devoted the great powers of her mind. But she always hated a complete solitude and wanted a friend, something to study, a speaking insect, a thinking butterfly, a thing in which she could study life and its complicated shades. It could almost be said that everything was good for a time in this respect, and nothing could satisfy the curiosity of her mind. Nature had made an error in giving her the wrong sex; she was intensely masculine in features, in humor, in character, in intellect. Mr. James, in noticing the first novels of Madame Sand—those in which she preaches the sanctity of passion and its legitimacy, superior to the legitimacy instituted by law—might have noticed the connection between these literary efforts and the preaching of the phalansterian school. The Phalanstère is now completely forgotten; nobody reads Fourier, Considérant, etc. The realistic school has given us something very different from the childish idyls of the phalansterians; we have ceased to believe in the "attraction passionnelle" and the "travail attrayant"; but at the time when Madame Sand made her début the Phalanstère and its doctrines were in fashion; it had eloquent and amiable apostles, and Madame Sand knew them well. The new school has left the Eden where Madame Sand liked to dwell for the dry authors of the 'Madame Bovary' school, who, without being conscious moralists, show us the dangerous nature of passion. No Calvinistic preacher could be more convinced than M. Zola of the "total depravity" of men. Madame Sand was nursed in other ideas; her glory is one of the rays of the sun which shone upon France after the Revolution of 1830, when all was hope, when France convinced herself that she had become the leader of all nations, the land of liberty, of progress, of felicity—the Canaan of history.

Mr. James justly remarks the change which age produced in Madame Sand. As he says, hers "was a French mind, and as a French mind it had to theorize; but if the positive side of its criticism of most human institutions was precipitate and ill-balanced, the error was in a great measure atoned for in later years. The last half of Madame Sand's career was a period of assent and acceptance." It was so not only socially, but politically; Madame Sand never had strong political passions; she was too sincere. She became Republican after 1848, and is said to have been the editor of an official *Bulletin de la République*, which made some noise at the time. Her enthusiasm for the Republicans was never very warm; she saw the men under the costume of the tribune, she fathomed Ledru-Rollin, she knew Pierre Leroux, she knew Barbès. Under the second Empire we find her almost intimate with Prince Napoleon, the Republican prince; he paid her visits at Nohant, she enjoyed his versatile and brilliant conversation. She did not hail with any joy the advent of the third Republic, and she profoundly mistrusted Gambetta. It is rather singular that, being such an optimist and so inclined to admire, she spoke very severely after the war of the balloon-born young dictator of Tours and Bordeaux.

We are afraid that posterity will show the truth of these melancholy remarks: "All the world can read George Sand once and not find it in the least hard. But it is not easy to return to her. Putting aside a number of fine descriptive pages, the reader will not be likely to resort to any volume that he has once laid down for a particular chapter, a brilliant passage, an entertaining conversation. George Sand invites reperusal less than any mind of equal eminence." It is true. It is very difficult now to read 'Valentine' and 'Lélia,' and even 'Mauprat.' The life is out of it; we don't feel in harmony with the spirit which inspired these works. But such is the fate of many books. Who will not find it hard now to read the 'Nouvelle Héloise'? Few are the novels which have in them the spring of eternal life.

Full justice has been done to Balzac by Mr. James. He remarks that the correspondence of Balzac, just partly published, has, on the whole, been favorable to the reputation of the great French novelist. Balzac can still be read, and probably will be for some time. It is because he really was a precursor, a prophet. He saw around himself the rudiments of the present society. His characters, his types, are intensely modern. It is clear that Mr. James is perfectly at home in the world of Balzac—in that complex company of the 'Comédie Humaine.' He speaks of all its members as if they were personal acquaintances; and, surely, was there ever anything as real as Rastignac, as Cousine Bette, as the Baron Hulot, as Cousin Pons, as all the saints or monsters of Balzac's invention? It is curious how this new world takes possession of the mind, how true it seems. It has the sort of intense reality which is still the privilege of the gods and the demi-gods of the Greek mythology. Is not Jupiter as real, more real, than so many men of flesh and blood who have passed through life as waves run over the surface of water? What is real—the organism or the passion? Does not Minerva sit at my side and comfort and console me, and look at me with those eyes which Homer has described? We are all like those hard warriors of the Scandinavian poems who went to war with invisible Valkyries over their heads. To describe the world of Balzac's invention is as difficult as to make an analysis of the 'Metamorphoses' of Ovid. Mr. James has, at any rate, drawn from his analysis a very just and very delicate delineation of Balzac. He has shown us the character of this extraordinary genius, so terrestrial and human in parts, so sublime in others; an epicurean ending in a saint—"desinit in piscem mulier formosa superne"; a skeptic and a stoic; a slave of the senses and a Jansenist at the same time; a curious marvel and wonder; the modern Rabelais, but a Rabelais fond of purity, a Christian Rabelais, who delights in nothing so much as in the idea of atonement, martyrdom, and endless sacrifice.

Mr. James has done an unmerited honor, I believe, to our modern French literature in praising, as he has done, the author of 'Madame Bovary.' 'Madame Bovary' has been but a shooting star. If M. Flaubert's novel goes down to posterity it will be because it will be illustrated, as it well deserves to be, with indecent engravings. It will be admired as we admire some poems of Dorat. I have never been able to admire this realistic history of the Fall transported to a vulgar Norman town. I find any number of the *Gazette des Tribunaux* quite as suggestive. Baudelaire has also been kindly treated by Mr. James; but Baudelaire wrote in verse, and half a dozen fine lines cover a multitude of sins. Who sins in prose cannot be pardoned. On the whole, Mr. James has shown in his volume such a comprehension of French literature that he ought to be invited to write something more than a succession of essays, something like the Tableau or History of the French Literature of the Nineteenth Century. He would, in doing so, render a service not only to the English and American, but to the French public.

Correspondence.

ADMISSION ON DIPLOMA TO THE UNIVERSITY OF MICHIGAN.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Professor C. K. Adams in his second letter, under the heading "President Eliot on Preliminary Examinations," as published in your issue of April 4, alleges, in the first place, that I have "ventured an opinion" concerning the Michigan method of receiving pupils from approved schools on diploma without adequate knowledge of the method; and, in the second place, he reaffirms the assumption on which his first letter was based—namely, that there is a very marked resemblance between the examinations conducted by the Oxford and Cambridge Schools Examination Board and the visitations of high-schools conducted by the University of Michigan. With your permission I respectfully invite your readers to a re-examination of each of these two points.

1. My information concerning the Michigan method of admission on school diplomas was derived from the official publications of the University—the proper source of authentic information. Since the date of my last letter I have received the Calendar for 1877–78, lately issued, and the President's Report for the year ending June 30, 1877. I ask attention to the following extracts from the latest Calendar and the last two Reports of the President, premising that the statement taken from the Calendar for 1877–78 is the same as that contained in the Calendar for 1876–77, from which I quoted in my last letter. The italics in these extracts are mine.

"A Committee of the Faculty will visit once every year any Public High-School in Michigan, on request of its School Board, and *report its condition* to the Faculty. If the Faculty shall be satisfied from such report that the school is taught by competent instructors, and is furnishing a good preparation for any one or more of our regular courses, then the graduates from such preparatory course or courses will be admitted to the Freshman class of the University *without examination*, and permitted to enter on such undergraduate course or courses as the approved preparatory work contemplated. They must present to the President, within three months after their graduation, the diplomas of their School Board, certifying that they have sustained their examinations in all the studies prescribed for admission to one of the three courses, Classic, Scientific, and Engineering, or Latin and Scientific. They will also be required to appear at once in their classes, otherwise they can be admitted only after examination. The privilege of *admission on diploma* is limited to public schools in Michigan, and their School Boards must make the application annually" (Calendar for 1877–78, p. 37).

"The plan of receiving students from certain approved high-schools on diploma and *without examination by us* has worked so satisfactorily that the Faculty have deemed it prudent and wise to offer to receive students *on diploma* from a class of high-schools whose graduates have heretofore been admitted by us *only on examination*. We have, until this year, declined to approve any school which was not so organized and equipped as to be able to prepare students simultaneously for all our undergraduate courses of study. But we now propose *to approve any good high-school which can show that it is thoroughly preparing students for any one of our classes*" (President's Report for the year ending June 30, 1876, *p.* 6).

"This system of receiving students from approved schools continues to justify itself. We take some students, it is true, who ought not to have been sent to us, and who prove incompetent to go on with the class. But we always take some such on examination. And if in any case *a superintendent has been lax in scrutinizing the attainments of a pupil* whom he has recommended to us, the dropping of the pupil from our class with a kind and frank statement of the facts to the superintendent has always proved a sufficient incentive to him to greater caution the next year. . . . The custom of receiving students *without examination* from approved schools is rapidly extending. Not only has it been adopted in some of the State universities of the West, but some of the *Eastern colleges are receiving students without examination from academies of established reputation*" (President's Report for the year ending June 30, 1877, *p.* 6).

These extracts give a complete, trustworthy, and clear account of the method under consideration. Their language could not be made plainer. I have not mistaken its meaning. Nobody could mistake its meaning. The Faculty satisfy themselves by an annual inspection that a given school is, in general, an efficient preparatory school; and then admit the pupils of that school to the Freshman class, without examination by the Faculty, on the certificate of the authorities of the school that such pupils have passed the *school examinations* for graduation in the subjects required for admission to the University.

In the face of these distinct official statements Professor Adams says: "Everybody in Michigan would understand that the expression 'without examination by us' (italicized in the above extract from President Angell's report for 1876) means without examination *at the University*," thereby implying that these certificated pupils are admitted, not on their diplomas, but on some prior examination by the University. I submit that Professor Adams's construction of President Angell's language is manifestly incorrect, and that the implication in his remark—an implication essential to his argument—is utterly misleading. There is no prior examination of these individual pupils by the Faculty, or a committee thereof, in any proper sense of the term. In this connection I invite the special attention of your readers to the following sentence, which occurs near the end of Professor Adams's second letter: "Of course there is a sense in which Harvard, or any other university, partially surrenders its authority when it allows a committee of its own number to determine whether a boy shall be admitted to its classes." In this sentence Professor Adams again conveys by implication to his readers the erroneous impression that the visiting committees of the University of Michigan determine by examination whether certain *persons* shall be admitted to its classes. The committees do no such thing. They visit a school and (in the language of the Calendar) "report its condition to the Faculty." They advise the Faculty whether or not certain schools had better be permitted to pass their pupils into the University without examination on their school diplomas. The gist of the Michigan method is that the Faculty, by vote, annually approve certain schools, after an annual inspection thereof, and then receive the pupils of those schools on their school diplomas. On the extra-official theory of Professor Adams the responsibility of the school superintendent, on which President Angell dwells, would be imaginary, and the "privilege of admission on diploma," of which the Calendar speaks as limited to public schools in Michigan, would be wholly nugatory.

Throughout his letters Professor Adams uses the word examination in a sense very different from that in which I use it, and from that in which it is used by the English universities—in a sense, indeed, so vague and slippery as to give great opportunity for misconception and unintentional misrepresentation. It is obvious that the general efficiency of a school cannot be ascertained without some enquiry into the attainments of the pupils; so that the researches of the committee which visits a school necessarily include some direct observation of the attainments of the scholars, or some examination of the individual scholars in Professor Adams's sense of the word. The scope and method of this enquiry may be more conveniently explained under my second head.

2. Professor Adams maintains that, at these visits of a committee of the Faculty to Michigan schools, examinations are held which are "similar" to the examinations of the Oxford and Cambridge Schools Examination Board. He says "that there is a resemblance, and that the resemblance is very marked." Now, the official publications of the University leave no doubt in the mind of the reader as to the method of procedure at these visits, but still do not supply the means of comparing that method, point by point, with the method of the English Board. On the 5th of April I therefore addressed to President Angell a series of enquiries concerning these visits of inspection, and yesterday received from him a very clear and circumstantial reply. I am thus indebted largely to his courtesy for the means of setting this subject before your readers in its true light.

To clear the ground, I must be permitted to recall the fact that the English Board holds two kinds of examinations: 1, examinations of schools for the benefit of the schools exclusively, and having no effect to admit individuals to the universities, or to exempt them from subsequent examinations, whether at the universities or elsewhere; 2, examinations of individuals for certificates which give exemption from the entrance examinations at Oxford and Cambridge, from the earliest examinations of the University course, and from the preliminary examinations of certain professional bodies. (See the *Nation*, No. 665, p. 211.) It is only the second sort of examinations with which this discussion has any concern. Professor Adams has not observed this distinction—a fact which proves that he has never read with care the documents which describe the proceedings of the Oxford and Cambridge Board. He quotes as follows from my first letter, the bracketed interjections being his: "The examinations of schools [in England] are held at the schools [so they are in Michigan], upon request of the school desiring to be examined [the same in Michigan], and exclusively for its benefit [the same in Michigan] and at its expense [the same in Michigan]." Now, this ingenious assertion of similarity, satisfactory and conclusive as it seems at first sight, has in reality no bearing whatever upon the subject under discussion. The statement is in fact grossly inaccurate; but, accurate or inaccurate, it is wholly irrelevant. In quoting my sentence Professor Adams stopped at a semicolon; if he had quoted the rest of the sentence,

as follows: "and these examinations have, in themselves, no effect whatever to admit pupils of the examined schools to the universities, either with or without testimonials or diplomas given by the school," the reader would have perceived that Professor Adams was not discussing the real question at issue. The present discussion concerns examinations for admission to colleges or universities, and none other.

We are now ready to compare in detail the English examinations for certificates with the Michigan visits to schools, as regards their methods of procedure, bearing it distinctly in mind the while that the objects in view in the two cases are different—the exclusive object of the English examinations being to test the attainments of persons, while the object of the Michigan visits is to test the efficiency of schools. (*a*) The English examinations cover thirty-four different and carefully-specified subjects (no candidate taking the whole), and on the average two hours are allowed for writing answers to the questions in each subject; the examinations last twelve days, and are held three times in the year; and the schedule of days, subjects, and hours for each year is published nearly a year in advance. The Michigan visits occupy from one to two days at each school, and occur once a year at each inspected school. (*b*) In England the decision of the Board is always upon the individual—has he passed a satisfactory examination in a sufficient number of subjects?—and the Board takes no account whatever of the opinions or certificates of school authorities concerning the individual. In Michigan the decision is upon the school—shall the Faculty accept the certificate of the authorities of the school to the attainments of their pupils in lieu of a personal examination? (*c*) In England a printed report is annually made by the Board showing the name of each person who obtained a certificate, the subjects in which he satisfied the examiners, and the school from which he came. In Michigan no record is made by the visiting committee of the standing of individual scholars; the committee makes an oral report to the Faculty upon the condition of the school inspected, and the Faculty then vote *to accept the school or not*. (*d*) The English examinations are conducted in writing for all the subjects, but for a few subjects oral examinations are superadded. The questions are printed; they are the same for every candidate in any given subject; and they are made public when the examinations are over. The Michigan examinations (so-called) are exclusively oral, and are therefore different for every school and for every individual. They have no uniform, exact, or public standard. I should have no occasion to dispute the proposition, should it be made, that oral examinations may be real and useful examinations. The question before us is whether the English methods are similar to the Michigan methods. Now, there is no more important difference of method in examination than this difference between written and oral examinations, for the consequences of this difference are many and grave. Indeed, two examinations, or methods of examination, which differ in this essential respect, cannot properly be called similar at all, particularly when, as in the case under discussion, the objects of the two examinations are different—the one being the examination of individuals, the other of schools. (*e*) In order to secure uniformity of standard at the English examinations, the results obtained at the different places of examination are compared by the Central Board of Examiners, in order that the certificates given by the Board may have a definite value. In Michigan it may be a different committee that visits each different school. (*f*) In England each candidate pays a fee of £2, and from these fees each examiner is liberally paid for every day of service spent in setting questions, attending the examinations, and looking over the answers of candidates. In Michigan the school pays the hotel and travelling expenses of the visiting committee, while the University pays for the committee's time, and the pupils of the schools pay nothing. These pecuniary details strongly mark the different attitudes of the two examining authorities.

There are other significant points of difference between the English and the Michigan methods; but it must be already obvious to your readers that to call these two methods of procedure similar is to abuse language and to mislead the uninformed.

Professor Adams, in his second letter, controverts my opinion that "the Michigan method is a partial surrender of the authority of the University." I respectfully decline to discuss that subject with him. It is a subject on which opinions may reasonably differ, and nothing but experience can determine which opinion is the sounder. The next twenty years may, or may not, supply that experience. At present Professor Adams and I hold different opinions, and doubtless we both value the privilege of changing our opinions for reasons which seem to us good.

Your obedient servant,

CHARLES W. ELIOT.

CAMBRIDGE, MASS., April 18, 1878.

Notes.

WHAT constitutes Bulgaria? was a question often asked at the outbreak of the war in the East, but never satisfactorily answered. The Bulgaria of the "Preliminary Treaty of Peace," however, is a very definite territory, and its boundaries, as laid down in the treaty, are shown in a map which accompanies the *Geographical Magazine* for April (John Wiley & Sons). It includes not only Salonika but the railroad destined to connect that port with Belgrade; not only Philippopolis but a position between the River Tekke and Tchorlu which commands the railroad between Constantinople and Adrianople. Servia is increased by about a fifth, Montenegro by two-thirds; and the two countries are brought so close together that the Turkish highway from Albania to Bosnia can be shut up without difficulty when the time comes. In the same number of this magazine is a map showing the new French explorations for a ship-canal across the isthmus of Darien, as well as the longer, more difficult, and more costly route surveyed by Commander Selfridge, U.S.N., whose labors, however, were of the greatest service to Lieut. Wyse.——No. 70 of the Proceedings of the American Antiquarian Society is valuable for Dr. Charles Deane's discussion of the convention between Gates and Burgoyne as to the shipment of the latter's troops to England on parole; an agreement not fulfilled by Congress, whose acts, in Dr. Deane's judgment, were "not marked by the highest exhibition of good policy or of good faith."——A page of "Rules aiming at uniformity in writing and printing German with Latin letters, together with a few changes in spelling, already generally adopted," to which is added a page of illustrations, has been issued by Prof. H. C. G. Brandt, of Johns Hopkins University, and C. F. Raddatz, of the Baltimore City College.——The Tauchnitz 'New Dictionary of the English and Latin Languages' (Henry Holt & Co.) has the handiness of the well-known series to which it belongs, and is typographically pleasing to the eye and easy of reference. It is, of course, an abridgment, filling only 400 pages, in two parts.——A correspondent of the Milan *Perseveranza* states that General La Marmora's literary remains consist of a few fragments of studies on the passage of Hannibal into Italy, on the origin of the La Marmora family, on the September Convention, etc.; and the second part of the famous 'Un po' più di luce.' This last comprises his three reports in 1869-70 to the Minister of War in defence of his military and diplomatic conduct during the war of 1866. His correspondence with the great men of Italy and of Europe for thirty years has been preserved in part, as well as the letters addressed to him by the late King, Cavour, Massimo d'Azeglio, Rattazzi, etc., etc.——'Keramos, and Other Poems,' is the title of Mr. Longfellow's new volume just issued by Houghton, Osgood & Co. The same firm have nearly ready Gen. F. W. Palfrey's 'Memoirs of William Francis Bartlett,' of which the author's profits will go to General Bartlett's family.——The New England Publishing Co., Boston, announce 'Outlines for the Study of English Classics,' by A. F. Blaisdell.——J. Norman Lockyer's 'Studies in Spectrum Analysis,' with numerous illustrations, forming vol. xxiii. of "The International Scientific Series," will be published in a few days by D. Appleton & Co., New York.——In our financial paragraph last week the offer of the banks to Secretary Sherman was accidentally misstated. It was 100 gold (not 101½) and accrued interest.

—Racinet's 'Costume Historique' is now one-quarter finished, and its union of reasonable cheapness and thoroughness—a thoroughness to be predicted before opening the cover, for the name Firmin-Didot is printed on it—adapts his work to the need of poor artists as well as rich book-collectors. The fourth instalment (just received by J. W. Bouton) contains twenty-five plates, printed in gold and colors with much neatness and accuracy. The emblazonment is never exaggerated nor merely ornamental, but simply explains the tissues. The author has sought out and set in order many documents, conferring on the reader the hidden riches of precious vellums and tapestries and frescos. Particularly interesting is the copy of a complete view of a Roman bathing establishment, from a mural painting found in the Baths of Titus; and there is a mystically-fascinating page giving fifty-six impressions of Roman abraxas or amulets.

—The last number of the *American Law Review* contains an article on the "Nicholas plan" for Presidential elections, which deserves attention as a carefully thought-out scheme of improvement. Most of the plans suggested by the electoral troubles of 1876 have been marked by a great deal of crudity, and have often evinced a total lack of appreciation of the

most fundamental axioms of political science ; they have all proceeded on the supposition that the Tilden-Hayes dispute of that year had its origin in some defects of the electoral machinery, instead, as the fact was, of having been caused by the anarchical condition of a large part of the country, which by its long continuance had rendered fraud, "intimidation," and violent interference with the result of elections part of the ordinary course of political action. No change in machinery could have prevented the condition of affairs then existing in South Carolina and Louisiana, and it was on the chaotic condition of affairs in those States that the election turned. Seeing this to be the case, Judge Nicholas proposes that, instead of making new and cumbrous rules as to "double returns" and "single returns," the attempt shall be made to convert the electoral college into a real electing body, which shall not clerically register the choice of a national party convention, but shall actually elect a President from the leading men of the country. For this purpose he proposes that each State shall choose a certain number of electors, based on population; that these electors shall be divided into a number of classes in alphabetical order ; that from these classes a smaller number shall be elected; that from this smaller number two shall be drawn by lot, the whole college then proceeding to elect one of these President, whereupon the other becomes Vice-President. The great beauty of this plan is, of course, that it prevents combinations and "slates" in advance, and therefore makes national party nominations in convention useless. As the lot is inevitably to be brought in at a certain stage in the contest, it would be idle to form a combination which would have no certainty of coming to anything. On the other hand, the lot would set a premium on excellence in the electoral body, since each State, feeling only sure of a remote chance of electing even one of its men, would make a point of securing a board of electors any one of whom it would be satisfied to see in the Presidential chair. Of course the chief objection to the scheme (apart from the unwillingness to introduce chance into elective machinery, which, from the mere fact that it never has been introduced though often talked about, must be considered serious), is, as the *Review* points out, its impracticability. We fear the plan will have few attractions for those who must in the first instance put the machinery in motion to bring it before the people—the Conklings, Blaines, Thurmans, and Hendrickses. Some of them might be willing to have it introduced in 1884—but not a day sooner.

—In the absence of anything new from George Eliot's hand, the two short tales included in the cheap edition of her works in course of publication by Messrs. Blackwood and now for the first time reprinted, may be accepted as a novelty. They appear at the end of the volume which contains "Silas Marner," and will doubtless procure for this volume an extended circulation. One of them, "The Lifted Veil," was published in *Blackwood's Magazine* in 1859 ; the other, "Brother Jacob," appeared in the *Cornhill* one year later. They are extremely different, but each is interesting, and the reader who turns to them now will doubtless wonder why the author has not oftener attempted to express herself within the limits of that form of fiction which the French call the *nouvelle*. George Eliot will probably always remain the great novelist who has written fewest short stories. As her genius has unfolded she has departed more and more from the "short story" standard, and become, if not absolutely the longest-winded, at least what may be called the most spacious, of romancers. Of the two tales in question, "Brother Jacob," which is wholly of a humorous cast, is much the better. We say it is of a humorous cast, but it is probable that like everything of George Eliot's it may be credited with something of a philosophic import—offered as it is as an example of the many forms, in the author's own words, "in which the great Nemesis hides herself." The great Nemesis here is the idiot brother of a small criminal, who brings the latter to shame and confusion by an obstinate remembrance of the sweet things he has swallowed. The guilty brother, of whose guilt he has been an accidental witness, has bribed him to secrecy by a present of sugar-plums, and when Mr. David Faux is after the lapse of years flourishing, under an assumed name, upon the indirect fruits of his misdemeanors (a petty robbery) the too appreciative Jacob reappears clamoring for more lozenges, and throwing a fatal light upon Mr. Faux's past. The story is extremely clever, but it is a little injured, perhaps, by an air of effort, by too visible an attempt to say good things, to bestrew the reader's path with epigrams. As the incident is related wholly in the ironic, satiric manner, the temptation to be pregnantly witty was, of course, particularly strong. But the figure of the diminutively mean and sneaking young man upon whom the great Nemesis descends is a real portrait ; it is an admirable picture of unromantic malfeasance. Capital, too, is the fatal Jacob, who, after the manner of idiots, leaves us with a sense of his combined vagueness and obstructiveness. The minor touches are very brilliant, and the story is, generally, excellent reading. "The Lifted Veil," which is more metaphysical, is, we think, less successful. It relates the history of a young man who, growing up in morbid physical conditions, acquires a mysterious intellectual foresight of the things that are to happen to him ; together with that of a wicked lady, his wife, whose guilt is brought to light by the experiment of infusing blood into the heart of a person just dead, who revives for an instant and denounces her. The tale is wofully sombre, and there is a want of connection between the clairvoyance of the hero and the incidents we have just related. Each of these things is very wonderful, but in conjunction they are rather violent. "The Lifted Veil," however, is a fine piece of writing ; and if they were interesting for nothing else, these two tales would be interesting as the *jeux d'esprit* of a mind that is not often—perhaps not often enough—found at play.

—It is said that Albert Wagner, the oldest brother of the poet-composer, did not believe in Richard's musical powers, but admitted that he could write poetry ; and H. Dorn, the well-known Berlin critic, who does not especially admire Wagner's music, some years ago asserted that some of his poetic efforts must be ranked with the best that German literature affords. The poem of the new music-drama, "Parsifal," recently published (Mainz : Schott's Söhne), is not likely to weaken this latter opinion. It abounds in beautiful passages, and there is one, on page 20, where the hero is reproached for shooting a sacred swan, which is fully equal to the celebrated passage in "Lohengrin" beginning with "Athmest du nicht mit mir die süssen Düfte" (vol. ii. p. 135). In general, however, the kind of beauty to be sought for in Wagner's poems differs somewhat from that which we look for in poetry not produced with a view to its being wedded to music. Poetic imagery, similes, and metaphors, which are essential features of a purely literary drama, would be superfluous in a music-drama, where the sister art is expected to supply all the emotional color ; and accordingly we find that the attractiveness of Wagner's *libretti* does not consist in elegant diction, but in the ingenious and artistic dramatic structure of the whole, and in the gradual leading up to a climax, in which he has no superior. "Parsifal" is another proof of his skill in building up a good dramatic plot with material which, as used by Wolfram von Eschenbach and other old German and French poets, seems more of an epic than a dramatic nature. Many of the situations in it are, moreover, so intensely musical in structure that an appreciative reader cannot fail to imagine that he is actually hearing the music, just as he does in reading some of the most emotional scenes in Goethe's "Faust"—a circumstance which strongly corroborates the theory of the music-drama. If in these esoteric characteristics "Parsifal" does not differ from the author's other recent dramas, in some of its external features it bears more resemblance to his earlier works. Alliterative verse is abandoned, rhyme is here and there introduced, antiquated words and phrases are not so numerous as elsewhere, and, most important of all, there is no lack of polyphonic vocal music, there being several choruses of knights, youths, and maidens, apart and united. These cases of "reversion," however, must not be regarded as concessions to the critics. They are evidently due to the fact that, as "Parsifal" is the father of "Lohengrin," the first-named drama will, in a certain sense, serve as an introduction to its predecessor. How far this circumstance is likely to influence the form and character of the music, on which the composer is now engaged, it is difficult to predict. One never knows what Wagner is going to do next, any more than one can say what chord he is going to use next at any given point in one of his compositions. The stage-machinists and scene-painters must have been anxiously wondering what new problem would be given them to solve this time ; and "Parsifal" certainly gives them some hard nuts to crack. The demands made on their inventive skill and on the purse of the manager are such as perhaps no one but Wagner would dare to make. The first performance of the new music-drama, which will doubtless prove one of his most popular works, is promised for the summer of 1880 at Bayreuth. There is evidence that the drama was written, or at least revised, with a view to its performance in the Nibelung Theatre. It will be remembered that one of the innovations introduced in that theatre related to the curtain, which did not rise, as elsewhere, but was parted in the middle, "as by invisible hands." Accordingly, at the end of each of the three acts of "Parsifal," the directions are "The curtain *closes*," instead of "falls," and the German feuilletonists are now sarcastically speculating whether it will be necessary in consequence to give up the word *Aufzug*, and coin another to take its place.

—In No. 154 of the *Nation*, for June 11, 1868, mention was made of

the great interest in the American Revolution felt in Russia, as shown by the despatches of that period in the Russian archives. A new instance of this interest, not only in Russia but in Europe in general, is given in the fac-simile number of the *Sankt Peterburgskiya Viedomosti* for January $\frac{2}{13}$, 1778, just published by that newspaper on completing the one hundred and fiftieth year of its existence. The St. Petersburg *Gazette* or the *Gazette of the Academy*, as its name is frequently translated, is one of the oldest newspapers in Europe, if not the oldest, having been started by the Imperial Academy of Sciences in 1728, to replace the *Gazette* originally published by Peter the Great in 1703, the year of the foundation of St. Petersburg. This newspaper is still owned by the Academy, just as the Moscow *Gazette* is owned by the Moscow University, but it is farmed out at a tolerably high rent to private parties, for whose opinions and utterances the Academy is not responsible. The fac-simile of the first number of the *Gazette*, January $\frac{2}{13}$, 1728, contains nothing of interest to us, and is merely curious, but the one first referred to, of 1778, is almost entirely filled with American news, coming from correspondents as far apart as London, Dublin, Paris, Nantes, Franconia, and The Hague. Letters from Germany say that still another corps of troops from Ansbach-Baireuth is to be sent to America, not as before by the Main and the Rhine, but directly *via* Bremer-Lehe. They state also that

"The nobles, burghers, and peasantry of Hesse, seeing that the Landgrave pays no attention to their representations about the losses they have suffered in consequence of troops being sent to America, resolved, as a final resort, to petition the Emperor and the Diet that his Majesty, as the head and defender of the laws and freedom of the States of the Empire, should take the best measure for stopping the exportation of such a great multitude of people to a distant part of the world. It is said that the Emperor and the King of Prussia, in consequence of this petition, have agreed to prevent in future the export of troops to America."

The greatest interest centred, however, in the news of the surrender of Burgoyne, which had, indeed, arrived before, but was then confirmed from every quarter, and evidently made a profound impression throughout Europe—an impression which was increased by the news of the loss of eleven British ships in an attack on the obstructions in the river Delaware, below Philadelphia, and rumors that "the rebel General Putnam" together with General Gates were pursuing the British troops on the Hudson, and threatening them with a fate like Burgoyne's. The results of all this were reports that the English were to "send special plenipotentiaries to treat with the Congress of the Colonies. In the event of these negotiations being unsuccessful, politicians in England were of opinion that General Howe would be forced to evacuate Philadelphia, and that strictly defensive positions would be taken up in Quebec, Halifax, New York, and Florida (*sic*), with 24,000 troops." In a letter from Dublin, it was stated that

"On the $\frac{1}{12}$ December Mr. Edward Nevenham said in the Lower House of Parliament: Although all that I reported to the Government in 1775 has been denied, I now consider it my duty to declare to the members that I have received trustworthy information that the American Envoys in Paris received on the fourth or fifth of November full powers from the Congress to conclude a treaty with France, by which that country, on furnishing a certain number of ships and troops, shall have the right for thirty years of exclusive trade with America."

What this trade was worth we may see from a letter in the same number from Nantes of November 25 and December 6:

"Although the English capture many American ships, which has made the rates of insurance rise to forty-three and forty-four per cent., yet we still send many vessels to America. Besides munitions of war and cloth for uniforms, we send them a great deal of salt, for every pound of which we receive a pound of tobacco, which we sell to the farmers of the revenue at forty kopeks. You can judge from this how profitable this trade is for us."

From this single number one is led to ask whether the history of the American Revolution has been sufficiently studied for European contemporary sources.

THE CRUISE OF THE *CHALLENGER*.*

ALTHOUGH water covers three-quarters of the earth's surface, and its oceans have been traversed from time immemorial in all directions and at all seasons of the year, our knowledge of the physical geography of the sea has been of slow growth. The early navigators, with few exceptions, left but scanty records of such observations as they made. The accounts of their discoveries bequeathed to us by the Norsemen, who evidently knew the northern hemisphere better than their more civilized southern neighbors, are often little more than sagas, wild traditions of the deeds of their ancestors. The Spanish and Portuguese explorers in their search after conquest and power did, indeed, by their rude charts lay the foundation of the later and more accurate maps of the Atlantic, Pacific, and Indian Oceans. But the association of systematic scientific research with distant voyages or with coast surveys belongs to our own times. The last part of the past century was, however, marked by great government exploring expeditions, while during the early decades of this century nearly every country possessing a merchant navy fitted out important circumnavigating voyages. From the few desultory observations made independently by the leaders of these explorations we have accumulated little by little the facts now in our possession concerning the physical geography of the sea.

In the meanwhile not only had the broad outlines of terrestrial physical geography been traced, but our knowledge of terrestrial physics comprised the study of the atmosphere at different heights, theories of winds, the distribution of magnetism, the oscillations of the barometer, the distribution of moisture, the thermometric conditions above and below the surface of the earth, and the range of animal and vegetable life. In fact, all the principal physical phenomena surrounding us and connected with the surface of the earth had been more or less investigated. Our knowledge of the ocean, on the contrary, included little beyond the position and direction of the more prominent oceanic currents. We knew nothing of the depths of the sea or of its temperature, except what could be readily observed along its shores or what a few more adventurous sailors had discovered on fishing and whaling voyages. We remained ignorant even of the causes determining those great currents with which navigators had so long been practically familiar. It is true that little can be done towards the investigation of the physical and biological conditions of the sea by individual enterprise alone. Before 1860 both private and associated means had from time to time been placed at the disposal of naturalists for such researches, but the results obtained seemed to promise no very novel or fruitful field for work. It was only in connection with great national undertakings, and after the first soundings were taken between Ireland and Newfoundland to determine the best path for an Atlantic cable, that the hidden possibilities of deep-sea investigations dawned upon naturalists and physicists.

The difficulties were great. Without experience to guide us, without the mechanical tools needed for the work, we were forced to begin at the A, B, C. Instruments combining strength with the most sensitive tests had to be devised for determining depths, for measuring temperatures accurately, for collecting the deep-sea fauna and flora. The share taken by Americans in the invention as well as in the modifying and perfecting of instruments for this new work, especially those used in determining and recording depths and temperatures, is very creditable to the United States. We owe, for instance, to the ingenuity of Passed-Midshipman Brooke, U.S.N., the means by which we now detect, even at great depths, the instant when the heavily-weighted sounding-rope touches bottom, releasing its load at the same moment. This method was gradually improved and modified, till Sir William Thomson proposed his apparatus for sounding with piano-forte wire, an instrument of such delicacy that after the first experiments he himself despaired of its practical efficiency. Here again the U. S. Navy stepped in, and Captain Belknap, of the *Tuscarora*, succeeded in working it with a certainty of result hardly anticipated even by the inventor.* Indeed, with the modifications this instrument has received at the hands of the U. S. naval officers, its rapidity of action and its accuracy are such that with a slender wire and a fifty-pound shot a sounding can be taken and a specimen of the bottom can be brought up from a depth of 2,000 fathoms, or more than two statute miles, in about twenty-five minutes.

Norwegian and Swedish naturalists living among the fiords and inlets of their picturesque coast became interested in these problems of the deep sea. To them, and especially to Professors Lovén of Stockholm, and Sars of Christiania, we owe the more recent generalizations regarding animal life at great depths, and the probable conditions of existence there. Their lead has been followed, and since 1860 not only Swedes and Norwegians but English and Americans have vied with each other in sending out expeditions to explore the depth of the sea either across the oceans or along their own coasts. Among the latter, the investigations undertaken by the U. S. Coast Survey, begun under the superintendence of the late Professor Bache, and continued by his successors, Prof. Peirce and Captain Patterson, combining the examination of our coasts with

* 'The Cruise of the *Challenger*. "The Atlantic." By Sir Wyville Thomson.' Published by permission of the Lords Commissioners of the Admiralty. Vols. I., II.' London: Macmillan & Co.; New York: Harper & Bros. 1878.

* It seems strange that the *Challenger* did not adopt this admirable apparatus after its success in the hands of officers of the U. S. Navy.

the physical geography of the Gulf Stream, are of prominent importance. It is perhaps the most complete and systematic exploration as yet made of any coast with reference to its hydrography and physical geography. Of the distant exploring voyages sent out during the last twenty years none can compare, however, in valuable results with the great *Challenger* expedition which returned about two years ago from a cruise of three years and a half, the history of which is partly given in the two volumes before us. The *Challenger* was a large steam corvette of twenty-three hundred tons, equipped with everything which the wise forethought of a committee of the Royal Society, aided by Sir Wyville Thomson, Chief of the Civilian Staff, could suggest. The success of the voyage has demonstrated the wisdom of the Royal Society and of the Admiralty in placing Captain Nares in command of the *Challenger*. The expedition itself will long be remembered as a landmark in the history of deep-sea explorations. During the cruise of the *Challenger* no less than three hundred and sixty stations were established. At most of these both the exact depth and the character of the bottom were determined, a fair sample of the fauna was brought up by the trawl or dredge, the temperature of the bottom and of intermediate depths was ascertained, and samples of the water were procured, while the tow-nets in the meantime gathered the surface life in the vicinity. The Atlantic and the Pacific were explored both north and south of the Equator, and the *Challenger* even forced her way far into the Antarctic regions till, fairly driven back by tempests and ice, she made her way to Australia and explored the more genial regions of the East India Islands.

The typography and illustrations of "The Atlantic" are admirable. The volumes are filled with exquisite woodcuts, illustrating the wonderful forms brought up by the dredge and trawl from all depths (in the Atlantic from 3,875 fathoms, or over four statute miles), and varying from the diminutive globigerina to the magnificent silicious sponges, corals, starfishes, sea-urchins, crustaceans, and fishes, which seem to be the most numerous and striking inhabitants of the deeper ocean. Here and there in these volumes the naturalist is forgotten, and we have a vivid description of scenery illustrated by charming sketches. Passing on to the discussion of the serial lines of temperatures, the author shows how the Atlantic and Pacific Gulfs, as he calls them (looking, indeed, upon these oceans as mere branches of the great southern seas), are fed by the slow welling northward of the intensely cold and immensely deep Antarctic waters. With these phenomena he believes the whole system of ocean circulation to be connected, assigning as their primary cause the excess of precipitation upon the southern or water hemisphere over the evaporation in the northern or land hemisphere. This gives us a ready explanation of the nearly uniform temperature pervading the sea bottom below a certain depth in all oceans. The presence of this huge mass of cold water and its influence upon marine life establish the theory first proposed by Dana, that the amount of cold is the true factor regulating the distribution of animals in the sea. It explains also the cropping out of antarctic forms, without reference to latitude, wherever the temperature of the water is low, and their reappearance in deep waters over areas where the temperature of the shallower water along the adjacent shores may be very warm.

Another most interesting line of investigation, previously pointed out by others but systematically pursued by the *Challenger*, concerns the formation of deep-sea deposits out of reach of all detritus brought down by rivers. Especially striking is the formation of red clay in depths below 2,200 fathoms from the gradual decomposition of surface organic forms, while in lesser depths a kind of chalk is formed, consisting chiefly of the tests of globigerinæ. The importance of the latter in building up oceanic deposits was first discovered early in 1853 by Lieutenants Craven and Moffat, of the United States Navy, while investigating some question relating to the Gulf Stream.

These results, taken as a whole, lead to one great generalization. The facts gathered from deep-sea soundings make it probable that continents as we know them now were laid out in their present grand outlines at the time of the Jurassic period, and have remained, with the exception of such shore deposits as we call Cretaceous and Tertiary, practically unchanged ever since. If this be true, there have been since the Cretaceous or the end of the Jurassic period abysses of the sea far below the reach of any effect from the subsidence or elevation of the land—uninfluenced, therefore, by surface cataclysms or changes—where, owing to the continued uniformity of the conditions, the inhabitants must be the lineal descendants of beings belonging to former geological periods. In these abyssal depths brilliant huge-eyed crustacea exist side by side with blind forms like Willemoesia and other crustacea having more or less developed visual organs. Here also are found blind fishes and fishes having very small eyes, together with fishes endowed with sight as those of the ordinary types are. The questions thus opened as to the effect of physical conditions acting upon animal life during periods of time for which the present epoch gives us no measure are certainly of the greatest importance from a biological point of view. This more uniform fauna of the abyssal depths, which probably originated in the southern seas and is independent of geographical distribution, does not extend into the 500-fathom region, where we come upon what naturalists call faunal districts or areas both geographically and zoölogically distinct from each other.

While the *Challenger* found animals living in the greatest depths, we must not be understood to say that they exist everywhere in equally large numbers. On the contrary, the greatest depths, though not fatal to life, are less favorable to its maintenance than more moderate depths, especially where not too far from land. Marine plants are far more limited in their bathymetrical distribution than animals. They are not found below two hundred fathoms, so that we have an immense marine fauna entirely disassociated from plant life and independent of those mutual relations by which the balance of animal and vegetable life is maintained on land. These deep-sea forms must derive either by power of absorption from the water itself or from their animal food the materials necessary for their growth and life.

Much as we owe to the *Challenger* it leaves many of the great problems of the physics and chemistry of the deep sea yet unsolved. His concluding chapters show that Sir Wyville Thomson himself considers his physical and chemical speculations only as approximations awaiting the confirmation of time and further investigation.

LECKY'S HISTORY OF ENGLAND IN THE EIGHTEENTH CENTURY.*

II.

"THE Methodist movement," writes Mr. Lecky, "was a purely religious one. All explanations which ascribe it to the ambition of its leaders, or to merely intellectual causes, are at variance with the facts of the case." These sentences show that Mr. Lecky appreciates the true character of Methodism, and raise the expectation that he will prove a satisfactory critic of a most remarkable religious movement. Nor is this expectation altogether disappointed. No part of Mr. Lecky's work will cause more interest than his chapters on Methodism. They are distinguished by the good sense, the right feeling, and, above all, by the pre-eminent fairness which are the great merits of his book. No author has ever summed up with more equity the good and the bad results of Wesleyanism. He shows what were the circumstances under which the religious revival took place; he points to its wide and salutary influence; he describes the virtues without concealing the defects of Wesley and Whitefield, and does even more than justice to the administrative genius of the one and the oratorical genius of the other. But when ample acknowledgment has been made of Mr. Lecky's merits both as a critic and as an historian of Methodism, it is impossible not also to acknowledge that Mr. Lecky's treatment of a religious phenomenon leaves on the mind a sense of failure. The cause of this feeling lies, not in any fault peculiar to Mr. Lecky, but in defects inherent in the prevailing mode of treating religious questions. The attempt to explain the cause of our dissatisfaction is not intended to detract from the merits of an author entitled in many respects to the highest praise, but is intended to direct attention to characteristic defects of the current criticism and sentiment of the time.

The fundamental ground of dissatisfaction with Mr. Lecky's narrative is that he deals with every feature of Methodism except its most essential feature, namely, the truth of the doctrine which Wesley taught and the truth of the view of life which it was his object to impress upon his disciples. Mr. Lecky, indeed, has too much critical acumen not to perceive that to Wesley his religious convictions were everything, and he describes, in a passage too long to quote, and not perhaps very suitable for quotation in a newspaper, the graphic picture given by the founder of Methodism of his conversion. But Mr. Lecky does not seem to feel, what both Wesley and Wesley's serious opponents would at once have acknowledged, that on the truth or error of Wesley's views as to conversion and a whole number of kindred topics must depend any fair estimate of his career. On no subject except religious subjects do competent critics judge a leader of thought without reference to the intrinsic truth or error of the doctrines which he promulgated. It would be ridiculous to criticise Bacon with-

* 'A History of England in the Eighteenth Century. By William Edward Hartpole Lecky.' 2 vols. London: Longmans, Green & Co.; New York: D. Appleton & Co. 1878.

out considering the truth of his general views of science. It would be absurd to write an essay on Burke and leave out of consideration the value of his political views. It would be futile to narrate the career of De Tocqueville and leave it an open question whether his estimate of democracy embodied important truths or only propagated ingenious fallacies. It is, and in any age but this would have been deemed, equally futile to treat of the growth of Methodism without uttering any opinion on the view of life of which Methodism is or was the representative; for no phrases can hide the fact that men like Wesley and Whitefield looked at human existence from a point of view utterly different from that occupied by most of the men whom we all in our ordinary state of sentiment respect and admire.

Long before the 24th of May, 1738, Wesley had led a life of what to most persons would seem the practice of every virtue, yet till that day he was, in his own belief, to quote Mr. Lecky's words, "in a state of damnation." Grant that in judging himself Wesley was biassed by the excessive exactingness of a morbid conscience. To grant this is to concede a good deal more than the facts warrant; but even this concession does not get rid of the difference, not in degree but in kind, between Wesley's idea of the requirements of religion and the conceptions of a virtuous life formed not only by the ordinary teachers of the eighteenth century but also by ninety-nine out of every hundred Englishmen or Americans of the present day. Let it be carefully noted that the difference between an unconverted and a converted man (to use religious phraseology) must be considered in kind something quite different from the difference recognized by all men between wicked and virtuous persons. The end of the eighteenth-century preachers was, as Mr. Lecky points out, to create "good and happy men." Many of these preachers lived, we need not doubt, up to their ideal. The quarrel between them and Wesley was that their ideal was in his judgment a wrong ideal. The somewhat heathen virtues of Chatham, the manly integrity of such a man, for example, as Sir Walter Scott, would, as far as one can judge, have seemed in the eyes of Wesley or of Whitefield not more akin to what may be termed the true life of the soul than the brutality of Walpole or the coarseness of Swift. We do not, of course, mean for a moment to assert that any men of keen moral sensibility, such as were the founders of Methodism, would not, in fact, have felt the difference between virtues which in theory they might have held hardly to merit that name, and vices which good men of all ages have reprobated, but we do assert that, on Mr. Lecky's own showing, the Methodists propounded doctrines which made the difference between the virtues of Chatham and the vices say of George II. far less serious than the difference between what may be termed the virtues of secular life and the condition of converted sinners.

Now, there are two modes in which the doctrines of Wesleyanism and of other religious teachers may be fairly approached by an historian. He may, if such is his belief, take his stand on the truth of the religious teaching. A man who entirely or in the main shares Wesley's views may rightly represent Methodism as the reformation of the eighteenth century. A writer who honestly takes this view may justly give to Wesley all the admiration which is due to the greatest of reformers. He will feel that the incidental benefits of Methodism in ameliorating the condition of the poor or softening the manners of the rich are absolutely nothing in comparison with its revelation of truth and with its success in saving souls. He must, however, in fairness bear in mind that the voice of Wesley and of Whitefield denounces the spirit of the nineteenth no less than the spirit of the eighteenth century. An historian may, on the other hand, announce (if such be his conviction) that the doctrines of Methodism were wholly or partially erroneous. Entertaining such a view, he will not be blinded by the virtues of Wesley and his disciples to the fact that a view of life in the main erroneous must be a source of evil to those who preach and to those who receive it. What it seems to us a serious writer ought not to do is to fall in with the current feeling of the present generation, who admire Wesley without forming a distinct opinion as to the truth or error of his doctrine, and calmly condemn the worldliness of the eighteenth century, when in fact moulding their lives on essentially the same views as those which Wesley's opponents upheld and Wesley denounced. A critic who assumes such an attitude falls under a twofold disability which fundamentally vitiates the effect of his historical judgment.

He is unable, in the first place, fairly to estimate the position of Wesley's opponents. Society has improved in various particulars since the day when Wesley denounced the religious apathy of his contemporaries; but it is far from the case that every change since his time has been an improvement. We have thrown off some of the vices and we have lost some of the virtues of our fathers, but in the main the ordinary educated world of to-day is not at bottom very different from respectable society in the last generation. If Wesley saw in the respectability of his own age a condition of religious death, are we to suppose that he would think the social life of London or New York to be an existence fit for Christians? In some respects the tone of our age would in his judgment be decidedly worse than that of his own century. If any candid person will consider what Wesley or Whitefield would think of the religious or irreligious articles which fill respectable English magazines, he may form an opinion whether the apostles of Methodism would look with anything but reprobation on the sentiment prevalent in this century. Nor would they find any fervor of religious feeling to compensate for dogmatic error. A fashion has sprung up of talking of the religious coldness of the eighteenth century. Such language was perhaps true when used in comparing the state of public feeling before the Wesleyan movement with the condition of religious sentiment which that movement produced in certain classes; but the fervor generated by the efforts of the Methodists and the Evangelicals who followed them has now in the main died out. To talk of this age as, in England at least, an era of religious enthusiasm, is simply to misapply language. The men of the eighteenth and the men of the nineteenth century are, so to speak, in one boat. If Wesley's denunciations touched his contemporaries, they condemn us also. If the men of to-day can show that they rightly decline to adhere to Wesley's view of life, the same defence will in substance avail the preachers whose rational piety or cold morality opposed the religious enthusiasm of the early Wesleyans. To imply that what called forth the efforts of Whitefield was any exceptional wickedness or corruption among his contemporaries involves a misapprehension both of the character of our forefathers and of the true nature of Wesleyans.

A critic who takes up the attitude of benevolent neutrality can, in the second place, no more pass a fair judgment on the results of Methodism than he can form a just opinion of its opponents. A mere enumeration of the reforms which a religious movement has produced, or of the beneficial measures, such as Catholic emancipation, which it has delayed, hardly touches either its essential merits or its essential evils. To announce the truth, either as regards religion or as regards any other matter in which mankind are interested, is an achievement so admirable in itself that one need not, in judging of its worth, be greatly concerned about its immediate or apparent results. But, on the other hand, a view of religion and of the objects of human life which is untrue is certain to produce fundamental and essential evils out of all proportion to its immediate and palpable results. That the teaching of Wesley must have produced a huge amount of spiritual suffering is clearly apparent; that if his doctrines were in the main not true, this fearful suffering was a needless addition to human misery must also be conceded; but to any one who is not prepared to accept the Wesleyan view of life it must be apparent that Methodism produced an evil which, if more subtle, is of more permanent importance than even the pain caused to sensitive souls racked by the terrors roused by Wesleyan sermons. This evil is the setting up in men's minds of inconsistent ideals. The disciples who fully embraced Methodism gained, at least, all that can be gained by the consistency given to life through enthusiastic belief in a definite creed. The persons, on the other hand, who entirely resisted the influence of the Wesleyan movement may have followed out with consistency their own ideal of life; but in effect great portions of English society half accepted doctrines to which Wesley and his disciples had given life, and half adhered, in practice at least, to what may be termed the secular view of existence. Their whole life became weakened by a half-and-half devotion to each of two fundamentally inconsistent ideals. That this double-mindedness has been and still is the bane of English society seems to us past a doubt. Other causes certainly have contributed to the same result, but the religious revival, of which Wesleyanism was a part, has been in the main responsible for a condition of sentiment opposed at once to the secular enthusiasm which governed the life of such a man as Turgot, and to the religious enthusiasm which ruled the life of Whitefield. If the Wesleyan teachers held to a true view of human nature and human duty, then they are in no way responsible for the fact that their teaching has not commanded the entire acceptance of a perverse generation. If, on the other hand, they upheld an erroneous view of the objects of human life, then, whatever the virtues of the Wesleyan preachers, they have entailed on succeeding generations all the evils resulting from the half-hearted devotion which is all that false ideals can in the long run obtain. A critic who cannot assert whether the teaching of these preachers was

true or false cannot really pronounce on the results of their teaching. You cannot criticise a "purely religious movement" and omit all reference to the truth or falsehood or error of the doctrines held by the teachers who guided the movement.

Current Discussion: A Collection from the Chief English Essays on Questions of the Time. Edited by Edward L. Burlingame. Vol. I. International Politics. (New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons. 1878.)—The plan of this publication is a thoroughly good one, and we have no doubt will meet with success. As appears from the preface, in which Mr. Burlingame gives some editorial account of the undertaking, the intention of the publishers is to reproduce in a permanent form the best of the contemporary magazine articles—those bearing on important political events, or such as otherwise may be of some permanent importance as contributions of weight to current discussion. The present volume is devoted to politics, and in it we have a number of articles by well-known writers on the Eastern question. This is to be followed by another instalment of a religious character, embracing a number of essays on matters of belief. Mr. Burlingame, in his preface, points out, what is perhaps true, that the magazines which have succeeded to the place of the old quarterlies occupy a position as important now as the *Edinburgh* once did; that the *Nineteenth Century*, the *Contemporary*, and the *Fortnightly* number among their contributors the best and weightiest writers of the day. At no time, he thinks, has there been so much and so weighty magazine-writing in England as at present. There is one change, however, which makes a very marked difference between the articles of the present day and their forerunners in the pages of the quarterlies; and that is the fact that the modern practice of publishing the author's name confuses our appreciation of the merits of his performance with our curiosity as to his identity. An article by Gladstone, for instance, has an adventitious importance which gives it an audience at once, no matter whether he writes on some political subject on which he is an authority, or on the 'Iliad,' as to which his critical opinions are of no very great value. In the days of the early successes of the *Edinburgh* the anonymous veil which cloaked the author left his production to stand on its own merits, and we think did so in the interest of good taste and letters. There is a certain indecency in the constant exposure of themselves which well-known public characters are constantly induced, by the solicitation of publishers, to make in the periodical press, and we cannot help thinking that there is a certain analogy between the modern English magazine system and our own lecture system; in other words, that its object in great part is not so much to inform the reader's mind as it is to provide for him a cheap view of living celebrities. This fact cannot but affect the quality of the productions; for the writer who knows that his name will draw a crowd necessarily takes far less pains with his work than one who feels that what he writes must tell by its own weight. We cannot quite agree with Mr. Burlingame in thinking that the present is the halcyon time of English periodical writing. We do not find in the first volume of 'Current Discussion' anything which need make the shades of Macaulay and his colleagues envious, and we cannot help believing that the articles both of Mr. Forbes (the author of 'Russians, Turks, and Bulgarians') and Mr. Freeman (the author of 'The Relation of the English People to the Russo-Turkish War') would have greater permanent value if they had no names appended to them. All this, however, does not detract from the value of the series as a record of current discussion; Mr. Burlingame's selections seem to have been made with good sense, and amply justify his choice as editor.

The Origin of Nations. In two parts: On Early Civilizations; On Ethnic Affinities, etc. By George Rawlinson, M.A. (New York: Scribner, Welford & Co. 12mo, pp. 272.)—This volume, like Professor Rawlinson's 'Historical Illustrations of the Old Testament,' is professedly apologetic. Its avowed purpose is to defend the inspiration of the Scriptures against attacks made on the credibility of the chronology of Genesis, or on the absolute correctness of its ethnology. Canon Rawlinson thinks it "disparaging to the Divine Word" to suppose that there can be an error of any sort, even historical, in the Bible, and it has been to him an "unpleasant duty" to read books which take any historical position inconsistent with "its plain and literal sense." He appears to conceive it to be a pious duty to defend the exact and literal truth of every historical statement of Scripture with which he is concerned. His concern in this volume is to show that no civilization goes back to a period of more than twenty-five hundred years before Christ, and that the ethnology of the tenth chapter of Genesis is correct in every particular.

The fault of the book lies where it might be expected—in the special pleading to which such an avowed object is a temptation. Perhaps the most important chapter is that devoted to a discussion of the age of the Egyptian monarchy, but the discussion is inadequate enough. It consists simply in a balancing of authorities, without reference to their date. Mariette and Lenormant are quoted as putting the beginning of the Egyptian history under Menes at 5000 B.C., while against them are quoted Lepsius (1849), Reginald S. Poole (1860), and Sir Gardiner Wilkinson (1862), as believing that these were contemporaneous dynasties given by Berosus as consecutive. This may be so; but the Canon fails to state that Lepsius, Poole, and Wilkinson had to depend on Manetho, and that Mariette had the advantage of several monuments discovered since Wilkinson's writing which completely confirm Manetho, and represent the dynasties not as contemporaneous, but entirely consecutive. It would have been only fair to mention this fact, of which Canon Rawlinson was aware, having Lenormant's 'Manual' under his eye, and quoting from it all he seems to know of Mariette. What Lepsius believed in 1849 or Bunsen in 1857 or Poole in 1860 is of little account since the discovery of Thothmes's "Hall of Ancestors" and of the two "Tablets of Abydos." It was Canon Rawlinson's business, if he will depend upon authorities, to tell us what Birch and Lepsius and Brugsch believe now on the subject. From Egypt our author turns to a dozen other nations, showing—and his task is easy—that there is in no single case any trustworthy evidence of an antiquity which would overlap Ussher's date for the Flood. Our author's discussion of the ethnology of Genesis is again far from satisfactory. As a consideration showing that Tiras may be identified with Thrace (which is probable enough), notwithstanding the difference in the third consonant, he mentions that "the *k* of *Θαρήκη*, *Θαρῆξ* passes into *ss* in the feminine form, *Θαρῆσσα* or *Θαρᾶσσα*," a fact which has no bearing, as the change is purely euphonic. The Philistines are represented as Hamitic in their language, which is contrary to all evidence and authority. Professor Rawlinson gives a list of four certain and six possibly Philistine proper names, all of which, he says, seem to have Egyptian affinities. But he omits, strangely enough, all five of the names of their chief cities, three of which his favorite authority, R. S. Poole, recognizes as Heb rew, the name of their god Dagon, of pure Hebrew root, and all the Philistine names which reach us through the Assyrian monuments, such as Mitinti, Rukupti, Hanun, Zidqa, and Zilli-bel, and which are pure Hebrew. Such a treatment of this familiar subject is very reprehensible. Even worse is his attempt to make it out that the Canaanites spoke a Hamitic and not a Semitic language. The contrary is notoriously the fact. On the matter of the language of Nimrod and his cities our author implicitly follows his brother, Sir Henry's, opinions of 1858, that the vocabulary of the Accadian is Cushite. But we doubt if even he would now hold to that opinion. Indeed, it is universally agreed among competent scholars that the early Babylonians spoke a Turanian language. To identify the Egyptian sun god Ra with the supreme god of the Babylonians is the height of absurdity, since we now know that there was no such Babylonian god, and that the supposed god Ra is only the termination of the Accadian word for god, *dingira*.

We are surprised at such a hasty and ill-considered treatment of this subject from an Oxford professor of ancient history and a Canon of Canterbury.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Complete Preacher, Vol. II. ..... (Religious Newspaper Agency)
De Vinne (T. L.), The Invention of Printing, 2d ed. ..... (Francis Hart & Co.)
Figanière (Viscount de), Elva: a Poem ..... (Trübner & Co.)
Storr (E.), L'Allegro, Il Penseroso, and Lycidas ..... (Rivingtons)

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Premiums received on Marine Risks from 1st January, 1877, to 31st December, 1877	$4,710,665 83
Premiums on Policies not marked off 1st January, 1877	2,040,362 61
Total amount of Marine Premiums	$6,751,028 44
No Policies have been issued upon Life Risks, nor upon Fire disconnected with Marine Risks.	
Premiums marked off from 1st January, 1877, to 31st December, 1877	$4,902,331 08
Losses paid during the same period	$2,565,890 27
Returns of Premiums and Expenses	$947,923 86
The Company has the following Assets, viz.:	
United States and State of New York Stock, City, Bank, and other Stocks	$10,565,958 00
Loans, secured by Stocks and otherwise	1,163,200 00
Real Estate and Claims due the Company, estimated at	617,436 01
Premium Notes and Bills receivable	1,764,393 63
Cash in Bank	255,364 02
Total Amount of Assets	$14,366,351 66

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, MAY 2, 1878.

The Week.

THE bill passed in the House by a large majority, forbidding the Secretary of the Treasury to cancel or "retire" any greenbacks hereafter, repeals the section of the Resumption Act which directs greenbacks to be withdrawn to the amount of 80 per cent. of all fresh national-bank bills issued, until the amount of Government notes afloat is reduced to $300,000,000. The largeness of the vote shows the folly of supposing that the inflationists have been cowed or appeased by anything that has happened, and should (but will not) prove to Secretary Sherman the folly of trying to be a 'cute politician and skilful financier at the same time. Every admission he makes in the hope of conciliating the paper-men really appears to act as a suggestion to them for further demands and excesses. We trust, however, there is sufficient public spirit left among the friends of a sound currency to bring both him and them before the courts on the question of the meaning of "redemption," and on the question whether a fresh issue of a greenback paid in gold is not an issue of paper legal tender in time of peace, and therefore unconstitutional. Nothing could be more unfortunate than implicit reliance on his promises and preparations. Even after he begins to "resume," his course will probably be determined by recondite political considerations, and it is entirely possible that he may yet end as an advocate of permanent paper money with *occasional* resumption only.

The Syndicate took another $5,000,000 of United States bonds during the week, making $15,000,000 absolutely sold by the Treasury out of the $50,000,000 bargained for on the 11th of April. Although some of the 4½ per cents have been sent to London, the principal sales are in this country, at 102 gold and accrued interest, where also the sales of the 4 per cents are increasing. The 4½ per cents are sold for resumption purposes and the 4 per cents for refunding, and Secretary Sherman has already issued a call for the redemption of $5,000,000 of the 5-20 6 per cents, using the proceeds of the sales of 4 per cents. Gold fell during the week from 100⅝ to 100⅜, and there was a gold export of $1,350,000, chiefly for the payment of silver imported. There has been little done in the way of importing United States bonds from London, where prices have been kept nearly as high as in this market. It was a dull week at the Stock Exchange and in general trade. The prospective repeal of the Bankrupt Law has greatly increased the number of mercantile failures. Silver in London ruled at 53⅞*d.* to 54*d.* per ounce. At the close of the week the silver dollar had a bullion value of $0.9126 gold. The gold value of the United States legal-tender note for one dollar was $0.9962.

Messrs. Dun, Barlow & Co.'s report of the failures of the quarter ending April 1 is instructive reading. As a chronicle of commercial disaster it has not been equalled in the history of the country. The number of failures in this quarter exceeds that of the corresponding quarter of last year by 486; the amount of the liabilities exceeds that of the same period of last year by $27,546,756; and of this increase in number the Western States furnish 249, or more than half—of the increase in liabilities $10,458,683, or thirty-eight per cent.; and this in spite of abundant crops and vast exports. It is to be observed, too, that this great aggravation of the prevailing distress did not occur until, according to the silver-men, relief began to be sure and near at hand. Things improved during the first nine months of last year. As soon as Congress met in October they began to grow worse, and the longer Congress sits the worse they seem to grow, and have never been so bad as since Congressional relief through the silver movement arrived This disgusting obstinacy of business, in not reviving under recent legislative treatment, seems to call for more heroic remedies still, and we would suggest the penitentiary for any business man who does not "revive" after a certain quantity of silver is shown by the Treasury reports to be actually afloat.

The so-called Florida confessions have been the most interesting, not to say exciting, political theme of the week. The chief confessor is Judge Samuel B. McLin, chairman of the late Board of State Canvassers, who has made a sworn deposition before the Clerk of Thomas County. A sense of duty impelled him to let it be known that when the canvass was made he labored under the conviction that it was his "privilege and duty, in a political sense, to give the benefit of every doubt in favor of the Republican party"; that at no time did he feel that he occupied the position of a judge; that he can now look back on a "combination of influences that must have operated most powerfully in blinding his judgment and swaying his action"; that he had great fears for the State and nation in case of the success of the Democratic party; that he was shown numerous telegrams "insisting that the salvation of the country depended upon the vote of Florida being counted for Hayes," and giving "assurance of the forthcoming of money, and troops if necessary, in securing the victory for Mr. Hayes"; and that these were confirmed by the "visiting statesmen" on the spot. Party passion accordingly took the place of cool, impartial judgment, and the board "entered upon the work of the canvass with the conviction that they were invested with large discretionary powers, which were of a mixed character, political and judicial, the political largely predominating." They disregarded the Supreme Court's definition of their powers, and but for this Mr. Tilden must have been declared elected. What follows this long preamble is very disappointing, for the judge can only cite evidences of fraud which have been brought to his notice *since* the canvass.

The other confessor is ex-State Senator L. G. Dennis, also known as Captain Dennis, who was chairman of the Republican Committee in Alachua County, whose affidavit, however, relates to a particular precinct at which frauds are alleged to have taken place. He has assured a *Times* reporter that he still believes that "as a matter of abstract justice the State belongs to Mr. Hayes," but that it can be proved that "the face of the returns shows that the State belongs to Mr. Tilden." He is, therefore, much in the condition of Northern Republicans who held that "as a matter of abstract justice" all negro voters at the South were Republicans, and who based their charges of intimidation on the falling off from this ideal shown at the polls in any given place. More interesting than anything the captain or the judge has to say is the fact that the prompter of their confessions is another "judge," Alfred Morton, formerly of Virginia, more lately of Syracuse, N. Y. This enterprising gentleman, having been made, through Mr. Conkling's influence, a special agent of the Post-Office Department, warmly supported his great friend for the Presidency, and divided the Virginia delegation as between him and Blaine at Cincinnati; and Conkling did not forget to maintain him in his place when Postmaster-General Jewell would have removed him. He went down to Florida with the other statesmen and did more active work than all of them, and thought he had some claim on Mr. Hayes—say, at least as much as McLin and Dennis. Instead of that, he was dismissed a year ago, and has been nursing his wrath ever since. Suddenly he left Syracuse again for Florida, with Mr. Conkling's knowledge and approval, it is said, and the confessions are the result. Like McLin, his "ardor has been cooled and his partisan zeal chilled by the President, who has basely betrayed and mercilessly destroyed the Republican party of the South."

Mr. Mines, the interviewer who has "squealed," as the detectives say, so badly on Senator Conkling, had another letter in the *World* on Saturday, giving further particulars, which certainly show that "political science" is in a very low condition at Utica. It appears, according to his own story, that he was employed to edit the Utica *Republican* "in accordance with the principles of Lincoln and Grant," but was speedily informed by a "worker of the Conkling faction" that he was mistaken, that the paper was started for the more practical purpose of "killing the Utica *Herald* and destroying Ellis H. Roberts's influence." Disregarding this hint, he devoted himself steadily to the mental and moral culture of his subscribers, but was again reminded "that he must take a higher plane; that Roberts must not only be scalped, but killed; and that the friends of Mr. Conkling in the State expected it." The rest of his sad tale is of much the same nature. He was compelled to devote himself to scalping and killing the foes of the great Senator, especially "the President and his supporters." He had "to go light on Fairchild" and "lam it into Hayes," whom he testifies Mr. Conkling believes to be weak and corrupt. The conversations he had with his great chief were like that he reported the other day. That gentleman also disapproves of Mrs. Hayes going about with her husband so much on public occasions. Mines closes by an ominous reference to "epistles" which he may use hereafter. His picture of political society in Utica and of statesmanship in that town and its suburbs is, on the whole, gloomy.

On Wednesday week the House resolutely took up the Pacific Railroads Sinking Fund Bill as it came from the Senate, and, refusing to listen to any delay on the pretext of improving the measure, passed it with remarkable unanimity, by 243 to 2. The next day it took up the Senate's bill to repeal the Bankrupt Law, and, after modifying it so as to include the Act of June 22, 1874, as well as that of March 2, 1867, passed it by 206 to 39. On Friday, it passed the Post-Office Appropriation Bill; on Saturday, the Indian Appropriation. On Monday, it suspended the rules in order to take up and pass the bill to prevent further retirement of the greenbacks, and ordering their reissue by the Treasury as fast as received. This pretty certainly unconstitutional measure obtained 177 yeas against 35 nays. The Senate has been busy chiefly with private measures, but on Thursday assented to the Conference Deficiency Bill. On Tuesday, by a tie vote, it refused to pass the amended bill repealing the Bankrupt Law, but it will doubtless follow the example of the House. It received from the President the nomination of Mr. George L. Smith to be collector at the port of New Orleans, and as Mr. Packard went home on learning of this, it is supposed that the nomination will be confirmed, as from all accounts it ought to be. The Secretary of the Treasury also, on request, furnished some not wholly satisfactory information as to the expenses of placing our national loans, both in his own incumbency and under his predecessors.

After eleven years' trial Congress has determined to repeal the Bankrupt law, and there is already a flood of petitions pouring in from people who wish to take advantage of its provisions during the short time still remaining. There can be little doubt, though the law is far from perfect, that its repeal will be followed by a worse state of things than now exists with regard to insolvent estates. In the absence of a general law applying to the whole country, the only statutes that come into operation are the State insolvent laws. These necessarily differ considerably from each other in detail; and in the light recently thrown upon the divergence of views as to the relation of debtor and creditor existing in different parts of the country, it may be predicted that in the future there will be more radical differences than ever. In lending States the law will be made to favor the creditor; in borrowing States, the debtor. But besides this, insolvent laws have no effect beyond State boundaries, and no such thing as a complete discharge of a bankrupt is possible under them, except after tedious and wasteful proceedings in the courts of every State in which he owes debts. Such a condition of things puts a premium on fraudulent preferences and all sorts of dishonest practices. One naturally asks, therefore, why, in the face of all these objections, the repeal is still insisted on. The answer to this is, we believe, 1st, that unwise amendments made a few years ago destroyed the efficiency of the law; and, 2d, that there is in the United States at large an aversion to a general bankrupt law, which in ordinary times is always strong enough to prevent the retention of any statute on the subject. "Our people," as the Washington politicians say, "do not like bankrupt laws." We fear if this feeling were traced to its source, it would be found to spring from a suspicion that debtors are better off without than with such laws. The present act was passed at the close of the war, and its object was rather to enable debtors to get a complete discharge than to help creditors. Having secured this object the weight of the law begins to be felt, and a movement is set on foot for its repeal. This sort of bankruptcy see-saw has been going on from the very beginning of the Government, bankrupt laws being passed and repealed, not in pursuance of a far-seeing and comprehensive policy, but as a temporary makeshift from time to time, as legislation or the want of it makes itself uncomfortably felt.

The attempt to bring Moses, late Speaker of the Assembly and Governor of South Carolina, back to his native State to be tried for forgery has failed ignominiously. He was properly arrested; the habeas corpus did him no good; but the South Carolina officer charged with his extradition found at this point that no New York jailer would keep him pending the sailing of the steamer. So the officer took him to the St. Denis Hotel; but, finding this expensive, discharged him on parole, allowing him one dollar a day for his support, and directing him to report himself daily. The prisoner obeyed faithfully, and drew his dollar regularly until the day came to sail, when, having gone for his "trunk," he failed utterly to reach the wharf in time to be carried off. So he is now at large, or, as the reporters say, "in our midst." His position is, for a statesman, very disagreeable, for there can be no more unmistakable proof of loss of popularity than inability to find a jail that will shelter him. Kimpton, we believe, though also called for, cannot be found. He desires, we believe, to leave all these South Carolina matters to the "tribunal of history."

The week has been a very trying one among Statesmen in this city. Three of our most noted political personages, Messrs. Fox and Hogan and Dr. Shine, a coroner, all three brothers-in-law, have fought three or four rounds in a bar-room, Fox and Hogan being the principals, and the Coroner pursuing a course of malevolent neutrality by occasionally pummelling each of the others. They are all so high-placed that the police, even when called in, were reluctant to arrest them, and the newspapers gave from one to two columns to accounts of the scrimmage, besides collecting "views" on it. It appears that none of the three has any regular calling or occupation, but all have lived on the taxpayers, just like princes of the blood in the despotisms of the Old World, now filling one little office and now another. The greatest New York publicist, Mr. John Morrissey, is now on his deathbed, and the progress of his malady is watched with great anxiety by an afflicted people, and reported by a faithful press, just as the Prince of Wales's fever was in England. As almost the only reliable reformer in New York, his loss will be very serious, and a trick he had of butting his opponents with his head in the pit of the stomach, and which he retained even in the earlier stages of his illness, will make it almost impossible to supply his place. Another distinguished Statesman and ex-Senator and journalist, Mr. Ben. Wood, has gone into bankruptcy, and we regret to notice that a local jurist of eminence, Mr. William Hastings, alias "Dublin Tricks," who is a liquor-dealer in his leisure hours, is one of his unsecured judgment creditors for $7,000 or thereabouts. Mr. Silas B. Dutcher, the Second Assistant

Statesman of the "Conkling faction," and probably the first Controller of Primaries in the world, has also filed a petition of bankruptcy, and, in fact, it seems as if nearly all our great political leaders and thinkers were plunged in trouble of one sort or another.

There has been some further light thrown on the question of the political activity of office-holders in an interview with Secretary Thompson, in which, if correctly reported, he said that the President saw no reasonable objection to officers in the civil service contributing a portion of their income to campaign purposes, and that he expected to contribute a portion of his own; but that, if any office-holder saw fit to refuse to contribute, he would be supported in his refusal. This looks very well on the surface, but the fact is that as long as office-holders as a class are regarded as peculiarly bound—bound, for instance, more than the plumbers or tailors of the party—to contribute to election expenses, assessments will never be voluntary. Office-holders will be afraid to refuse, and the President's promise of support will not encourage them to refuse. It will simply assure them that they will not be openly dismissed for refusing, but it will not assure them that a black mark will not be put to their names, and that they will not be dropped for something else. Were they completely relieved from this fear, they are so poor a class that nothing could be obtained from them, and indeed, considering how low their pay is, there is something absolutely cruel in pursuing them for money. It is only done on the false and vicious theory that the portion of the revenue used in paying the salaries of officers comes from or belongs to the party in power, and this theory the President ought to discourage in every possible way.

A correspondent writes to ask, apropos of our article of last week, "Where does the Geneva Tribunal's decision leave us as regards the right to send ships abroad for sale? Does it leave them just where it leaves muskets and other munitions of war, leaving us a right to send either to a belligerent for sale without breach of neutrality?" The answer is, we believe, to be found in Dana's summary of the decisions of our courts: "Is the intent one to prepare an article of contraband merchandise, to be sent to the market of a belligerent subject, to the chances of capture and of the market? And, on the other hand, is it to fit out a vessel which shall leave our ports to cruise immediately or ultimately against the commerce of a friendly nation? The latter we are bound to prevent. The former the belligerent must prevent." That is, we might send a vessel suitable for military purposes to Cronstadt, or Odessa, or Liverpool, or London, for sale there, running the risk of capture on the way; but we could not fit one out here as a cruiser on a Russian or British order, to take the sea as a belligerent without entering a Russian or British port. If the *Alabama* could have been delivered in Charleston, Great Britain would have incurred no liability through her subsequent operations. As a matter of fact she sailed from Liverpool as a Confederate cruiser, and began her operations by taking a fighting crew on board at sea. It will be observed that as war has not yet been declared, all this has no application to the case of the German steamer *Cimbria*, now or lately lying at Southwest Harbor, Maine, and having been chartered and manned by Russia probably with the view of using her as a cruiser in the Pacific.

The news from Europe is distinctly more warlike, owing to the apparently implacable temper displayed by England. She at first refused to comply with the request of the other Powers as well as of Russia, to state what the plan was she proposed to substitute for the treaty of San Stefano; but she now lets it be known, it is said, that she proposes to regard the treaties of 1856 and 1871 as still in force, and the treaty of San Stefano as a mere "suggestion," to use Lord Beaconsfield's language, that they should be modified by another Congress. If this be true, war can hardly be avoided, for this would involve humiliation for Russia to which the Government dare not submit. Russia has proposed concessions on several minor but important points, such as the period of the occupation of Bulgaria, the composition of the Commission which is to superintend the organization of the new state, and the amount of territory to be retroceded in Bessarabia, limiting it to a small strip inhabited by Russians. It is hardly possible she can go further than this. It is to be observed, on the other hand, that the chances of England's isolation increase owing to her refusal to produce a programme. If she would put on paper what changes she wished to see made in the East, Austria very probably, and possibly Germany, would aid her in carrying them; but neither of these Powers is likely to go into war for a wholly undefined object, maybe simply "British prestige," which has within the last week or two been substituted for "British interests." In fact, as the negotiations progress, the chances that Austria will keep aloof until the two principals come to blows, and then make the best terms she can for herself, grow stronger.

In the meantime Beaconsfield and Salisbury are raising the war movement to the rank of a first-class *spectacle*, such as the former delights in. It is to be an Imperial war, with India engaged in it, and preparations are being made for the transfer of a considerable body of Indian troops to Europe—the native regiments, Hindu as well as Goorka and Sikh, volunteering with great alacrity and even eagerness. The Goorkas and Sikhs are perhaps as good soldiers as any army in Europe has to show, as far as the quality of the men goes, but they suffer as the Austrians suffer, from being officered by men of a different race and language. The Liberals seem to be recovering some of their courage, as the Ministers throw off the mask, and Mr. Bright has been denouncing the Premier in unmeasured terms. Considering that the war is to be waged in part to punish the Russian diplomatists for falsehood, it is, as Mr. Bright points out, deplorable that Disraeli should have been guilty for many months of persistent mendacity in denying the existence of dissensions in the Cabinet. Little is known about the attitude of the Turks, but that they are picking up courage a little is proved by the fact that they refuse to surrender Shumla and Varna, knowing, doubtless, that if Russia attempted to coerce them by occupying Constantinople it would precipitate hostilities with England. The difficulties of the Russian occupation have been increased by an insurrection of Pomaks, or Bulgarian Mussulmans, composed of the local refugees, and some débris of Suleiman Pasha's army, in northwestern Bulgaria, but, on the other hand, Russia has come to terms with Servia, and will doubtless make friends with Rumania also.

The news of extensive "warlike preparations" in Italy which has recently got afloat has led to more or less speculation as to the possibility of Italian participation in the struggle, but the speech of Count Corti, Minister of Foreign Affairs, a fortnight ago, seems to leave no doubt as to the firmness of Italian neutrality, and the sobriety and good sense of the Italian view of the crisis. His reply to the proposal that Italy, as a participant in the Congress which made the Treaties of 1856 and 1871, should join England in resisting the Treaty of San Stefano, was "that accomplished facts have inexorable corollaries. The events of 1877 cannot be erased from history; the Treaties of 1856 and 1871 must be modified." This is sound law as well as sound sense. According to the Beaconsfield-Salisbury view the war of 1877 simply entitles Russia to apply for a modification. In so far as Italian influence will be exerted in the future settlement, it will be undoubtedly thrown on the side of Rumania and Greece, and against Slavic preponderance, and Count Corti gave a summary snub to the suggestion that this would be a good time to settle with Austria about Triest and the Trentino, dwelling on the importance of cordial relations with Austria and the impropriety of "discussing in the Chamber territorial claims in direct opposition to the treaties we have solemnly contracted with that Empire."

THE FLORIDA FRAUD CONFESSIONS.

THE confession of the Chairman of the Florida Returning Board, that there was fraud in counting the votes at the last Presidential election, which gave the State to Hayes when Tilden was really entitled to it, will not surprise many of those who gave much attention to the subject at the time. We have never doubted, and have never concealed our conviction, that gross cheating took place, both in that State and Louisiana. But we saw, or thought we saw, plainly enough that if Congress was charged with the power of complete enquiry into the regularity of every State vote at the Presidential election, it would speedily convert the election into a farce. The decision of the Electoral Commission, that this enquiry was not lawful, seemed to us a fortunate and wise one. It delivered the country from a great peril, and Mr. Hayes from what was, or ought to have been, a great perplexity. It gave him as good a title to the Presidency as was possible under the circumstances, and a good enough title to satisfy all sensible men who cared more for the stability of the Government and the prosperity of the country than for the triumph of any political party. It not only enabled him to take the place without discredit, but made it impossible to avoid taking it. It was awarded to him by as good authority as if Congress, instead of creating the Electoral Commission, had itself declared him elected in the usual way. The fact that frauds had occurred in any particular State concerned him no more in the one case than it would have concerned him in the other. No honorable man could accept the Presidency if before accepting it he was bound to satisfy himself that in every State in which he had a majority, the vote had been lawfully cast and the count honestly made.

There was, however, one unfortunate feature in Mr. Hayes's position which the Electoral Commission did nothing to remove, and that was the presence of personal friends of his in Florida and Louisiana, in the character of "visiting statesmen," during the count, in intimate and constant intercourse with the Returning Boards when the alleged cheating was committed. There was but one way of remedying this defect after the Electoral Commission had put him in the White House, and that was an absolute refusal to go behind the award of the Commission, or acknowledge in word or act any connection with or obligation to the Returning Boards, or any persons who assisted, superintended, or encouraged them. Mr. Hayes ought in common prudence to have treated himself as the creature of the Commission, and as nothing else. He did not display this prudence. He was very niggardly to the politicians who were most active in his canvass, but he displayed great munificence to those who went down and superintended the count and to those who did the counting. The principal "visiting statesmen" in Florida and Louisiana received high offices. In the latter, three members of the Returning Board got, or were permitted to retain, very comfortable offices. Two of the "visiting statesmen" in Florida received foreign missions. One of those in Louisiana received a seat in the Cabinet, another a foreign mission. The chairman of the Florida Returning Board, McLin, who has just confessed, was nominated for the chief-justiceship of New Mexico; another participant in the count, Dennis, was made a Treasury agent on Mr. Hayes's own warm recommendation. In fact, the connection of the President with the set of men who did or connived at whatever was wrong in the count, or encouraged the counters, in both States was displayed in so many ways as naturally to suggest the idea that he was grateful to them, and felt that they had done more for him than their official duty prescribed. It is not surprising that he failed to satisfy them. McLin failed, through the opposition of the Senate, to get the office he sought, and after much tribulation fell into consumption, and, being now in danger of death, has made a clean breast of it. Dennis, who is or was, it is said, under seven indictments for embezzlement and other offences of a similar character, has made a clean breast of it, too, and what breasts they both had before they cleansed them is now known to every newspaper reader.

There is more or less mystery about the cause of these revelations just at this period, but we do not think it is an unfathomable mystery. It is easy to see why Mr. Tilden should be anxious to extract the confession, for it may give him the air of a martyr in the eyes of the next Democratic convention and strengthen his claim to another nomination; and easy to believe that some of the anti-Administration Republicans should be willing to help in the work out of that spirit of pure malice which of late seems to have been their governing political motive. But the Administration papers make a great mistake if they suppose they can dispose of the confessions and break their effect by showing that the men who made them are unworthy of belief even when they accuse themselves of great crimes. We do not think the public will swallow any more of this sort of equivocation. It will not do to make McLin and his tribe out honest when they are doing Republican work, and rogues when they are doing Democratic work. What plain people see clearly enough is that they were rogues from the beginning. A woman who accuses herself falsely of adultery is rightly held to have been quite capable of committing adultery if the occasion had presented itself, and no one will believe that a man who falsely says he once forged or cheated would not have forged or cheated if there had been any temptation to do so. So that there is now no more use in blackening the Florida and Louisiana scoundrels than there was in whitening them last year, and we would on the whole recommend, as the wisest as well as the most virtuous course, either telling the people the simple truth about the whole matter or letting it alone. The carpet-bag régime in the South had in the year 1876 put the electoral machinery of the doubtful States into the hands of very disreputable adventurers, who woke up within two or three days after the Presidential vote to the tremendous fact that they had it in their power to dispose of the Presidency. Honest men of both parties at the North ought at this juncture to have gone down and seen to it, *by joint action*, in the interest of American peace and liberty, that these persons were guilty of no tricks or frauds of any kind, and that the count was so made that nobody should be able to question the result. But the times were not favorable for the display of any such virtue. The Democrats were demoralized by long exclusion from office and fierce desire for it, and by the feeling that the Republican rule at the South had been so bad that almost any device was allowable that would get rid of it. The temper of the Republicans, on the other hand, was very revolutionary. The traditions and passions of the war were still strong among some, and they saw in a Democratic triumph the triumph of the Rebellion. Intense interest in the enfranchised negro was strong among others, and they saw in Tilden's election the extermination or re-enslavement of the freedmen. The result was a considerable degree of unscrupulousness, which sent agents and emissaries to the South who were by no means in a mood to stick at trifles, or be very careful about their own virtue or that of Southern Republican canvassers.

But it is folly to suppose that there is now any legal remedy for these things which prudent and patriotic men would care to apply. The Supreme Court would almost certainly hold that the decision of Congress, in adopting the conclusions of the Electoral Commission, was final, and the time spent in preparing and arguing the case would be one of great political confusion, and renewed and intensified commercial depression. Moreover, if a confession of fraud in the State canvass was held to be sufficient to unseat a President in the middle of his term, and put his title in doubt, we should have confessions by the dozen in every Presidential term hereafter, and, in fact, Presidential elections would have no end. Half a year would be spent in the campaign, and three years and a half in trying to oust the successful candidate, so that we should rapidly see the Government reach the South American level. For the reasons already given, the peculiar state of the public mind which made the last election so unsatisfactory is not likely to recur, and the one duty which the present situation imposes on practical and sober-minded politicians is the provision of a mode of electing the President which shall be so plain and simple that such practices as have been re-

sorted to in Florida and Louisiana shall either not occur again or shall produce no serious effect. The punishment of the perpetrators and abettors of the late frauds is to be dealt out at the polls, not in the courts.

THE INCOME TAX HERE AND IN ENGLAND.

SOME of the Western papers have undertaken to demonstrate the expediency of the income tax by showing its success as a means of raising revenue in England, which is about on a par with the argument which some of the Senatorial Group use, that General Grant's social success among the European aristocrats proves that he merits a third term. In the first place, the income tax was never suggested or thought of in England as a means of "striking" one class or district in order to spare another class or district. It has always been advocated simply as a fiscal scheme, and not as a means of gratifying social prejudices. The most unfortunate feature in the proposal that it should be revived here just now is, that it is part and parcel of an assault on that portion of the community which is supposed to be in possession of accumulated property, for the purpose of relieving another portion which is supposed to be in debt. It is a sufficient, and indeed fatal, objection to any tax that it has originated in any such way, and there is no doubt that it was to prevent attacks on wealthy localities by poorer and more populous ones that the Constitution provided that "no capitation or other direct tax" should be laid except in proportion to population. An income tax levied in the various States in accordance with this provision would find no favor at the South and West. A good many newspapers favor it, however, which are much troubled by the growth of Communism among the working classes in this country, apparently forgetting that Communistic ideas were started by the Western farmers in the Granger movement, and that nothing is more natural than that the doctrines about property which were promulgated passionately by persons who simply wished to impose on others part of the burden of carrying their goods to market, should have found expression in pillage and arson in two or three years later among suffering operatives. In a country situated as this is, and governed by universal suffrage, it is not possible to keep the plan of making anybody pay more than his share of the public burdens within limits of any kind. It is not a kind of plan which can be resorted to now and then, and for one particular purpose. We have among us a large body of persons who like the broadest possible application of all theories which offer a hope, however slight, of getting money or goods without labor. If the income tax had ever been proposed and taken up in England as a means of making rich men pay a larger part of the public expenses, or of putting on Middlesex a proportionately greater load than on Cumberland, it would never have been enacted.

The purely fiscal origin of the tax there, too, has made its collection efficient, decent, and inoffensive. The commissioners who have charge of it are carefully selected, and are sworn to secrecy. The returns are as secure from public inspection in their hands as if locked in the taxpayer's desk. The argument that secrecy helps fraud does not count, because the vexation, and often the injury, of publicity are so great as to outweigh its advantage to the treasury. The Khedive of Egypt uses the bastinado freely to extract correct returns from the fellaheen, and finds it very effective—in fact, it is doubtful whether he could raise more than half his revenue without it; but civilized governments have generally reached the conclusion that certain modes of collection do more harm to the country than their yield would compensate for. The best preventive of fraud in all tax-collecting, it is now generally acknowledged, is the adaptation of the tax to the habits and prejudices and convenience of the people, and the maintenance of the highest degree of efficiency in the revenue service. We have not as yet tried this plan here, high a place as we hold in civilization. The tariff is framed on the barbarous plan of clapping a duty on everything we can think of; and an income tax imposed so as to fall on the rich, and enforced by a thorough exposure of their private affairs, has a flavor of Turkey and Persia about it.

The strictly fiscal character of the tax in England and the strictly confidential mode of collection make the use of it as an instrument of party gain or political annoyance impossible. But it had not been very long in existence here before a couple of political partisans of the lowest order were sent out by the Treasury to act as itinerant spies to ferret out cases of non-payment or insufficient payment, and they began incontinently, as might have been expected, to levy "blackmail" both on men who had made incorrect returns purposely, and on men who knew they might innocently have made incorrect returns and were frightened by the possible consequences of their neglect or oversight. The Sanborn scandal was, in fact, one of the worst of General Grant's administration, and showed to what base uses a tax of this kind under our political system can be turned. The suit now pending against Mr. Tilden is an illustration of the same thing. It was begun against him by the officers of the Government in the midst of an exciting canvass, notoriously for the purpose of discrediting him as a candidate for the Presidency. It may be that the charges against him on which the proceeding is based are perfectly correct; but the occasion chosen for bringing the suit, and the selection of him as the sole object of the enforcement of a doubtful legal view, made it sufficiently clear that the collection of revenue was not, as it ought to have been, the only purpose of the proceeding—that it was intended to be an electioneering device as well. Any tax which makes such a performance possible is wholly unsuited to our state of society and system of government.

It must be observed, also, that England is, *par excellence*, the country of fixed incomes—that is, of incomes derived from safe investments. The number of persons living on such incomes drawn from the public funds, home or foreign, from rent charges, from mortgages, from farm rents and railroad shares, and varying little if any from year to year, is large in proportion to the number of those who draw their incomes from what we call "active business," or professional gains, to a degree of which Americans have little idea. England is a country of enormous accumulated capital lent out in every direction all over the world, the yield of which supports a vast body of persons in complete or partial leisure. Among us this class is comparatively very small. Nearly every American is in a greater or less degree a trader or speculator, and is "turning over" his capital, if he has any, in some enterprise of varying degrees of profit. The sphere of an income tax in England is accordingly very large, and the making of returns very simple. Variations in a man's income from year to year are comparatively rare, and when they occur are comparatively easy to account for and set forth. Here, on the contrary, the sphere is very small, as is shown by the present expectation of the West and South that they will escape the incidence of the tax altogether, and by the ridiculous fact that when it was levied, and incomes under $2,000 exempted, it was only paid by 150,000 persons out of a population of 40,000,000. The sources from which an American who has more than $2,000 a year draws his income are apt to be various, and the yield of each to change from year to year in a way unknown in older, more cautious, and less enterprising communities; and this not only makes it hard for honest men to make accurate returns, but makes concealment or evasion easy for dishonest men. In fact, to use the argument of a great Western financier, you can no more deduce the suitability of an income tax to Americans from the example of Englishmen than you can make a plaster cast of the surface of England fit the surface of the United States, or deduce the fitness of General Grant for a third term from the number of dinners given him in London, or from the presentation to him of an Arab horse by Abdul-Hamid. The way of both the South and West back to the old American peace and prosperity lies through industry and order, and through the confidence of every man who has saved money that he may safely lend it or invest it, and not through tinkering the currency or legislative attacks on capital; and now that they have had their fling, and shown the Gold-sharps that they do not care a snap for either the Ancient or Modern World, for Ancestors or Posterity, and can pass what bills they please, would it not be well to settle down to business and sober and rational life?

OUR UNAVAILABLE PUBLIC LANDS.

THE special report of Major J. W. Powell, in charge of the United States Geographical and Geological Survey of the Rocky Mountain region, transmitted to the House of Representatives on the 3d instant, presents a view of the climatic and other conditions governing the greater part of the national territory still unsettled, and of the imperfections of the present laws for its disposal, that invites serious attention. The report is upon the great Arid Region of the United States in which irrigation is necessary to agriculture. Its eastern boundary is approximately the 100th meridian, and it extends to the Pacific, excluding the Lower Columbia district, where the rainfall is sufficient; parts of Central and Northern California, where its distribution through the seasons is favorable, though the total is below the minimum (twenty inches) ascertained to be generally required; and a few hills and mesas adjacent to great mountains. A wide belt reaches east of that meridian to near the isohyetal line of twenty-eight inches passing through Minnesota, and embraces nearly one-tenth of the whole area of the United States, in which irrigation is not generally or immediately necessary, but from its advantages will become common. This may be designated as the Sub-humid Region, and the true arid area, with deductions for all favored localities, comprises more than four-tenths of the whole of the United States exclusive of Alaska. This contains by far the largest part of our public domain remaining for sale. If its disposal and settlement are prevented or seriously retarded by our existing laws the evil is obvious.

Title to our public lands may now be acquired by purchase at public sale, by "private entry," and by virtue of pre-emption, homestead, timber-culture, and desert-land laws. It has not been for a number of years the practice to dispose of them by public sale or private entry, and, with small exceptions, lands in the arid region have not been offered for sale in those modes. Any citizen may pre-empt 160 acres, and by settling thereon, erecting a dwelling, making certain improvements, and paying $1 25 in some, and $2 50 in other districts, obtain title. This right can be exercised but once, and by no one who already owns 320 acres. A citizen may under the homestead privilege obtain 160 acres, valued at $1 25 per acre, or 80, valued at $2 50, by payment of $5 or $10, respectively, residing on the land for five years, and making certain improvements. These terms are made more favorable to those who have served in the army or navy. Title may be gained under the timber-culture act, by the head of a family, to 160 acres in the prairie region, after eight years, by cultivating timber thereon in specified quantities. One section of desert land may be obtained by paying twenty-five cents per acre at the time of entry, redeeming it by irrigation within three years, and the payment of one dollar per acre at the end of that time. It is not necessary to dwell upon the land-warrants issued as bounties, upon the agricultural scrip for establishing agricultural schools, or upon grants to railroad and other corporations. By these several methods adequate provision is made for actual settlers on lands irrigable by minor streams, but they are insufficient for the settlement of those depending on the more important water-courses, and also for the pasturage and timber tracts, in which exceptions are included nearly all the lands of the arid region which ever can be settled. The fractions of this immense area that can be utilized under any circumstances require varied modes of disposal, none of which is yet applied by law.

In general, only those parts lying along the water-courses, being the lowest lands of the several districts, can be redeemed by irrigation, and their extent is determined by the amount the few small lower tributaries can serve, and the areas to which the larger streams, which mostly receive their confluents before leaving the mountain gorges and flow much below the general surface, can be taken by engineering skill, often at a great outlay. On a careful estimate, the whole of the irrigable land is but three per cent. of the region above described. The small streams distributable by individual enterprise are sometimes already used, and, where they are not, should generally be reserved as fronts for pasturage farms, to which the lands of medium altitude are chiefly adapted, which are of vastly greater extent than those valuable for agriculture, and which, without such reservation, would be cut off from all reliable water. The diversion of tributaries for the irrigation of lands lying any great distance below them would also interfere with the economic distribution of the rivers which are the main source of supply, but which demand either capital or co-operation before they can be employed at all. In addition to a system of canals, one of reservoirs above or ponds below for the storage of water will be necessary to increase the irrigable area, for which there should be special provision in the general surveys. All our laws leave the individual immigrant wholly unable to farm tracts only to be redeemed by expensive and comprehensive irrigation. They should be disposed of without the present limitations, either in quantities to suit capitalists, and with the condition of actual irrigation before the transfer of title, or, if reserved, in accordance with our beneficent homestead provisions, as homes for poor men, a general law is needed under which a number could settle in irrigable districts, establishing their own regulations for the use of water and subdivision of the lands between themselves.

Throughout the region considered, valuable timber grows spontaneously on the higher plateaus and mountains, where, from climatic conditions, agriculture will never be possible. The districts over which timber has grown, and where the humidity and temperature would permit of its renewal in time—if protected from the fires, which are mainly caused by Indians in driving game less for food than for their peltry trade—form about 23 per cent. of the whole area; those where timber of some kind is yet standing have about half that percentage; while those affording valuable milling timber reach but 5 per cent. This, however, is amply sufficient for all industrial wants, and no limitation in its use is requisite if the fires can be prevented by the removal of Indians tempted by the traders to supply furs, and if the country can be gradually settled, so that the herbage in which fires generally spread may be kept down by summer pasturage, and the dead and fallen trees removed to market. The present laws, however, absolutely prohibit the honest acquirement of any of these timber lands, because they are not agricultural. The fraudulent practice of "dummy" entries under the homestead and pre-emption provisions, without intention to complete the title—the lands being held only long enough to be stripped—is resorted to almost from necessity when timber is required. The laws should be amended to allow of a legitimate timber business by sale of the lands in such quantities as may encourage the construction of mills, erection of flumes, making of roads, and other permanent improvements. An old system, contrived when all tracts were taken as farms and the forests cleared as a hindrance to the main object, is wholly inapplicable where the timber constitutes their sole value, summer frosts rendering agriculture hopeless.

Between the irrigable and timber divisions of the region spreads a vast body of valley, mesa, hill, and low mountain land, usually bearing a scanty growth of nutritious grass, useful both for summer and winter pasturage. This improves in higher latitudes and altitudes, but in the lower becomes so meagre as to show the true deserts found in some southern parts of California, Nevada, Arizona, and New Mexico. There are also districts of incoherent sands and clays, sediments of tertiary lakes or cretaceous seas, in which the streams flow in deep waterways and the steep hills are washed naked. These are the well-named "Bad Lands." Still other tracts lie waste in the form of alcove and cañon lands and lava beds. After all proper deductions, probably thirty per cent. of the whole region remains as useful, and much of it valuable, for pasturage. Having for general advantage relegated the districts along creeks and rivers to the irrigable class, where agriculture is the sole industry, those considered as pastures have their only reliable resource for water in the smaller branches and upper ramifications. So large an area is required for the support of the stock that a quarter section is of no value for the wants of a herd needed by the poorest man for his maintenance. Four square miles, or 2,560 acres, is the minimum unit for a pasturage farm—and it should frequently be larger—for which regular division lines are impracticable. Many a short brook would afford water for a number of pasturage farms; but if the survey is in regular tracts, as square miles and townships, all the water sufficient for the several farms may fall wholly within one division, which alone would be taken up in the first instance, and its owner would either control the remainder or leave them on the hands of Government. In no event can those pasturage districts support any but a sparse population; and that the settlers may enjoy any of the local social organizations of civilization, their home residences should be grouped as near together as possible. For these reasons, divisional surveys should conform to the topography and afford the greatest practicable number of water-fronts. The large areas of the units also preclude fencing, so that for poor men co-operative pasturage or communal regulations for the occupancy of the ground and division of the increase of stock is necessary. No existing law meets these requirements. One should be enacted to provide for the organization of pasturage districts of sufficient size, in which the settlers could make their own regulations for the division of lands, the use of the water for the irrigation of their small home farms and for the watering of their stock, and for pasturage in common or in severalty, but each sub-division of the district, or

pasturage farm, should be owned by one individual acquiring title by the homestead method. This allows of the colony system—not alone for fresh bodies of immigrants, but for the unfortunates already in the country who roam with herds seeking water where they can gain no permanent residence, and will, of course, make no improvements. It is not untried, being the basis of all the mining-district organizations, whose local rules for the division of mining lands and use of water and timber have given better results than would have been accomplished by specific statutes of the United States. Customs are already forming and regulations framed among the people in some of the pasturage districts, but they provide no means for the acquirement of title, no incentive to improvement, and no legal security.

It seems obvious, therefore, that the diverse ranges of territory yet unsold and unsettled should neither be surveyed nor disposed of as if they were on a common plane or under the conditions met in generations past by pioneers of simple agriculture in the lowland forests and more eastern plains. An authorized classification of the several categories of public lands, which, as Major Powell's report shows, differ at once from each other and from any familiar to the framers of our present statutes, is the first necessity. In connection with this, a scientific system of both surveys and disposal should be adapted to each of the classes defined. In time of national poverty even the cessation of purchase-money for public lands is of some moment, but of vastly greater consequence is the fact that by antiquated and inappropriate laws the thousands who, not obtaining the rewards of labor, are becoming a burden and a danger in the East, are practically debarred from the vast body of the national domain, where, under judicious amendments to legislation, they might obtain homes and contribute to renew the general prosperity enjoyed when there was an available and growing West.

TUNIS.

MALTA, April 4, 1878.

THE possession of the regency of Tunis in the approaching dissolution and distribution of the Ottoman Empire is likely to lead to grave complications. Its position, adjoining Algiers and within eighty miles of Sicily and one hundred and fifty miles of Malta, renders it an object of deep interest to France, Italy, and Great Britain. France and Italy are known to covet it—the former to enlarge her African colony ; the latter in order to possess territory where her surplus population may find a congenial climate and suitable occupations, without severing national ties and going beyond the reach of conscription for military service. The arrogance of Great Britain in dictating to Russia the limits which her victorious arms may not overstep has less excuse than would an attempt to maintain the *status quo*, and, failing that, to take possession of Tunis. The northern part of the regency, projecting far beyond the line joining Gibraltar Strait and the Suez Canal, compels the commerce which flows between these two channels to pass close along its coast for a considerable part of the route. The presence of a powerful fleet in Tunisian waters would, therefore, be a standing menace to "the route to India," with which the British are just now so much concerned.

The interest and influence of these nations, no less than the supposed power of the Sultan, has been sufficient to sustain the tottering authority of the Bey, who is conscious of the inevitable occupation of the regency by some European power, and exerts his efforts not so much to prevent it as to defer it. The agents of at least three European nations are constantly engaged in some intrigue in favor of or against his ministers or favorites, with a view to increasing their individual influence or to lessening that of their colleagues. Recent events have added another to the nations especially interested in the regency. The necessity of a German navy capable of successfully contending against that of England, France, or Italy, is appreciated in and out of the German Empire. Its development and maintenance are impossible without a port in the Mediterranean. When the Bey, under British pressure, furnished money and made every effort to furnish men to the Ottoman cause, Russia protested and threatened to retaliate. By virtue of her victory it is believed that Russia intended to propose a partition of the regency between Germany and Italy, for their very evident moral support in opposition to Austria. Circumstances have altered these plans, and it is now believed that the hesitation of France to participate in the Congress was due chiefly to the fear that the question of Tunis and Egypt would be discussed and probably settled contrary to her designs and interests. No compromise would reconcile the interests of England and France in Egypt, nor of Italy and France and Germany in Tunis. When four great nations all covet the same territory, occupied by a race which has grown contemptible, and forming part of an empire that is falling to pieces, the result can hardly fail to be a struggle for its possession.

If ever the partition between Germany and Italy takes place, the Mejerda River will probably be the boundary. It rises in the province of Constantine in Algiers, and, flowing northeastward, empties into the Gulf of Tunis near the western limit. It thus divides the regency into two very unequal parts. Since the object of Germany is the possession of a port and that of Italy an increase of territory, the smaller part might become German. This includes the lakes of Bizerta and Echkeul, extensive forests of oak and other valuable timber, very rich and convenient mines of iron ore, equal in value to that of Elba, mines of copper and lead ore. The total area of the regency is about 50,000 square miles, the total population about 1,500,000. The strip north of the Mejerda is about one-tenth of the whole, and contains about one-fifth of the total population. The western part, adjoining Algiers and generally termed the province of Tabarca, is inhabited by fanatical and savage tribes of Arabs, who have defied the authority of the Bey, refused to pay taxes for several years, and steadfastly resist the development of their territory. These tribes can muster an armed force of about 5,000 men. They possess very large herds of camels and sheep, chiefly stolen from the neighboring or distant tribes in their frequent excursions. These often extend into Algerine territory, and are a constant cause of complaint by the French Government, as the Bey is powerless to prevent them or to punish the raiders. The region is mountainous and thickly wooded, and it would be as difficult to conquer as it is to govern these tribes. A large French steamer and an English brig were recently driven by a severe gale on their inhospitable coast. The survivors were stripped of their clothing, barely escaping with their lives, and the wrecks plundered. This is the best indication that could be given of the character of the inhabitants. The eastern part of the territory is less mountainous and much more cultivated ; it is peopled by a race as mild and industrious as their neighbors are savage and dishonest. The methods of cultivation are very crude, yet the yield of grain and olive oil is abundant. The lakes of Echkeul and Bizerta are the most interesting part of this region, especially to the nations who have an eye on the regency. The former is a *fresh*-water basin covering about twenty-five square miles, and from three to twelve feet in depth. The latter has an area of forty square miles and a depth varying between twenty and fifty feet. A narrow and winding stream flows from the Echkeul to the Bizerta, and the latter communicates through a deep and spacious strait with an artificial canal extending into Bizerta Bay. Through neglect and the construction of fish-weirs across the strait entrance the canal has filled up, and now only boats may pass through ; but an expenditure not exceeding $50,000 would render the strait and lake accessible to the largest vessels, and thus create a natural port unrivalled for naval purposes by any in the Mediterranean. With a mild and temperate climate, an abundance of iron ore and timber near at hand, a fresh-water lake easily converted into a basin for the reception of a reserve force, and a position on the most frequented steam route in the world, is it to be wondered at that a nation seeking a port with just these advantages should be manœuvring to possess Bizerta ?

From what has been said it is easy to understand the recently developed interest in the regency, resulting in a number of publications, chiefly in French, Italian, and German, of greater or less pretensions, which have appeared within a short time. A night's journey is sufficient to pass from the charms of Palermo or the attractions of Malta to the curiosities of Tunis. The frequency of steam communication, with good accommodations, tempts many travellers, and Tunis has become one of the sights of an European tour. The strange contrasts it offers are no less fascinating than instructive. Imagine the change from the opera in Malta to the bazaars of Tunis ; from the magnificent palaces and art treasures of Palermo to the shapeless clusters of buildings with their rude decorations which form the Bey's palaces ; from the matchless Highlanders or the nimble Bersaglieri to the quaintly-costumed Arab troops, squatting about in groups engaged in knitting. These are but the beginning of a hundred contrasts which present themselves to those who leave Malta or Palermo one day and arrive in Tunis the next. And yet, exchange costumes and the Sicilian or Maltese becomes the Tunisian in appearance. They differ only in the nature of their superstitions, for it is an undeniable fact that the deplorable ignorance and fanaticism of the Mohammedan natives of the regency find their parallel in the native Christian populations of either Malta or Sicily. If honesty and industry, docility and generosity were the tests, no candid person having had dealings with

the three peoples could deny that the Mohammedan doctrine has accomplished as much in Tunis as the Christian doctrine as taught by the Romish Church has accomplished in either Sicily or Malta among the masses. A mind divested of prejudice cannot fail to concede to the majority of the Bey's subjects many excellent qualities which are exceptional in their insular neighbors. If the Tunisians had enjoyed the beneficent and enlightened government that the Maltese have had during half a century, the possession of their territory would not now be a question in which their choice could be disregarded with impunity.

The population of the regency has steadily diminished in the last century from five millions to one and a half millions. Forty-five thousand of these are Jews, fifteen thousand Christians, the remainder Mohammedan Arabs and Moors in unknown proportions. The Christians are nine-tenths Sicilians and Maltese, nearly all the remainder being Italians and French. Almost the whole population is engaged in agriculture. Grain and olive oil are the chief productions. Alfa grass, wool, dates, sponges, and wax are the next important items. The total value of native products exported through the custom-houses in 1874, which is considered an average year, was $5,548,684. Of this nearly $2,000,000 was of wheat, $1,300,000 of all other grain, $1,150,000 of olive oil, $150,000 each of Alfa and wool, $100,000 of dates, $50,000 each of wax, sponges, and dried fish, $250,000 out of the remainder being that of red caps (fez) and woollen fabrics—the only two articles of manufacture exported. Almost an equal amount is smuggled out of the regency, chiefly across the Algerine frontier, to escape the payment of an onerous export tax. No duties are collected in Algiers on Tunisian productions. The only article of export that has not steadily diminished is Alfa grass. The latest returns are those for 1876, which give $743,310 as the value of Alfa exported during that year, a remarkable increase in two years. The increased demand for this article has been a great blessing to the regency, for it needs neither cultivation nor care, and its growth is improved by judicious gathering at suitable seasons. The pulp manufactured from it makes the best of paper, and from certain peculiarities is considered the most suitable for the manufacture of papier-maché, an article rapidly growing in favor for the construction of car-wheels and other articles capable of resisting extremes of temperature without liability to fracture. The grass grows in isolated clusters in fields of varying extent in the less arid spots of the southern part of the regency, which is practically a desert. It is gathered by the natives without method, transported in loose bundles on camels or asses to certain points on the coast, often a distance of 60 or 70 miles, there pressed loosely into bales averaging 330 pounds in weight and containing about 50 cubic feet, and then shipped to England chiefly, where it is reduced to pulp and the larger portion sent to the United States. The first purchasers are nearly all native Jews, who, taking advantage of the desperate state of the Arab population in that part of the regency, advance the gatherers sums of money equivalent to about three-fifths the actual value of the loose grass at the point of delivery, and are thus enabled to export it at a price below that for which it could be gathered by regularly employed labor. The condition of the poor creatures who gather it may be appreciated from the fact that a camel-load of grass transported a distance of seventy miles is sold for the paltry sum of two dollars. Certainly the gathering and travel would consume five days' labor for one camel and one man, and thus the value of a day's labor for both is reduced to forty cents. As if to hamper the trade and still further burden the patient Arab, the Bey has consented to the "Financial Commission" imposing a heavy tax on its exportation. The organization and work of this Financial Commission I will explain in a subsequent letter.

Correspondence.

EASTERN *VERSUS* WESTERN MORALS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The severe castigations you have seen fit to inflict upon the people in the West since the Granger movement began and the Silver movement closed, form a chapter of lessons to the close and quiet observer, and will also be of benefit to the historian. It has always seemed to me that a certain class of Eastern theorists, encouraged by the clamors and frights of accumulated Eastern capital gained from enterprises successfully launched and carried through in the West, have directed less attention to the means of finding out *why* dishonesty prevails than *where* it predominates. It is admitted that once arrived at a conclusion which is greatly shaped if not entirely influenced by immediate surroundings, your opinions and ideas on matters of morals in every condition of life and circumstances must necessarily reflect what is generally practised as the code in the East. The newspaper, as the chronicle of events and actions by which alone the moralistic standard of the times can be properly established for future reference, I think ought to direct its views over a wider range. Its comparisons should be less biassed; the aim at impartiality more transparent; the subjective less sacrificed to the objective; the principle less obscured to gain ends. It may be the *result* of your efforts, but is not, as I understand them, their positive *aim*, to direct public opinion into the one channel of thought whose fountains spring in the region where the legends and fables of imaginary worlds, wealths, and wisdom found their origin. We have learned to honor and acknowledge your good judgment in most matters, never hastily given, always the result of mature and exhaustive deliberation. I have known whole bodies and localities regard your opinion on various and most important subjects as they would a decision rendered by an honest jury, presided over by such a rarity as an honest judge; therefore your persistent efforts to reduce in the general estimation the standard of honesty among Western people did not at once meet with the rebuke it merited. Not until you had sufficient time and opportunity to prove by the laws of logic, the force of argument, and the convincing proof of fact, that there was not mere assumption where truth was desirable, would we dare to contradict. The time has come to raise the voice in defence of what is of some value to us—honesty—*our* honesty, not as measured by the Eastern standard.

I cannot remember that at any ante-war period, when confidence as to values was not any greater than it has been for the last few years, when losses resulted from natural causes, as they do now, any particular geographical part of the country was especially divided and abused because dishonesty prevailed to a larger extent than in others. The manœuvres of the Indiana and Ohio "wild-cat" banks, and the consequent losses of the communities, did not bring these particular States the opprobrium the "West" has earned from people and press of the "East" simply because the former, or a few of its States, have tried to profit by the examples of the latter in trying to compromise debts in a somewhat questionable manner. That the pupil came very near chastising its mentor is not so extraordinary or seldom an occurrence. But let me state a few generalities which will suffice to prove that cause and effect emanate from the "honest" Eastern source. We are aware that the lion's share of the profits arising from the war were garnered safely by the "East." We all know how this easily-gained and quickly-accumulated capital created that ornament of Eastern society, the shoddy. We also know how fast this viper spread its web "westward," and threatened to transplant the honest frugality of the merchant, laborer, and farmer of the West by a vulgar taste for show and ostentation. We recollect the effects of the Crédit-Mobilier "unpleasantness," in which the Western men were the automatons, the "honest" East manipulating the wires; the great rings, political and otherwise, which at last found ready imitators in all large cities of the West; the cheap-credit system in league with the pernicious Bankrupt Act; the spectacle afforded by the Beecher scandal; the convictions of grey-headed presidents of banks, fire and life insurance companies; the frauds committed by dishonest officials of private and public corporations; and last, but certainly *not* least, the brilliant exhibitions of "honesty" made by your representatives in the national legislature whenever questions of national importance were to be decided by that body—such as the Silver Bill, the Pacific Railroads Funding Bill, etc., etc. You have repeatedly catechised your illustrious senior Senator for his matchless *silence* when the Silver Bill was debated. I say it was *honest* in the Western man to speak, work, and vote as his conviction, though wrongly, taught him, and it was studied *dishonesty* in a great (Eastern) Senator to prevent his influence from being brought to bear upon so momentous a question. In most debates in Congress upon questions of honesty we find the Western voice raised in its defence—silence observed by the cunning Eastern men of *policy*. But lately a movement inaugurated in the West, and having already taken firm ground, inscribes upon its banner "*Honest* money league," whose purpose is "to disseminate sound views on the subjects of money." Please tell me what efforts has the "honest" East ever made to enlighten the people upon questions of such vital importance *other* than to influence Congress through lobbies, ridicule an honest but perverted opinion in the Western citizen, use vituperation as the cheapest but also the lowest argument, and generally establish in the dull (?) comprehension of the honest Northwestern the idea that to become respected

and honored by the Eastern monopolist he must wade through the "code of morals" established by "the East."

HENRY M. MENDEL.

MILWAUKEE, WIS., April, 1878.

[We have made no comparison between Eastern and Western morals, drawn from cases of individual dishonesty. Such comparisons are very liable to be unjust and misleading. What we have commented on is attempts at dishonesty *through legislation*, and approved of and stimulated by the organs of public opinion. We consider the Silver Bill, as explained and defended by the Western press and orators, to be such an attempt. That is to say, we consider the advocacy of a change in the coinage not in order to make the standard of value steadier, but in order to make the payment of debts easier, and accompanied by gross indiscriminate vituperation of those who possess accumulated property and have lent money at interest, to be *prima-facie* evidence of dishonesty on the part of the persons engaged in it. This presumption is not upset or affected by any amount of evidence as to their private worth, because we know well that men are capable of outrageous conduct *en masse* of which each of them would be ashamed individually. The newspapers to which Mr. Mendel should write to complain of the notions current at the East about Western morals are those of Cincinnati, Chicago, Louisville, and St. Louis. The picture they have given of these morals during the last six months, not in mere support of the Silver Bill, but in the arguments they have used in its favor, and in the ridiculous invention about the demonetization "conspiracy" has, we believe, surprised the civilized world east of the Alleghanies; and a very large portion of the civilized world does lie east of that range. In answer to the enquiry with which our correspondent concludes his letter, we have to say that ten years ago the Eastern press began its opposition to the paper-money craze by which the West was then threatened and is now ravaged, and has kept it up ever since, and that an association having its headquarters in Boston devoted itself at the same period to the diffusion of documents by the ten thousand throughout the country in support of honest money and the public credit, and did not cease its efforts until it supposed the victory was won by the passage of the Act of 1869.—ED. NATION.]

Notes.

JANSEN, McCLURG & CO., Chicago, will shortly publish a new and greatly enlarged and improved edition of Prof. Jordan's 'Manual of the Vertebrates of the United States.' The section on fishes has been entirely re-written.——A limited new edition of their 'Monograms and Alphabets' is announced by J. Sabin & Sons.——*Bulletin* No. 45 of the Boston Public Library contains in the bibliographical department Part V. of the "History of Mental Philosophy"; more of the Check List for American History, embracing New York City and State and extending to Philadelphia; and early editions of the English Drama in the Barton Collection.——The General Meeting of the American Social Science Association opens in Cincinnati on May 18, with an address on "The National Importance of Social Science in the United States," by Prof. Benjamin Peirce. Gen. Pope will read a paper on the "Indian Question"; Dr. John A. Warder on "Forestry"; Horace White on "Specie Resumption as affected by Recent Legislation"; Gamaliel Bradford on "Congress and the President"; Rev. J. C. Fletcher on our "Commercial and Social Relations with South America"; Prof. N. S. Shaler on "Intellectual Property," etc., etc. The sessions promise to be of unusual interest and importance.——The Third Summer School of Drawing, for teachers, will be held at the art-rooms of Purdue University, Lafayette, Indiana, under the management of Prof. L. S. Thompson. The term begins July 8, and lasts for four weeks.——The programme of the International Literary Congress, to be held at Paris during the Exposition, has been published. The sessions begin on the 4th of June and end on the 15th.——Mr. T. B. Aldrich's 'Queen of Sheba' is appearing in the *Revue des Deux Mondes* in two numbers.——Recent English announcements include 'The Crimean Campaign with the Connaught Rangers, 1854-56,' by Lieut.-Col. N. Steevens; 'Twenty Years' Residence among the Greeks, Albanians, Turks, Armenians, and Bulgarians,' by a lady; Capt. Forbes's 'Sketches of the Natives of Burmah'; 'From Mozambique to Nyassa, Uchungu, and Usango,' being the journal of the late Capt. Elton, who died on this important journey; 'Anatomy for Artists,' by Prof. John Marshall, with numerous illustrations on wood; and 'Brittany: a Series of Thirty-five Sketches,' by Birket Foster.——The demise of the Washington (Daily) *Nation* is perhaps worth mention.

—In both *Harper's* and *Scribner's* for May the illustrated articles are on the whole more meritorious for their cuts than for their text. Yet we must at once begin to admit exceptions. "Bird Architecture," by Dr. T. M. Brewer, in *Scribner's*, and Mr. Robert Ridgeway's "Song Birds of the West," in *Harper's*, contain a great deal of instruction conveyed with scientific simplicity and directness. Dr. Brewer is the more fortunate in his subject, for he has to tell of the famous Bower-birds of the Australian group, some of whom have been long known through the works of the veteran Gould, but the latest and most wonderful has but just been authentically described by Dr. Beccari, from his observations in New Guinea. This explorer's sketch of the Garden-bird (*Amblyornis inornata*), with his lofty wigwam and mossy lawn or flower-plot, is reproduced among the engravings that accompany the article. Mr. Edward Eggleston, in the same magazine, shows a skilful hand in his account of the New York Post-office, which is admirably illustrated. The views of the ugly building itself (from the south) and of Broadway (looking south from the post-office) are as faithful as the camera could make them, and the portrait of Postmaster James is not only lifelike but artistic in a high degree. Much praise must also be given to the illustrations of dogs and scenery in "Our Pets and Protectors" and "Camps and Tramps about Ktaadn." *Harper's* opens with "Coast Rambles in Essex," in which Mr. Drake begins with Lynn and makes the most of a hard subject, for he contrives to overlook the contrast between the dull and rather sordid life of that city and its incomparable site and surroundings. Mr. Longfellow at Nahant could extract poetry from the "bells of Lynn," but the tone of the place to one living in the midst of it is far from poetical. There is a good popular account of Rubens in the third paper of the series entitled "Old Flemish Masters," with excellent illustrations of his works; and Mr. Arthur Venner's "Along the Havel" is an easy and entertaining description of the haunts of Prussian royalty. The reader can hardly resist sharing the hilarity of the group pictured as "The Emperor's Grenadiers." We may also mention in *Harper's*, brief as it is, Mr. F. H. Morse's "English Civil Service."

—Mr. Bishop's "Detmold," in the May *Atlantic*, having abandoned the easy-going pace of former instalments, now moves rapidly enough, and the pace seems almost a gallop when we learn that the dénouement will be reached in one more number. Thoreau's "May Days" have much the character of his April ones, suggesting even more than these, one would say, the writer's consciousness that the world was already looking over his shoulder when he made his natural-historic and metaphysical entries in his journal. There is a humorous bit of fancy evoked by the "first ring of the toad" (May 1, 1857, 2 P.M.):

"A new reign has commenced. Bufo the first has ascended the throne, the surface of the earth, marshalled into office by the south wind. Bufo, the double-chinned, inflates his throat. Attend to his message. Take off your great coats, swains, and prepare for the summer campaign. Hop a few paces further toward your goals. The measures which I shall advocate are warmth, moisture, and low-flying insects. . . ."

Nothing shows more acutely Thoreau's sensibility to Nature than the remark, "The first shadow is as noticeable and memorable as a flower," and indeed, the whole passage in which it occurs. Here, again, is a social memorandum well worth rescuing from the manuscript:

"A crowd of men seems to generate vermin even of the human kind. . . . There was the Concord muster of last September (1851). I still see a well-dressed man carefully and methodically searching for money on the muster-field far off across the river. I turn my glass upon him and notice how he proceeds. (I saw them searching in the fall till the snow came.) He walks, regularly and slowly, back and forth over the ground where the soldiers had their tents, still marked by the straw, with his head prone, and picking in the straw with a stick; now and then turning back or aside to examine something more closely. He is dressed, methinks, better than the average man whom you meet in the streets. How can he pay for his board thus? He dreams of finding a few coppers, or perchance half a dime, which have fallen from the soldiers' pockets, and no doubt he will find something of the kind, having dreamed of it. . . ."

We omit a good deal more than readers of the *Atlantic* will be justified in doing when we mention besides the above only Prof. Shaler's "The

Silver Question Geologically Considered," and the Furnivall-Lounsbury encounter over Chaucer. Prof. Shaler's account of the way in which gold and silver deposits are created through the agency of the sea, and of the probable accessible gold and silver areas in the world, is extremely interesting, but we do not find ourselves arriving at his conclusion that silver is a better natural standard than gold, or that a double standard is a desideratum. He seems to us to furnish a powerful argument to the contrary. Mr. Furnivall treats Mr. Lounsbury (who had ventured to criticise him) in a style which is perfectly met by the temperate steadfastness of his opponent, and the sincere homage paid to the older services of this dogmatic and irascible English scholar.

—*Lippincott's* for May is an exceptionally interesting number. The opening paper, "A Mountain Holiday," by Henry King, though its style is too clearly borrowed from the newspaper, is nevertheless a graphic and satisfactory sketch of an excursion from Pueblo to Garland, over the first section of the narrow-gauge Denver and Rio Grande railway, crossing the Sangre de Cristo range. The illustrations are striking and apparently new. Mr. Edward King's "In Roumanian Land" is a timely account of a country and people whose fortunes are just now exciting so much natural sympathy. Bucharest is the chief topic of it. Mr. King was puzzled by "the constant playing by the military bands of our old war-tunes, such as 'Tramp, tramp, tramp,' 'John Brown,' 'Mother, I've come home to die,' etc. At first it occurred to me that an American bandmaster might be among the musicians, but I could not discover one." Another singularity was the special color assigned to the police uniforms, letter-boxes, lamp-posts, etc., of each ward, a custom not without its uses and its picturesqueness, one would say. Two of the shorter stories we have enjoyed reading: Mr. William M. Baker's "His Excellency 'Old Ugly,'" and Mr. Henry James, jr.'s, "Théodolinde." Mr. Baker's tale is as usual about the South, and apparently Texas; and Southerners need not be ashamed of the hero. We cannot outline it here. "Théodolinde" describes the passion of an American lover of bric-à-brac for a Parisian hairdresser's wax-model and his efforts to purchase it; and the point of the story lies in his friend's supposing him to be enamored of the hairdresser's wife, and construing all his innocent remarks in a sense conformable to Parisian morals. The *double entente* is of a kind appropriate to the stage, though there would be difficulties in adapting the story for acting. As one reads it, the misunderstanding is too easily penetrated, while the neatness of the narrative hardly atones for the rather violent improbability of the leading incident. The joke seems inferior in point of invention to the lottery announcement (under Louis Philippe) of "a young girl, white as a lily and red as a rose" among the prizes, who turned out to be a Greuze.

—Under the certainly misleading title of "A Predecessor of Tennyson," Mr. H. A. Huntington contributes to this number a study of Colley Cibber, some time poet-laureate. It was a real misfortune for the quick-witted and lively dramatist and actor that he was a predecessor of Wordsworth and Tennyson, for he had hardly any of the qualifications expected in the holder of the poet-laureate's office. It was even a greater misfortune that he incurred the enmity of Pope, who, with an obtuseness and an unwillingness to lose a joke quite characteristic, transferred to him the leaden dulness he had at first, and none too accurately, bestowed on Theobald. It is curious to consider that those who know English poetry and not the English stage think of Cibber as a witless dullard, while those who are more familiar with the theatre than they are with Pope's verses remember Cibber as the author of one of the most delightful and valuable books ever written about the stage—'The Apology of the Life of Colley Cibber.' Mr. Huntington's paper will have served a good end if it send its readers to Cibber's own book, to which it is at once an ample epilogue and a fitting introduction. Mr. Huntington sets before us the mighty vanity of the man, but with no unkindly pen; and this is as it should be, for surely Cibber has need of gentle treatment just now that his long-lived adaptation of 'Richard III.' is at last thrust from the stage with contumely, and the general public finally reminded of the fact of Cibber's authorship of certain phrases—"Now, by St. Paul, the work goes bravely on!" and "Off with his head; so much for Buckingham!" and "Richard's himself again!"—which have for a century and more been masquerading as Shakspere's.

—"The Bells," given at the Fifth Avenue Theatre last week, is a story in dramatic form translated from one of Erckmann-Chatrian's pretty popular tales. The subject is, perhaps, better adapted to literary than to dramatic treatment, though we believe it has proved a great success on the Parisian stage, and on the London boards Mr. Henry Irving has recently made it familiar to English audiences. The title in the original is "Le Juif Polonais." The idea is that of a village burgomaster, rich, respected, and in every worldly way prosperous, yet haunted by the vision of a crime, the murder of a traveller, whom he had killed and robbed fifteen years before the time of the play. The gold of the murdered man has laid the foundation of his fortune; and his pretty daughter, *Annette*, is to be married to *George*, the rising and handsome officer of gendarmes. The father desires this marriage for two reasons: in the first place, the two young people love each other, and it is an excellent match; but besides this, the murderer, always racked by fear of detection, desires to have for his son-in-law the representative of the government, who, he knows, may at any time discover the criminal, and who, he feels, will never be able to deliver up to justice the father of his wife. The pair are betrothed, the marriage takes place, and all ends happily with the single exception that the father dies in a fit during the night immediately after the wedding; he dies respected and beloved; but the art of the story consists in the fact that we know what his family and friends now know, that his fit and death are brought on by his crime; and we see his death, not as his family and friends see it, but as it actually comes on in the crime-haunted visions of his own mind. The theatrical device by which this is effected can hardly be called happy. After the wedding is over he insists on sleeping in a particular room (he is afraid of talking in his sleep, and determined to pass the night where he cannot be overheard), where we see him partly undress and throw himself on the bed, when he is nearly concealed behind the heavy curtains. Thus he falls asleep, when the drop-scene, suddenly rising, discloses what is going on in his mind while asleep. Here we see a court-room, with three judges on the bench, a row of witnesses at the side, and the murderer, *Mathis*, on trial for his life for the murder of the Polish Jew. The trial is all gone through; the accused denies, protests, makes admissions which damage his case, and finally, thrown into a trance by a seer, confesses all, and is condemned to death. In order to have this done it is obviously necessary to have some one substituted for the burgomaster in the bed, where we see him restlessly tossing about, for the real burgomaster must go through his part in the dream. And again, when the dream is over, and his guilty conscience has actually killed him, he must be transported back to his bed again, and a re-substitution must take place, in order that his family, when hurrying to his relief in his final death-struggle, may find him in the room in which they left him. All this is very clumsy, as is also the device by which, in the first act, we are let into the secret of the murder by seeing a representation of a vision of the murder passing through the brain of the murderer himself, who is only twenty feet away from us, in a fit. In a dramatic story it is easy enough—or, at any rate, it is easy enough for masters of fiction like MM. Erckmann and Chatrian—to bring out the curious and striking contrast between the external success and virtue of the worthy burgomaster and his real conscience-haunted mental life. But of itself the contrast does not make a play, and the stage devices by which the contrast is made visible err on the side of being too sensational, just as the play itself does by being devoid of incident. There is really nothing in it but the acting of the murderer, and yet it shows how far from perfect a play may be and succeed, that this part, well done, is quite enough to make the whole remarkably interesting. Mr. Studley, who took the part at the Fifth Avenue, did not appear to have a very refined conception of the character of *Mathis*. It is essential to the idea of the story that his behavior and manner should be calculated not merely to disarm suspicion, but inspire respect and confidence. The murder is the one crime of his life. Mr. Studley made him a hardened criminal, who would have thought no more of murdering a Polish Jew than of eating his breakfast.

—The sixth annual report of the State Charities Aid Association contains the usual record of the Society's progress in some directions and its untiring efforts in others in which it has had less success. Nowhere have the efforts of the organization been productive of more visibly good results than in the hospitals, and particularly Bellevue, the present condition of which may be cited either in proof of the barbarous incompetence of the official management or of the wonderful success of a volunteer attempt to "ameliorate" that incompetence. Bellevue, of course, is merely a typical instance of what is going on all over the State. In the country districts it appears to be often the case that the necessity even of making a difference in treatment between the sick and well is not recognized by the local authorities. The society says: "In some of the poor-houses the sick and the well share the same room, and in others, where separate apartments exist, but little attention has been given to

ventilation; rarely are there responsible nurses or provisions for special diet." With regard to Bellevue, the case seems to be that as to care and nursing (provided to a great extent through the efforts of the Society) its rank is very high; the construction (the work of the city) is very faulty and dangerous to health, and opposed to all the best modern ideas on the subject. The Society has offered to furnish a plan for a new Bellevue conforming to the requirements of sanitary science; but hitherto, owing to the fact that the $30,000,000 annually derived from the taxes of the city is needed for objects of more importance than the systematic prevention of disease and crime, the offer does not appear to have been acted upon. On Blackwell's Island the Female Lunatic Asylum needs looking into. Here over thirteen hundred insane women are crowded into buildings intended for nine hundred and eighty-six; and though it is perfectly well known that for all mental diseases variety of scene, occupation, and change of air afford the best relief, these women live month after month, some of them year after year, "in the same halls on which their bed-rooms open, not having even a dining-room in the other part of the building; and their only recreation—that of walking in the open space about the asylum—is often curtailed for want of hats to shelter them from the sun, or shawls to protect them from the cold, or attendants to accompany them." With regard to able-bodied paupers, the Society reports that great abuses still prevail throughout the State, orders for relief being given for political purposes, and little investigation being made as to the real necessities of those who receive assistance. The idle naturally "prefer to go to the poormaster for an order for $10 than to apply for work," and occasionally aid is given even to persons owning considerable property. As the poormaster receives $2 for every visit and 25 cents for writing an order, his profits are increased by each visit he makes, and he thus has a direct interest in encouraging pauperism. The association appears to have suffered from the general financial depression, the gifts having fallen from $2,259 50 in 1876 to $1,310 in 1877; the subscriptions from $1,936 to $1,505. More money is needed, and we hardly know a charity which is so certain to spend wisely any money it receives.

—The Woman's Education Society of Boston has issued a circular letter of advice to "young women" of from fifteen to twenty, telling them what to read. The object is a good one; the books selected are generally within the capacity of the young reader, and the obvious American and feminine character of the list is not objectionable in a selection meant for American girls. But there is a good deal that is whimsical about it, and the Association seem to have made a special point of striking out from each of their half-a-dozen classes the principal work. There are a dozen or more works on art, but nothing of Ruskin's. There are as many books on science, but not the 'Origin of Species'; and there is nothing on philology. The long list of histories is overloaded with compilations of the school-book kind, like Smith's, but Lecky, Buckle, and Tylor are not mentioned, and there is none of those powerful essays like Froude's 'Calvinism,' Seelye's 'Roman Imperialism,' etc., which one would especially expect to find. The omission of Jewish and Christian history may have been an accident. In biography neither Mill, Martineau, Lewes, nor Forster appears worthy. In fiction the selection was, of course, more difficult, on account of the conflict of individual tastes; but surely there can be no doubt as to the pre-eminent claim of 'Middlemarch,' which is omitted The author of 'My Novel' should not be represented by 'Kenelm Chillingly' merely, which is in his most artificial vein; and Mrs. Edgeworth's over-instructive 'Absentees' takes the place that 'Belinda' should fill. Of novels of the day one finds only 'Realmah' and 'Noblesse Oblige,' the first a clever but unartistic and now lifeless work, and the other, though a charming story, half lost sight of in the crowd of nice English stories of the same class. Yet these are the only two given, while Turgeneff and Victor Hugo, Reade, Black, and Howells, Mrs. Oliphant, Mrs. Alexander, and Miss Thackeray are ignored.

—One class of literature, the dramatic, is (with the exception of Shakspere) quite overlooked. It would, of course, be unjust to suppose that the Association does not approve of Molière's "Tartuffe," Lessing's "Nathan the Wise," Dante's "Commedia," or Goethe's "Faust," but they do not recommend them here. Indeed, the poetical selection is of the hastiest character. The group of Lake poets surely deserved some mention. They may be overpraised sometimes, but "The Prelude" and "The Skylark" are not quite *passé*, and even Keats and Burns, Pope and Southey have some readable morsels that the Association might safely have picked out. With such omissions it is hardly worth while to suggest "Atalanta in Calydon," "Sigurd the Volsung," or Heavysege's "Saul." But we should like to ask any lady of the association who will turn to Allingham's 'Ballads,' and read "Childe Vyet," on p. 309, whether she thinks it a healthy or proper book to put in the hands of young girls. There are other selections—Moore's 'Ballad-Book,' for instance—which are perfectly pure, and at least as good otherwise as Allingham. We fear that nothing short of rewriting the list will make it of much value. If it be rewritten, room can hardly fail to be found for Holmes's 'Professor' and Goldsmith's 'Vicar,' for 'Religio Medici' and 'Pilgrim's Progress,' and some of those English essays, by Spencer, Arnold, and others, that are so deeply affecting the thought of our time.

—M. Barbey d'Aurevilly's 'Bas-bleus' is part of a series entitled 'XIVe siècle, les œuvres et les *hommes*.' The confusion of genders implied in treating of bluestockings in such a work reminds one of the English 'Men of the Time, *including Women*.' But the author protests that he is justified. "Women who write are no longer women; they are men, at least in intention, but *hommes manqués*." The first punishment for their jealousy of male genius is that they lose their own, the feminine genius of dress, that poetry in which they are at once the poem and the poet (whence their blue stockings). The second is that they no longer have the slightest right "aux ménagements respectueux qu'on doit à la femme." So M. Barbey d'Aurevilly, having a strong dislike to female writers—which is, to be sure, but a part of his antipathy to authors in general—has treated his victims *sans ménagement*. The result is an amusing book, if one likes bitter criticism and an evident intention of seeing only literary faults and moral defects. Only one escapes—Mme. de Staël—who is praised for not ceasing to be a woman in becoming an authoress. Of course no one goes to such a book to learn what George Sand and Mmes. Quinet, de Gasparin, de Guérin, and Craven really are. But if one wants to go back fifty years in literary atmosphere, and live again in the first quarter of our century, M. d'Aurevilly will assist the imagination to recall the time when women did not serve on school boards and in professors' chairs and in pulpits, and aspire to vote and be voted for.

—A timely publication, in connection with Jirecek's 'Geschichte der Bulgaren,' is the 'Geschichte der Serben,' translated by Prof. Schwicker from the Hungarian of Kállay, and published at Budapest. The entire work reaches the year 1815, the closing period of the Servian War of Independence (1780–1815) being worked out with especial fulness and excellence. The two numbers which we have received bring the history down to the year 1357, soon after the death of the great emperor, Stephen Dushan. The next following numbers will treat of the important and perplexing period of the Ottoman invasions and conquests. The pages before us contain a very full sketch of the primitive institutions of the Slavs, especially the Servian branch, and of the development and growth of the Servian monarchy. The annals of this kingdom are, like most of its class, rather thankless reading, and are not told in much detail; we have, however, in connection with them, a sketch of the process by which the principality grew out of the primitive family institutions, which is highly instructive in view of the interest that attaches, in this class of studies, to the present phase of these institutions in this same nationality. The author, Benjamin von Kállay, was formerly Austrian Consul-General at Belgrade, and has devoted years to preparation for his subject.

WOOLSEY'S POLITICAL SCIENCE.*

I.

DR. WOOLSEY'S book—our notice of which has been too long delayed—is divided into two parts, the speculative, and the historical or descriptive, or, as he himself calls it, the practical. The two parts are not distinctly separated, however, as a good deal of speculation, and not unnecessarily or improperly, runs through the description. The work taken altogether is a very important contribution to the literature of the subject—indeed, the most important American contribution to it since Calhoun's. That American contributions to this literature have not been more numerous and weighty, considering the extent to which politics has for the last century occupied the national mind, has often been mentioned as fair matter for surprise; but the truth is that the national mind is not fonder of speculation in politics than in other fields, and did most of its speculation once for a long time when the Government was founded.

* 'Political Science; or, the State, Theoretically and Practically Considered. By Theodore D. Woolsey, late President of Yale College.' 2 vols. New York: Scribner, Armstrong & Co. 1878.

The supreme wisdom and absolute power of the numerical majority were adopted at a very early period in the national history as the key to all political problems, and the only sure foundation for Government; and American political development has consisted, until the close of the late war, almost wholly in the embodiment of this idea in legislation. It is only within the last ten or fifteen years that there have been any signs of a desire to revise the propositions with which the Democratic party took possession of the Government, or to doubt their complete working efficacy. So that a book like Dr. Woolsey's is probably sure of more attention to-day than it would have secured at any time within the present century.

The portion of the work which we have called the speculative portion, and which is not confined to any material division of it, but has to be gathered from the author's comments on nearly every page, impresses us, however, as less clear and instructive than the historical and descriptive portion, which we shall notice hereafter. This defect is, it seems to us, due to his failure to decide fully and firmly at the outset on which of two theories he would treat the fundamental points of the rights of individuals and the nature and origin of the state. One of these theories considers man as a social animal endowed, it matters not why or by whom, with certain moral and mental faculties, and defines his rights in society as the necessary facilities for the free exercise of these faculties within the limits prescribed by the free exercise by his neighbors of their faculties. The same theory regards the state as an organization created by the social instinct of man for the supply of these necessary facilities for the free exercise of his faculties, or rather for his protection while exercising them. This theory, however, does not take notice of his origin or destiny, or make the state anything more than an association of men for certain mundane ends—a highly respectable association, it is true, from its permanence and its power, and the great volume of sympathy and pride of which it becomes, if we may use the term, the reservoir. This theory, too, decides whether a man is worthily playing his part as a citizen by the extent of his contributions to what his fellows regard as their welfare, and judges the success of the state by the degree in which it encourages or aids him in making these contributions.

Dr. Woolsey, indeed, in one place (vol. i. p. 213 *et seq.*) describes the state very much in these terms: "The state is, in truth, a large association stretching over a vast territory, acting by itself and empowering others to act, leaving individuals in their freedom, but providing for the numerous wants of a whole community. The interests of men demand unity of law and one power everywhere, in order that life may be on one undisturbed plan, so that a usurper who would introduce it where it was not would be submitted to in his lifetime and venerated afterwards." He then goes on to show that "humanity expresses itself in the state," which intensifies sympathy with suffering, and uses the powers of all to supply wants which only a part may ever feel.

The other theory considers man as not only a social, but a religious, animal, and his citizenship here as largely a sort of preparation for a better city which is to come in another life, and involving duties and responsibilities other than those which connect him with the political organization to which he belongs. It considers the state, too, as something more than an association of men, or, to use Dr. Woolsey's words, declares that it is "not the sum of its members, but something more, and is so for all time." Its right of punishment and administering justice does not rest on contract or "any such flimsy foundation." "Society, in short, has more wisdom and might than the sum of its members," and this wisdom and might come "from the state's being in the natural order of things God's method of helping men towards a perfect life" (vol. i. p. 195). Elsewhere, in elucidation of the same view, he lays it down that the only solid foundation for the state's primitive power is that "in punishing an evil-doer the state renders him his deserts." . . . "In other words, the state has the same power and right to punish which God has; it is, in fact, as St. Paul calls it, a minister of God to execute wrath upon him that doeth wrong" (vol. i. p. 354). Of course this makes the state not only "something more than the sum of its members," but vastly more. It makes it really, to use the old English phrase, a "most dread soverain," armed not only with great power, but with immeasurable wisdom and authority —in short, something awful, sacred, and mystic.

Now, the writer who holds one of these theories of man and of the state cannot use the same political tests and standards as a writer who holds the other. They do not weigh the merits of a citizen or the efficiency of a government in the same way: a man may seem to one a good citizen, who to the other will seem a very indifferent citizen, while a state which one will think a perfect organization, might to the other wear the appearance of an inquisitorial pretender. Dr. Woolsey very frankly states his own position in his introduction:

"Some things must be assumed in an essay like this. We assume the personality and responsibility of man as a free moral being. We assume also a moral order of the world, not founded on utilities that are in such a sense discoverable by man that he could construct a system of laws for human actions on them, however the divine Author of the world may have arranged it on such a plan. *We discard the greatest-happiness theory as of no use, nay, as harmful in the department of politics*, and believe that in human relations *there must be a distinction drawn between benevolence and justice*. At the same time we admit that happiness is an end which the individual and the state may rightfully aim at, and an important one, although subordinate to the rights and the ends contained in the perfection of human nature" (vol. i. p. 1–2).

The italics in the above are ours. It means—if we interpret it aright —that a body of men, however high their social and mental culture, could not construct a just state, either by the aid of political experience or by an examination of their own needs; that even if they so far succeeded as to provide themselves with what are considered the ordinary sources of political happiness, such as security, liberty, industrial prosperity, intellectual activity, opportunities of education and social advancement for all, the state might still be a failure, because it might still fail to provide for "the perfection of human nature."

This repudiation of the utilitarian test is so complete that De Maistre could hardly have made it more so. We were not prepared after reading it for the constant resort which Dr. Woolsey makes to this same test through the remainder of the work. He bases a man's claim to jural rights upon his "needs." Property is justified by the usefulness "to the life, growth, health, and existence of the human race" of the products of the industry which property stimulates or keeps alive. Contract is to be cherished because "it is essential to the development and advance of human society." In his chapter on "The Sphere and Ends of the State" our author claims *theoretically* the widest possible sphere of activity and interference for the state, but in discussing the "Limits to State Power" he applies the utilitarian test unsparingly, and for purposes of practice decides that the state is bound to provide courts of the Anglo-Saxon type for the administration of justice; that justice ought to be cheap, that prescription ought to give a good title, that the right of petition ought not to be restricted, that speech on the platform and in the press ought to be free, that taxation ought not to be laid without the consent of the taxpayer through his representatives, that there ought to be no special exemptions from public burdens, and so on, justifying himself in every case by the fact that these restrictions are called for by the convenience or feelings of the citizen. He condemns Socialism in like manner, by showing how it would result in actual working. He even goes so far as to concede that the state "may, without going out of its permitted path, not only protect religion in other ways, but may also support an established church." "At the same time," he adds, again applying the utilitarian test even to this, "I believe that as a practical question, for the present, in some societies, and for the future, probably, in all, men will come to the opinion that the institutions of religion can be best sustained by combinations of private persons." But why should an institution which stands in the place of God, and which is armed with the awful power of punishing men according to their deserts without regard to the visible effects of the punishment, and which is charged with the preparation of man for perfection, abdicate the function, from this point of view of overwhelming importance, of taking charge of the religious training of the citizen? Suppose "combinations of private persons" neglect the institutions of religion, and the state takes no responsibility in the matter, is it a just and true state? And, finally, why is "the opinion of men" on such a matter of any importance?

Dr. Woolsey nowhere points out where the final source of authority in a state in which the greatest-happiness principle is "of no use," or is only a subordinate consideration, is to be lodged. We have looked in vain through the work for even a hint of the place in which the statesmen or people should look for the oracle which is to tell them whether their institutions do or do not make for human perfection, and do or do not carry out God's ends in the creation of human society; and yet, if popular contentment and prosperity count for nothing, or but little, nothing is more necessary to good government than the existence and accessibility of some infallible source of light.

There is, however, nothing new in Dr. Woolsey's definition of a state. It is, in truth, that which has prevailed throughout the world down to our own day. Take a conspicuous example in modern times of the working of his theory: the France of Louis XIV. We do not by any

means wish to make this theory responsible for the enormities of that monarch, because we grant that cruelty and intolerance are not the necessary accompaniments of the theory. But that monarch had, nevertheless, a political ideal which, taken in its best aspect, we find it difficult to distinguish from Dr. Woolsey's; that is, he held that the end of the state was the working out of God's purposes, in the production of human perfection, and he held that the happiness or contentment of his subjects was a subordinate consideration. He sought, therefore, as part of the proper discharge of this great function, and sought it with sincerity, to establish in his dominions complete unity of belief regarding the fundamental problems of human existence; and in order to produce this he inflicted punishment, *in loco Dei*, according to his notion of the deserts of the criminal, and without any reference to the effect of it on the popular mind, on public tranquillity, or on the national industry. The French Protestants emigrated by the hundred thousand, and whole provinces were desolated by military execution, and France was rapidly prostrated before her enemies; but the king's intentions being good, and the bulk of the people supporting him, on what theory but the utilitarian one can we condemn his course? "My people are not happy," he might say; "but what difference does that make? The chief end of government is not happiness." The fact is that, seductive as Dr. Woolsey's theory of the state is, and elevating as the contemplation of it is to many minds, it contains the fatal spring from which many of the greatest and most wide-spread of human woes have flowed. The authority of the state has, after all, to be exercised by a small body of commonplace mortals, for whom it is useless to claim God's wisdom in inflicting punishment any more than his power in shaping human destiny; and, however august their mission may be, they need to be saved from themselves by the constant reminder that their work will be judged now and here, and by purely mundane considerations.

MRS. LAMB'S HISTORY OF NEW YORK.*

THIS first completed volume of the history of our city brings its story down to the opening of the War of Independence. The author has spared no labor in research, and from many original sources has gathered a great variety of details, and has woven them into a distinct continuous history of New York, as far as the annals of a mere colony can furnish one. Any one who really believes it is time to cry "Ilium fuit" over a city that has been ruled by Dutch and English for two centuries, and by Irish for half a generation only, may be reassured by the clear and vigorous development in these pages of the solid grounds for confidence in New York's greatness.

No wonder that of all the thirteen colonies New York was the one best loved and last resigned by the English. It was the only one they won in war. Its community reflected the ways and thoughts of home better than Virginia without commerce, or Massachusetts without a church. Most of its children were England's step-sons, rivalling her own race in thrift and spirit, and more genial and liberal. What Holland founded it was England's part to improve, but fortunately she could not efface it. Between this and the other provinces there existed many great differences, which bring its colonial history into marked relief. For foreign commerce it was not merely the best port, but also the half-way house to the West Indies and the South. For inland trade it commanded the great waterway northward, and the only natural passes through mountain walls to the West. The enterprise nursed by this position grew into courage and skill in the wars and dangers to which the shape of the country exposed it, where the other colonies were relatively safe. Mountains sheltered the southern and eastern provinces against attack from scattered and weak tribes. Close on the flank of New York hung a formidable confederation of warlike savages, and on the north it was circled by the fortresses of the mother country's watchful enemy, eager to pour its trained forces down through Lake Champlain, called by its Indian allies, as if in prophecy of many wars, "the door of the country." Many of the names and events recorded in these pages tell of feats of arms, keen diplomacy, devotion of wealth and life, smaller in scale but not less great in nature than those the contemporary history of the great world across the ocean recalls.

To win the best from these outward advantages, and to guard against these outward perils, was possible by reason of the happy freedom from oppression or dissension within the gates of the city. The rule of Amsterdam, if not always liberal, was always wise and kindly. And though there were constant disputes with England about imposts, and though many of the royal governors retired rich with plunder and detested, yet, on the whole, in dealing with these stiff-necked Dutchmen her colonial policy was forced to concessions, and to such liberality as the ideas of the age could admit. It was through the general moderation of early English rule that New York grew strong and bold enough to resist later injustice. Above all, religious toleration, prevailing in bright contrast to the temper of the times, kept firm peace among the industrious people. The English found an established church, supplied with a learned clergy, and sustained by the solid inhabitants. They planted an overshadowing new one, without rooting up the old, or excluding later and other religious growths. Once in New York history, in 1689, a political adventurer availed himself of the prejudice against papists, and once, in 1700, a cruel law existed, as a defence of state against Jesuit intrigues with the savages, but we do not read that it ever was enforced. Forty years later Jews were disfranchised, and so were all men who were not freeholders; but neither they nor any other religious sect as such were ever molested in New York, nor the freedom of conscience ever visited with persecution here by the consent of government.

Another striking difference between the rest of the provinces and New York was the co-existence of great landed estates with great commercial activity. The whole country was, of course, originally occupied by means of grants from the prince, or company, or chief proprietor, Plymouth Bay excepted. But while in Virginia the great landholder cultivated his acres on a large scale with his own slaves, and while in New England, if he existed at all, he parcelled out his possessions among colonies of farmers, in New York he kept his domain almost under feudal conditions. Under the Dutch government grants of territory from the company were increased by vast purchases, not always free from fraud, from the Indian holders. The practice continued and increased when the province became English. Owners of patents carried on extensive and profitable trade with the natives, while prosperous merchants converted their fortunes into great manors, and needy governors amassed wealth by speculations in grants. The Dutch authorities early endeavored in vain to break up the system. The English attacked its abuses, grown so serious that in 1700 Lord Bellomont complained that all government land was granted away, much of it in tracts from twenty to forty miles square, and attempted to annul all these titles and to prohibit any person from holding over a thousand acres. The policy was doubtful in the young colony. Commerce was stimulated, settlements encouraged, and the public credit often sustained by these great landholders. They were the capable actors in public affairs. They formed a nucleus of resistance to power whenever the need of it came. Those relics of the system which were the seed of anti-rent troubles in our own time only became evil through political intrigue. Many of these vast estates melted away for lack of entail; some of the largest perished by confiscation; but others, remaining as the foundation of the most solid fortunes and the most substantial families in the city of New York to-day, attest the vigor and forecast of the men who ruled the affairs of the colony before the last century began.

This persistence of families, however, depended more upon race than upon wealth. The peculiarity which most distinguished New York from all the other colonies was the mingling of races among its earlier settlers. Holding the province and the town for two generations, the Dutch character struck root too deeply and firmly to be ever eradicated. When the colony changed masters, it was through a Scotchman allying himself with the chief Dutch family that English influence first became dominant in its affairs and society. A very few years later, the son of a Norman nobleman, marrying also the daughter of a great Dutch proprietor, founded a line which gave a succession of able and distinguished men to the colony. Alongside of these two great houses, issuing from Dutch alliances, many of the Holland colonists continued to hold equal place in wealth, social importance, and public service. Descendants of all these families remain at this day, and among the deluge of later immigrants that swell the multitudes in our streets they maintain the distinctive character of their ancestors, and compose that genuine, substantial New York which strangers hardly understand. It is not easy to trace the lines separating citizens into the different parties that contended, with the usual political rancor, throughout colonial times. But it is clear that an aristocracy, though often divided against itself, usually prevailed in the management of affairs, and that New York at the date of the Revolution is fitly described by the author as a nest of families. Germans were among the later immigrants. There is no trace of their influence in the earlier history of the colony, except in the strange instance of Leisler,

* 'History of New York. By Martha J. Lamb.' Vol. I. New York: A. S. Barnes & Co. 1877.

also connected by marriage with a Dutch family. John Peter Zenger, a German who became conspicuous in 1735 as the object of a trial famous in America and in England, which established the right of a jury to try the truth of a libel, came into the country *in formâ pauperis* only after 1700.

That singular episode of Leisler's usurped government is treated by Mrs. Lamb with fulness and candor. It is impossible to avoid the conclusion that Leisler, while energetic and capable, was arbitrary and narrow, perhaps a self-deceived enthusiast, but more probably an aspiring demagogue. It remains a puzzle, to be explained only on the ground of his family connection, by what means and what supporters he was able to seize power and retain it near two years, opposed by the wealth and ability of the province. His career was a political crime, but his execution as clearly a political blunder, followed by dissensions disastrous to the prosperity of New York for a generation.

This volume closes the colonial history of the city, and pictures it on the eve of the Revolution, with its merchants and lawyers united for resistance, its landholders divided between loyalty and the new patriotism. The author asserts for New York equal claims with Massachusetts for beginning the Revolution. The question of precedence is unimportant. One fire kindled all hearts in the provinces, and it matters little where or how the flame first broke out. The coming volume will deal with more complex subjects, difficult in proportion to their nearness to our own time. As to all that belongs to the past, this record offers a mine of varied, interesting, and, for the most part, authentic information, indispensable to the student who would know how the city of New York came to be what it is from what it has been, and who looks beyond its present with the hope of a better future.

One general caution we would give Mrs. Lamb's readers. She is not a professional genealogist, and she doubtless has not had time, we do not say to verify the pedigrees claimed by or for the old New York families, but to make such researches as would put her on her guard in following private or public authority. She has relied chiefly on Holgate's 'American Genealogy,' and we might easily point out a number of wild and unfounded statements which she has been led into. Thus, she makes the founder of the Kip family (Hendrick Kip, a tailor) a member of the distinguished family of De Kype of Bretagne, for which there is not a particle of evidence (see Purple's 'Kip Genealogy,' p. 1). A similar want of accuracy is discernible in some of the illustrations in which this History abounds. On page 47, for example, appears a view of the "West India Company's House"; but the building represented is of no interest whatever to New Yorkers, inasmuch as it was not occupied by the Company until 1674, at which time all connection between that corporation and New York had ceased for ten years. The building which should (and might) have been depicted is the butchery and weigh-house on the Haarlemmer Straat, Amsterdam, hired by the Company in 1631 and converted to their uses, and occupied till 1647, when their declining fortunes compelled them to surrender it for an inn, and transfer themselves to the six-year-old warehouse on the Oude Schans. Here they remained till 1674, the year of their dissolution, and on their speedy reorganization they took the building on the Cingel, of which Mrs. Lamb shows us not the exterior, but the interior court. The portrait on p. 259 purports to be that of Admiral Cornelis Evertsen, the conqueror of New York in 1673, but it is of a quite different character, though rightly having the same name affixed. The original, as the plate itself shows, died in 1679; the conqueror of New York in 1706. Similarly, the portrait of Robert Livingston on p. 395 is erroneously assigned to the first lord of the manor; it represents a much later member of the family.

Proverbs in Porcelain, and Other Verses. By Austin Dobson. "Majores majora sonent." (London: Henry S. King & Co. 1877. Crown 8vo, pp. 203.)—The six proverbs in porcelain which give name to this volume are little poems suggested by French sayings, and set off by neatly-turned dialogue, retort, and repartee full of the spirit of

> "The little great, the infinite small thing
> That ruled the hour when Louis Quinze was king.
>
> "For these were yet the days of halcyon weather—
> A martin's summer when the nation swam,
> Aimless and easy as a wayward feather,
> Down the full tide of jest and epigram;
> A careless time, when France's bluest blood
> Beat to the tune of 'After us the flood,'"

as Mr. Dobson himself wrote in the "Story of Rosina." Much of the rest of the volume is filled with *vers de société* of the above type and with verses for pictures. But what is most curious is Mr. Dobson's frequent attempt to transplant to harsher Saxon verse the metrical forms of the earlier French poets revived of late in France, under the impetus of Hugo, by M. Théodore de Banville and his immediate followers. How many readers of English verse know what "triolets" are, or "rondels," or "villanelles"? From 'Proverbs in Porcelain' they can get instruction in these and in the "rondeau" (which Leigh Hunt misunderstood), and even in the "pantoum," a most peculiar Malayan verse, which Hugo brought to the notice of the literary world in the notes to his 'Orientales.' It seems to be a form of extreme difficulty; it consists of a succession of four-line stanzas the second and fourth lines of each stanza reappearing as the first and third of the next stanza. To employ these forms and most of their kindred is but a dancing in fetters at best; we admire the skill with which a difficult thing is done rather than value the thing itself. Théophile Gautier, to be sure, thought differently, and in a poem which Mr. Dobson has here very happily rendered he wrote:

> "Oui, l'œuvre sort plus belle
> D'une forme au travail
> Rebelle,
> Vers, marbre, onyx, émail."

But the rondeau stands on a different footing; it is but little more difficult than the sonnet, and has a fair chance of gaining general acceptance. As an example of its form we cite the graceful rondeau with which Mr. Dobson closes his volume of verse:

> "WHEN FINIS COMES.
>
> "When *Finis* comes, the book we close,
> And somewhat sadly Fancy goes
> With backward step from stage to stag
> Of that accomplished pilgrimage. . . .
> The thorn lies thicker than the rose!
> There is so much that no one knows,
> So much unreached that none suppose;
> What flaws! what faults! on every page,
> When *Finis* comes.
>
> "Still—they must pass! The swift tide flows.
> Though not for all the laurel grows,
> Perchance, in this be-slandered age,
> The worker, mainly, wins his wage;
> And Time will sweep both friends and foes
> When FINIS comes!"

Travels West. By William Minturn. New edition. (London: Samuel Tinsley.)—This book, by a citizen of New York who has passed a considerable part of his life in Europe, is the record of a journey from New York to San Francisco and back, and there is a curious mixture of European methods of viewing, with a cordial admiration which is, we believe, without precedent in any English traveller in this country. One thing which people at the East find it difficult to realize is the amount of wealth and luxury which is accumulating in the West. Mr. Minturn does full justice to this. Theatres, orchestras, buildings, decorations, notwithstanding his European experience, meet with hearty approval, and one is a little staggered by such an outburst as this about Chicago: "Wonder of wonders! a second Florence, with a magnificent lake instead of the muddy Arno"—and when he fancies himself shot from a pneumatic tube into the heart of Paris. He omits, however, to dwell upon the element of superiority which the schoolboy claimed for his father's house over that of his fellow's—namely, that it had a mortgage on it. Youthful optimism again stands out rather strongly in this remark upon the Mormons: "A people with only one vice appreciable by the general observer—and that vice a mode of religious opinion in regard to marriage reduced to practice—may be considered tolerably respectable as communities go."

The most enthusiastic lover of his country must admit that travelling in the United States is rather monotonous, and that to make it of much interest requires either unusual powers of observation, insight, and description, or else the conflict of impressions with preconceived habits of mind, as in the case of a European born and bred. It is not surprising, therefore, that in the present case the catalogue of stations on the Pacific Railroad should be somewhat of the guide-book order. Still, it is chatty, mixed with anecdote, and not unpleasant reading. The wonders of San Francisco and the Chinese quarter, of the Yosemite Valley and the agricultural resources of California, are duly detailed. If the state of things described by Mr. Minturn as taking place in a Pullman car on the Chicago and Northwestern Railroad, on his return, by which, in resenting gross insults from the colored porter, he had his face covered with blood and his eyes nearly knocked out amid the applause of the passengers and the conductor—if this account is correct, there are features of Western travel not set down in the guide-books, and which still maintain the traditions of the stage-coach and the bar-room.

The Historic Mansions and Buildings of Philadelphia. With some notice of their owners and occupants. By Thompson Westcott. (Philadelphia : Porter & Coates. 1877.)—In this handsome volume of landmarks both those still standing and those removed are comprehended. Independence Hall, Carpenters' Hall, the Friends' Almshouse, Penn's Cottage, the Chew House, Bartram's House, Arnold's Mount Pleasant, the Washington Mansion and the General's headquarters at Valley Forge, the Swedes' Church, Christ Church, the Philadelphia Library, the First Bank of the United States, are some of the subjects of Mr. Westcott's chapters, which are of a kind made familiar to us by the magazines of the day, and, to tell the truth, better adapted for occasional reading than for steady perusal. The writer's object is to gather in every fact of interest or person of note related, however remotely, to his theme ; and the mind, while it may be amused in receiving them, becomes very quickly fatigued when it undertakes to digest the disconnected particulars. Superficial such work is apt to be, but none the less it presupposes at least great diligence and painstaking on the author's part, and deserves some of the honor bestowed on historical research of a higher order. Mr. Westcott's performance is fully up to the average, whether in point of laborious compilation or of literary style, and his book should find a ready sale outside of Philadelphia as well as at home. The illustrations are not all that could be desired. Those depicting buildings that have disappeared of course had to be taken where they could be found, as from Watson's 'Annals,' etc. ; but the heliotype might surely have been employed for the buildings that remain. The cut on p. 148, purporting to represent Stenton, gives no idea whatever of the place, which is one of the most notable on the list. This is perhaps the worst example, however, and of other cuts of the same class it can only be said that a permanent photograph would have been preferable. It is privately known that a number of ardent Philadelphians have taken in hand the accurate measurement of their best old houses—not all of them "historic" in Mr. Westcott's sense, but all meriting the compliment of the tape-measure as honest architecture having a lesson to deliver to a later and degenerate age. Their drawings, when published, will, we hope, be accompanied by heliotype views of exteriors and interiors.

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, MAY 9, 1878.

The Week.

THE two great events of the week, if we may judge from the amount of space they have occupied in the press, have been the death of John Morrissey and the excursion of the Coaching Club to Philadelphia. "Politics" is a very queer place, but probably nothing odder has ever occurred in it than the lamentations over Morrissey, whose career we have discussed elsewhere. The coaching excursion seems to have nearly driven the Philadelphians wild with excitement; the streets through which the coach entered the city having been lined, it is estimated, with seven thousand to ten thousand carriages, and about sixty thousand people. The sensation produced along the road through New Jersey seems to have been proportionately great. The trip was carried out by stationing relays of horses along the route, having each member drive his own team for one stage. It is questionable, however, whether the result, as far as the spectators were concerned, was not disappointing. The English mail-coach is not an impressive vehicle to the average American mind. It is not large enough to produce the impression of great strength and capacity, and not light enough to seem fitted for great speed, and is too plain in paint or decoration for splendor. Then it has none of the associations which have done so much to make coaching an amusement in England. So that it is not surprising that a good many of the farmers who drove their families long distances to see the coach go by, and expected to see something in the nature either of a circus car or a royal state carriage, went home disgusted.

There is apparently a good deal of Communism in the air if nowhere else. The theoretical Communists have held a May meeting in this city, small, it is true, in numbers but bold in doctrine, at which the speeches gave a fair indication of the kind of notions which are afloat among large numbers of the needy and discontented, though most of them were worthy of a lunatic asylum. Some want all property divided; others want it appropriated by the state; some think fifteen minutes a day as much as anybody ought to work; others would toil for four hours. All lauded the Mollie Maguires and strikers of last summer, and there seems to be a widespread desire for "blood," some calling for it only ankle deep and others up to "the bridles of the horses." Some advocated a strict "neutrality" on the part of soldiers and police whenever there was a strike going on. Most of them are in favor of "free love," or, as they put it, "the right of women to choose the fathers of their children"—or, more properly, the father of each of their children. Many swore in their orations, and spiced them with what "the Money Power" calls indecency. They all want unlimited money issued by the Government, to be lent indiscriminately without interest or security; they want Baxter Street put on a level with Fifth Avenue, and one recommended the slaughter of Mr. Astor. In fact, there was nothing which society as now constituted condemns which some speaker did not advocate, except the practice of going about naked. It is, perhaps, fortunate that they can be induced to express their views publicly.

From other quarters the news is more serious. There appears to be little doubt that in Cincinnati, St. Louis, Chicago, and in Pennsylvania mining districts there is some kind of preparation going on for another outbreak this summer, with more concert of action and better means of resistance. There is, evidently, more or less arming and drilling, but probably far less than has been reported. June is said to be the time fixed for the rising and the beginning of social regeneration, and the tramps are all getting ready for a joyous summer. To complicate matters, the Fenians are reported to be preparing for another attempt to overthrow the British Empire with the aid of Russia, but it will probably go no further than the filling of the "military chest" by the unhappy servant girls, who are probably now hearing nightly tales of the way Canada is to be invaded and British commerce swept off the seas, by powerful bodies of liquor-dealers and "baggage-smashers" from this city. Probably no great political swindle now on foot is so heartless and contemptible as this one, and none has been so successful, for it is said that over $600,000 has been raised, from first to last, towards the destruction of Great Britain, and all from the savings of the very poor, and it has all been spent by two or three score of hulking adventurers on their own clothes, whiskey, and tobacco.

We can hardly call Packard's appointment as Consul to Liverpool—an unexceptionable officer having been removed to make way for him—a contribution to "thorough, radical, and complete reform of the Civil Service," and yet we acknowledge that it is a great gain to get him out of the country. He was one of the worst of the Louisiana politicians. He was United States Marshal during the most disgraceful period of the carpet-bag régime, and was the person who obtained the celebrated "midnight order" from the disreputable Judge Durell, and under it organized the Legislature with the aid of United States troops. In fact, there was no trick or rascality of that period in which he had not a hand. His career then ought, in fact, to have disqualified him for any other office, but it has been felt that something must be done for him, as well as the other Southern politicians whom the President's "policy" has ruined. In Europe he will be spared the pain which Mr. William E. Chandler described as so hard for a "thoughtful man," of looking for outrages and hearing of none.

Mr. Blaine, we regret to say, has been "straddling" again, this time the timber question. He has written a letter, of course not for publication, to a friend in Maine, but of course it was published with "perfect propriety" in the *Maine State Press*. In it he says—after giving a grossly misleading incorrect account of his conflict with Mr. Schurz, concealing the fact that he attacked Mr. Schurz for executing the existing law, and falsely suggesting that all that Mr. Schurz did was to pursue settlers who cut wood for their own use on unsurveyed public lands, and making the directly false statement that "the only issue he had with Mr. Schurz was that raised by the bill he [Mr. Blaine] introduced and passed"—that "the report that he declared it a reproach to Mr. Schurz that he was born in Prussia is too absurd to notice with serious contradiction." Now, this is evasion. He made no such "declaration" as he here cites, but he did give as a probable reason why Mr. Schurz persecuted "the deserving frontiersmen" the fact that he probably had in his mind the oppressive land-laws of his native country, to which he was used in his boyhood, and he sneered at Prussia as a smaller country than Montana, and therefore presumably unfit to be the birthplace of an officer charged with the protection of the Montana timber. The letter proves only one thing, and that is that he is sorry for having made these allusions to Prussia and would like to get out of the scrape they caused him without having to make "a serious contradiction." We have already pointed out how the Prussians deal with such gentlemen as Mr. Blaine, and it is not surprising that he considers Prussia an odious birthplace.

The Bankrupt Bill came up again in the Senate on Wednesday week, and found an easy majority in favor of amendment. Two were passed, fixing the date of operation of the repeal at January 1, 1879, and exempting all cases now pending or future proceedings growing out of the Bankrupt Law, and the bill was then referred to the Judiciary Committee, to be put in shape on these conditions. It was reported back on Thursday, but was objected to by Mr. Voorhees, and so went over. The date fixed, of course, gives Congress a chance at the next session to modify the law as it now stands, and

so perfect it that it will answer the permanent needs of the country. The House bill prohibiting the retirement of greenbacks secured a second reading in the Senate by a vote of 34 to 23. On the same day, Tuesday, the Pension Appropriation Bill was passed. Mr. Blaine's resolution about the inopportuneness and great injuriousness of altering the tariff at this time met with opposition when he attempted to call it up on Wednesday week, and it was postponed. On Tuesday, in the House, Mr. Wood, by a bare majority of one (109 to 108), succeeded in bringing his Tariff Bill before the Committee of the Whole, and debate upon it began with a speech from Mr. Banks, who takes Mr. Blaine's view of the measure. Its fortunes now wear a rather desperate look. The House has passed a bill to provide the District of Columbia with a permanent government, consisting of three appointed commissioners and a council of twenty-four elected by popular suffrage, and these two bodies absorb the functions of the several boards of health, police, fire, etc., now existing.

The latest contribution to the silver controversy is a pamphlet from M. Henri Cernuschi on "the Bland Bill," as he calls the Silver Bill as passed, "its grounds, its alleged dishonesty, its imperfections, and its future." Most of the ground he goes over is now so well trodden that we need not follow him particularly, as he devotes himself mainly to the history of the measure, and is in places too dithyrambic for argument, as where he pronounces mono-metallism, "with all its triumphs, and all its pride, always impotent, always unrealizable, always disastrous, and always inhuman." It is language of this sort, so closely resembling the rhetoric of the encyclicals, which has procured for him the sobriquet of the "Bi-metallic Pope," and causes the European "Gold Sharps" to smile when his name is now mentioned. He has adopted the Western story about the secret passage of the Coinage Act of 1873, but has slightly improved upon it by saying "that it is even alleged not to have been regularly voted." The Sons of Thunder, we believe, never denied that it was put to the vote; this was too much even for the trimetallic Kelley.

What interests us, and will most interest the silver-men, is what he says about the future working of the bill. At present its Western friends are in a state of childlike delight over it, and think that because gold did not rise before silver came into circulation, they have got such a capital joke on the New York papers. We get letters from them now and then telling what laughs they have over the false predictions of the *Tribune* and the *Post*. We now ask them to observe that silver has fallen since the passage of the bill, and remains still below fifty-four pence per ounce, and then to listen to what their friend M. Cernuschi says will happen in case the European nations do not join us in adopting the double standard:

"France will be unable to put in force again her bi-metallic law at 15½; if she resumed mintage at 15½ the United States, governed by their law at 16, would immediately stop manufacturing silver dollars, and silver would be exported from America to France, as happened for the same reason from 1834 to 1874. France, therefore, will not coin, and the United States will end, even if they keep to limited mintage, by having an abundant silver circulation. Silver will drive away gold, and *de facto* they will be silver-mono-metallists, as before 1834. In short, Europe will no longer coin anything but gold, the United States and Asia will have only silver money."

He adds that "the gold-money nations at home and the silver-money nations at home will pay with facility," but "between gold-money nations and the silver-money nations payments will be difficult, slow, always liable to heavy losses." In other words, we shall be in the position towards Europe which we have occupied during the last sixteen years with our unredeemable paper. As yet there is no sign of the slightest disposition on the part of the great commercial countries to join us in the silver movement, so the end appears pretty certain.

The Syndicate of bankers which, on the 11th of April, bargained for $50,000,000 U. S. 4½ per cent. bonds, taking $10,000,000 "firm" and having the option to take the remaining $40,000,000 in monthly instalments of $5,000,000, during the week took the $10,000,000 due in the months of June and July. This makes $25,000,000 already taken and leaves $25,000,000 on option. The Syndicate have sold the bonds at the rate of about $1,000,000 per day, and if the sales keep up at this rate the entire $50,000,000 will be marketed before July. The proceeds of the sales of these bonds are held for resumption purposes and are not reinvested in 5.20 6 per cent. bonds. Perhaps the most surprising result of the $50,000,000 negotiation with the Syndicate on the 11th of April has been the stimulus given to the demand for 4 per cent. bonds. These are sold by popular subscriptions, and the proceeds of their sales are used in buying 5.20 6 per cent. bonds, or for refunding purposes. Enough 4 per cents have been sold to enable the Treasury to notify the holders of $10,000,000 5.20 bonds that they will be redeemed; the first notification or call was for $5,000,000, and was issued on May 1; the second call was for 5,000,000, and was issued May 6. The inference is that the demand for U. S. bonds is now fully $2,000,000 per day, and about equally divided between 4 and 4½ per cent. bonds. A strange feature is that there are so many buyers for the 4 per cents when the 4½ per cents at 102 gold and accrued interest—the current price—are more than 1 per cent. cheaper than the 4 per cents. The large demand for bonds shows great confidence in the ultimate honesty of the people, whose mere promise to pay is all that these bonds consist of. Silver in London fell during the week to 53⅜*d.* per ounce. Here the bullion value of the new silver dollar fell to $0.9106 gold.

The Boston "tax-dodgers" (or, in other words, the citizens who try to escape taxation in that city by acquiring a legal residence in suburban towns) have received a heavy blow in the decision of two tax cases involving the legal principle on which "tax-dodging" is based. Messrs. John H. Wright and William F. Weld, the latter one of the largest property-owners in Boston, selected Nahant, a town whose annual tax-levy is a mere trifle, as their domicile, and as the Boston assessors continued to tax them as residents of Boston they paid their tax-bills under protest, and brought suit to recover the amount. The cases were tried in Essex County (so that no local considerations of municipal advantage can be supposed to have influenced the jury), and the law was stated with great fairness by the judge who tried them. The law, as given to the jury by him, is not new, and may be summed up as follows (it applies probably to many other States besides Massachusetts): a man is taxed where he has his domicile; his domicile is his home, the place where he lives. He cannot have two homes or domiciles, and the question of his legal domicile is to be determined by all the facts of the case. He is entitled to change his home; but a mere notification to the assessor of a town, or any other act of the sort, does not effect a change of itself. In short, the answer to the question, Where is a man's legal domicile? would be identical with the answer to the ordinary question of common life, Where does he live? The jury in these cases decided that Messrs. Weld and Wright (though they had displayed considerable ingenuity in endeavoring to effect a change of legal residence) had not ceased to live in Boston; and accordingly a verdict was rendered in favor of the city.

The Paris Exposition was formally opened on Wednesday, May 1, according to the official programme, although there was the usual degree of backwardness on the part of the builders and exhibitors, for which strikes were to some extent responsible. The distinguished visitors who made up Marshal MacMahon's suite were chiefly the Princes of Wales and Orange, and ex-King Amadeus. M. Teisserenc de Bort, the Minister of Commerce, read a short address which emphasized the significance of the Exposition as both in fact and in intent a proof of the peaceful aims of the republic, of its confidence in its own stability, and of the sympathy of foreign nations. The Marshal then declared the Exposition open amid much enthusiasm. It consists of two parts, separated by the Seine: on the Trocadero height, a crescent-shaped palace permanently dedicated by the city of Paris to the fine arts; in the Champ de Mars, at the opposite extremity of the Bridge of Jena, the Main Exhibition

building, of enormous dimensions—the customary gardens with detached national buildings intervening. It will be some time before we can judge accurately the rank of this Exhibition as compared with preceding ones, but the fact that Germany, Turkey, and Egypt are unrepresented shows how great a disadvantage has to be overcome. The United States exhibit was set up with remarkable efficiency and promptness, and though it takes a place in the second class, it is reported the most creditable ever attempted in Europe; it has filled well a meagre space, instead of half and discreditably filling too liberal an area, as at Vienna. Perhaps, also, the phonograph will secure for this country an eminence which will satisfy our national pride.

The negotiations between England and Russia with regard to the Congress are still going on, Germany acting as mediator, but there is no news worth repeating as to the progress made, though the chances seem to be favorable to peace. Prince Bismarck, fearing the possible break-up of the negotiations through a collision between the forces of the two Powers at Constantinople, has been urging a simultaneous withdrawal of the fleet and army to points previously agreed upon, and efforts have been making in this direction, but the difficulty of settling on an equivalent amount of retreat on both sides has thus far prevented any result. The Russians want to be sure they can get back to Constantinople as quick as the fleet, and the British to be sure that if they repass the Dardanelles they can get back at all. The Turks, on the other hand, say they cannot surrender Shumla and Varna until Russia gives up Adrianople; and so the drama drags along, nobody being willing to trust anybody else very far. The Pomak insurrection in Bulgaria has grown more formidable, but General Todleben, who has been left in command in Bulgaria, has taken vigorous measures for its repression. There is no news of a decided character from Austria, and it looks as if the suspicion that she was holding off in order to see what was going to happen, and be able to make good terms before moving, was well founded.

In Russia public attention has been almost diverted from the war by what is called the Vera Sasulitch affair. One of the most remarkable features in the strange socialistic upheaving which is going on in the upper class of Russian society is the eagerness and even frenzy with which the new ideas are swallowed by young women, and one of these *exaltées*, Vera Sasulitch, hearing that a political prisoner had been brutally flogged by order of the Chief of Police, General Trepoff, for disrespect in his manner, determined to shoot the general, and did shoot him at his office, wounding him seriously but not fatally. She was tried by a jury which was undoubtedly packed to convict, seven of the members being wearers of decorations, and all belonging to the upper classes; but she was promptly acquitted, and left the court amidst thunders of applause. The Emperor is said to have been much troubled by the incident, but Trepoff has been removed, and it still remains to be seen whether the Court will ally itself with the peasantry and the army against the educated class, or adapt its policy to the change in opinion.

There have been other disturbances showing the wide-spread prevalence of the same spirit of revolt against authority. An émeute among the students of the University of Kiev led to the expulsion of one hundred, and the exile of sixteen of them to Siberia, and since then the rector has been assaulted in the college and badly beaten. The exiles, on their way through Moscow, were, on the other hand, attacked by a mob in the streets and severely handled, in spite of the efforts of the guard. In Odessa seven persons of both sexes resisted an attempt of the police and soldiers to arrest them for political offences. "Nihilism," or whatever it is that is at the bottom of all these troubles, is clearly too subtle and impalpable an influence to be dealt with by the police. The accounts of them are sending the public in other European countries eagerly to Turgeneff's books, and notably 'Virgin Soil,' for an explanation of the crisis, which his descriptions of character often clearly foreshadow.

There seems very good reason for believing that Lord Derby's resignation and the powerful speech which followed it have helped to produce a decline of the war feeling in England—or, in other words, to both sober and discredit the "Jingo party," as the Russophobists are now called. At important elections which have since occurred—Northumberland County and the borough of Tamworth—the war issue was distinctly raised by the Liberal candidates, and the Conservatives utterly routed on their own ground. In Tamworth, which is an old Tory borough much influenced by the Peel family, the head of which is now a strong "Jingo" man, the defeat of the Conservative candidate, after a slashing attack on the Government policy by the Liberal, Mr. Bass, a son of the brewer, was overwhelming. Both these incidents have made a profound impression on the "Jingo" mind, which tries in vain to account for them. An article in the *Quarterly Review*, putting forward on behalf of the Crown a claim for the complete control of the foreign policy of the country to the exclusion of the people and the House of Commons, an idea of which the apparent origin has been discovered in 'Coningsby,' is likely to help to rouse the Liberals still more into some determined action, and even moderate papers are becoming vituperative in their treatment of the extraordinary personage who now has the Queen and the army of a great nation under his control. A "Syrian adventurer" and "political charlatan" are now not considered unbecoming epithets to apply to him. An article on him in the last *Fortnightly Review*—the first of two—has rarely been surpassed in English literature for polished and biting contempt. His last stroke, of bringing a large Indian army into Europe without the consent or knowledge of Parliament, is also helping to stimulate the returning thoughtfulness of the country, and the horrid Russians will probably be left wallowing in their untruthfulness and general sinfulness a while longer.

The Lancashire strike among the cotton operatives, which has thrown from 30,000 to 40,000 persons out of employment and deprived three times that number of their means of support, still continues, and has called forth a very interesting discussion of the conditions of English trade in the shape of manifestoes and counter manifestoes from the masters and men. The temper displayed on both sides is very good; there are no threats or denunciations, nothing but rather dry business discussion. The masters say that trade is bad and has been bad for a long time; that they are losing money at the present cost of production, and have suffered and are likely to suffer the partial loss of several markets, notably the United States and China. To which the men reply that the masters were foolish in the good times in building so many new works, and so much machinery, and producing so much goods; that in this folly the men had no share, and that it is unfair now to try to throw on them the loss on the fixed capital; that, however, they are willing to help the masters out of the scrape by submitting to the desired reduction—ten per cent—if the masters will agree to work short time so as to reduce production. To this the masters refuse to assent, and refuse to submit their case to arbitration, professing to understand their business better than any one else.

Some of the facts brought out by the masters in support of their arguments are very interesting. Since 1860 the demand for British cotton goods in the Eastern markets has increased 80 per cent.; the demand in all other foreign markets only 15 per cent. In 1860 the United States took 227,000,000 yards of British cotton goods; in 1877 only 61,000,000. In the former year Great Britain used half the cotton crop; last year she only used 3,017,000 bales, against 3,959,000 used elsewhere. Moreover factories are going up in China, which has unlimited supplies of coal, and also unlimited supplies of labor. "Capital is increasing elsewhere," the masters add; "other nations show themselves to be as capable of organization as our own. The race will be to the frugal, the industrious, and enduring." To which the men reply that they can endure as well as anybody but cannot endure without hope. The end it is difficult to see; but it will probably be the surrender of the operatives who are already divided, the spinners not sympathizing fully with the weavers.

THE COMMUNISTIC MOVEMENT.

TWENTY years ago the prediction that the spread of communistic ideas among the laboring classes would begin to excite uneasiness in the United States would have been treated as a pessimistic absurdity. In fact, a prediction by Macaulay, written about that time in a letter to a friend in this country, that attacks on property through legislation would at some indefinite time be made in the United States by the majority, was treated as an absurdity. It is nevertheless true that we are witnessing at this moment the spread of a movement among workingmen, having its headquarters in some of the great cities, for the avowed object of despoiling the owners of accumulated property in some way—there is apparently no general agreement as to what way. At the bottom of it is a small body of Communists of the French and German school, who have a clean-cut theory of social reorganization which proposes the appropriation by the state of all the great instruments of trade and industry, such as the railroads, factories, mines, and iron-works, and the supply of work through these by the state to all who seek it, at such wages and with such hours as may be most conducive to their health and comfort, with a progressive income tax, free compulsory education, and a more complete direct control of the people over legislation, through mass meetings. The more advanced of this school also wish to get rid of the great argument in favor of the permanence of the matrimonial tie by making the state the nurse and guardian of all children, so as to relieve the parents of the cares of maternity and paternity, and enable them to marry more frequently.

Below these there is a much more unthinking and larger class, which is really the dangerous one, such as the followers of Kearney in San Francisco, who have filled that city with real alarm and inflicted serious injury on business. These men do not trouble themselves with theories, but address themselves directly to the facts of the situation. They dislike poverty, and they see around them great masses of wealth, in which they demand a share by any process, however rough, provided it is short and sharp. They regard a rich man as in a certain sense a wrongdoer, and are only restrained from attacking him by prudential motives. They are, consequently, constantly on the verge of riot rather than revolution, and they have a very large secret following who, without venturing openly to avow sympathy with them, would, if an outbreak came, participate freely in the plunder and disorder, not perhaps for plunder and disorder's sake, but as a means of bringing capital to terms of some kind—that is, of forcing it to make concessions of some kind, they do not well know what, to the laborer. A large number of those who took part in the railroad strikes of last summer were undoubtedly in this state of mind, and if there be a renewal of the strikes this summer, with completer organization, as many persons fear, it will be with some such vague view. Outside all these there are, of course, the tramps and vagabonds, who would make common cause with the Communists, but whom even that name would dignify. How large the whole body of persons who are animated by these opinions and desires is, it is difficult to calculate. The newspaper accounts are apt to exaggerate their numbers, both because secret designs against peace and property naturally work on the imagination, and because the Communists themselves naturally magnify their strength with the view of spreading the terror through which they hope to succeed. But it is certain that it is large enough to be injurious to business, and to make investors and property-holders uneasy, and seriously to increase the difficulties of city government, already very great. It is in this way, too, that it is likely to damage American society. That the Communists will ever get possession of any government in the United States, or that their theories will find acceptance with any really powerful body of the people, is of course wildly improbable, because the bulk of the people own property and save money, and would and will for ages to come certainly be amused by a serious proposal to divide with those who have got none and do not like to accumulate. What Communism really aims at is a new form of civilization, which may come, but if it does will only come at an indefinitely remote period. The régime of private property has created our present civilization and brought man out of savagery; all our morality is based on it, and it will probably take as long to overthrow it as it has taken to bring it to its present shape, if it can be overthrown. All the late advances of the world have not been towards any form of Communism, but towards a wider diffusion of individual ownership—that is, towards the admission of larger numbers of persons to the responsibilities and pleasures, easier transfer and more secure possession, of property.

What we are now threatened with, therefore, is not a great attempt at community of goods, but a falling off in security and ease and rapidity of accumulation. The American Communists, for instance, are not strong enough, or ever likely to be strong enough, to embody one of their ideas in an act; but they are, or will probably be, strong enough to make people afraid of riots, and to stimulate that kind of legislation called "labor legislation," which seems to grow naturally out of the deep-seated public sympathy with poverty, and furnishes demagogues with a cheap mode of gaining popularity with a considerable body of voters, without committing themselves to really alarming theories. Such proposals as that recently made to have the Government manufacture some thousands of tons of iron in order to provide work for the unemployed, and, in a less degree, the schemes for the execution of great public improvements for the same purpose, may not do much harm in themselves, but their effect on the mind of the poor is to keep alive the vague hopes and the confusion about the nature and duties of government out of which Communism springs. The refusal of Congress or of State legislatures to provide sufficient military or police force for the protection of property has the same result. It leads the discontented to feel that they are making headway, that they are frightening the property-holders, and that by a little more effort they will have their own way in everything, and prepares their minds for the preachings of the systematic and theoretic Communists.

The importance of these considerations is due to the fact that thus far communistic doctrines, when they have once taken hold of the minds of workingmen, have never, so far as can be known, been extirpated by persuasion in any form, and for the simple reason that those who preach against them are pretty sure to be property-holders, or members of the property-holding class, or ministers of religion, and therefore discredited from the outset. What roots out Communism is experience of its impossibility—the plain demonstration that society cannot be carried by assault, and will defend itself remorselessly. It is this which has extinguished it in France, but even there it has taken three bloody conflicts to do it, and two generations of civil strife, and nobody who observes what is going on in Germany and in Russia can doubt that the problem will have to be solved there in the same way—that is, Communism will grow, and its pretensions rise, until it thinks itself strong enough to attempt a realization of its dreams by physical force, and then it will find that Property, when really alarmed, is a terrible antagonist, that its strength is tremendous and that it has no bowels of compassion. The fostering of communistic views, either directly or indirectly, either by speech or legislation, is, therefore, great cruelty to the ignorant and unthinking, who form the bulk of those of whom they take hold. The sooner it can be made clear to them that they are seeking the impossible the better for them as well as for society, and the way to make this clear is to show thorough readiness for defence. Nothing, for instance, could possibly clear Citizen Schwab's brain so much, and elevate his moral nature, as to satisfy him that if he attempted to carry out his theories in this city he would be killed. Much can be done, of course, to save the coming generation from this poison—the worst, all things considered, that has yet entered the moral world—by improved means of education and better social arrangements; and the return of better times will relieve from it many of the light-headed who are now in favor of a division of goods simply because they are out of work. The difficulty of dealing with it is great. It creates a distaste for the steady routine of life, and a shirking from realities, not unlike that created by gambling. In order to reason a man out of a vagary, too, you

and he must have some common ground to start from. With the communist there is no common ground to start from. He offers no fulcrum for your lever. He denies and scoffs at your religion. He repudiates all your virtues and all the motives by which your own life is governed. He shares none of your hopes, and is not troubled by any of your fears. He hates what you most admire, and longs for all that you most abhor; denies the force of all your tests and sanctions, and looks on you as a selfish impostor. This is not a pleasant phenomenon, and it is likely to prove to modern society a curse and puzzle somewhat like those which slavery proved to the ancient society, and must be faced.

RAILWAY MANAGEMENT AND NEW YORK PROSPERITY.

THE resolution to appoint a joint committee to take into consideration the railway management of this State, in so far as it affects its prosperity, passed the Assembly last week by a decided majority. If the Senate concurs in this resolution we shall have at last, in some official shape, an enquiry into the facts which caused the meeting at Steinway Hall, which formed the burden of Mr. Sterne's address there, and the resolutions and report of the Chamber of Commerce. The committee charged with this enquiry will bring before the Legislature of 1879 these questions in tangible form, based upon evidence. The extent to which this controversy has been carried, and the feelings which the merchants exhibit against our most powerful corporation, show that these grievances must to some degree exist, otherwise our usually apathetic citizens would not have been so ready to attack so formidable an adversary as the New York Central Railway. Whether or not this enquiry will lead to any beneficial results will very much depend upon the nature of the committee—*i.e.*, the extent to which that committee itself feels called upon to make the enquiry a searching one, and the skill with which the case of the merchants is handled before it.

Sufficient has already been admitted by Mr. Vanderbilt in his letter of the 19th ult. to the Chamber of Commerce to show that the railway problem in this State has assumed very great proportions, and that we have upon us a question of extreme delicacy. Mr. Vanderbilt says in this communication that the pooling arrangements between the great trunk lines resulted in placing "the New York shipper upon an equal footing, and gave to him the same advantages as were enjoyed by the merchants of any rival State. Certainly no more can be reasonably asked. To require the New York roads to carry freights to and from the West at a rate which would disregard the excess of cost of transportation from Philadelphia to Baltimore, to and from foreign ports, would give to the New York merchants such advantages as would destroy the commerce of those cities. Their roads would not submit to this, nor would those cities permit them to until they had been exhausted in the struggle to maintain a fair equilibrium." Yet New York had just these advantages in times past, and did almost immediately after the opening of the Erie Canal destroy as much of the commerce of its rival cities as it did not absorb. From 1830 to 1860 the great mercantile houses that had theretofore existed in Boston and in Philadelphia, more particularly those of the latter city, first opened branches in New York City, then transplanted their main warehouses to New York, with branches in the other cities, and then in process of time did their whole business in New York, without branches elsewhere. Thus did the improved waterways of New York State, built by the State, first absorb, and then practically destroy, the importing and jobbing trade of its rivals down to 1860. The harbor of New York and its facilities for transportation to and from the West gave New York its first advantage, and it then threatened to hold that advantage against all newcomers by reason of the economy which arose from the bulk and value of the commodities that it transported. It looked as though a natural monopoly had been established in favor of the largest transporting centre, resulting in decreased charges for all that it desired to send West or to obtain from the West. The value of its real estate is based upon these advantages; and amid all the depression which the years of reaction since 1873 have brought to New York, in common with her sister cities, her real-estate prices still rule above those which prevail with her neighbors, simply because her citizens have believed that New York had natural advantages which placed her in the rivalry of commerce far beyond any other city on the Atlantic seaboard.

This delusion, if delusion it be, Mr. Vanderbilt's letter dispels. He confesses that the combination which the New York lines have entered into with their rivals of other cities is one of such a nature that whatever advantages New York derives from its harbor it loses in its freight charges; that she is placed upon the level of her rival cities. To use his own words, "the New York roads have put this city on *an equality* with the most favored rival. To this position they are thoroughly committed, and they will stand by it under all circumstances; the rest remains with its merchants." That Mr. Vanderbilt's letter does not at once create a combination of the larger real-estate owners, the value of whose property is dependent upon the natural advantages of New York, as it already has of the merchants, arises simply from the fact that their interests are not so directly and immediately affected as the mercantile interest. Were, however, the full meaning and scope of this letter understood by the owners of the soil of New York, they would be as prompt as the merchants to institute an enquiry as to the nature of the causes which, either naturally or artificially, will deprive them of the main value of their property by placing the owners of property in Baltimore and Philadelphia in competition with themselves.

We can all understand how the building of the Erie Canal gave to New York City its enormous advantage. Although Pennsylvania also built a canal, the Alleghany Mountains form an insuperable barrier which the Pennsylvania Canal could not overcome. The commerce of New York State, on the contrary, was not impeded by any great natural obstructions; excellent rivers furnished constant supplies to the canal, and the Hudson River, navigable for a hundred and fifty miles to the north, gave to the canal an outlet maintained at no expense, and on the bosom of which a hundredfold the freight capacity of the canal could be carried to the metropolis. Cities were thus built up thoughout the centre of the State with a population so large as to give a great local traffic to our first through-line of rail, and made the line practically independent of through-traffic. When the New York Central was consolidated, it was consolidated by the combination of a number of connecting railways between cities, each one having its independent and profitable business. The improved method of transportation introduced by the railway, therefore, maintained the supremacy of New York City which the canal had given to it; and as no other State could build any railway which could compete with ours at the rates at which the combined Central could carry through-freights, because no other State had so many cities, and every State to the south of us had mountain ranges to overcome, and to the north of us greater mileage and reduced population as difficulties to overcome in its traffic between the West and the Eastern seaboard, no one could have foreseen that the railway system would lose that supremacy to the State of New York. Moreover, our first railway had advantages as great over other railways to be built in other States as the canal in this State had over the canals in other States. Railway experts tell us that the volume and value of the traffic and the gradient of the roads are elements of much more importance than mere mileage, and as in all these particulars New York afforded its railways advantages incomparably greater than those possessed by lines to rival cities on the coast, reduced freight charges to and from New York representing those advantages seemed to be the natural property of New York's merchants.

Now, after thirty-odd years of railway rivalry, the city of New York is deliberately told by the president of its leading line of railway that the combination which he and other New York railway presidents have made with lines to cities of sister States takes away the advantages thus far possessed by New York, and puts its merchants upon the same plane of commercial opportunity with rival cities. If the autocratic ruler of a great country

chooses to distribute advantages and disadvantages in this way, so that there shall be no plethora of wealth in one particular district as compared with another, we can understand his motives, however much we may deprecate this paternal system of government; but the motives of a president of a New York railway company when he exhibits a tender regard for the mercantile interests and the value of property of cities to which his road does not run and in which he has probably but very little if any property, is not so easily understood, and a little search must be made for the motive. We find that into this pooling arrangement the Grand Trunk Railway, running from Boston, cannot be forced; that it alone of the railways refused to enter into the great combination of 1877, and insists upon running in competition with the New York Central—a competition which admittedly reduces freights from Boston to the West, and from Liverpool to Chicago, to lower rates than those which exist from New York to the West, mileage notwithstanding. And yet the Grand Trunk Railway runs through towns where the New York Central runs through cities, runs through wilderness, waste, and mountain in great part, has comparatively little local traffic and comparatively a small local business. Why is it, then, that it can compete with so formidable a rival as the New York Central? Because it is insolvent. Insolvency in the case of railway corporations operates very differently from what it does in all private affairs, inasmuch as it not only does not drive the insolvent corporation out of business, but, by lifting from its shoulders all responsibility to pay interest upon bonds and dividends upon stock, enables it to run for operating expenses alone, places it in a position as though the State had built the road for the receiver who operates it, and charges him no rental for it; so that all its earnings need accomplish is to replace wear and tear of machinery, rolling-stock, and permanent way. Such a rival crushes in its turn the solvent corporation which placed it in a position of insolvency. Hence there is nothing which railway presidents who have their property invested in their corporation's stock so much dread as the insolvency of their rivals. The President of the New York Central's tenderness for the commerce of Philadelphia and Baltimore is plainly nothing but a tenderness for the roads that terminate there. He sees to it that they shall not become insolvent by a rivalry with his road, so that his own solvent road shall not be crushed between the upper and nether millstones of an insolvent road to the north of him, and two insolvent roads to the south of him.

This phase of the railway problem has never been presented before in this country. Combinations heretofore have been so short-lived, and the law of competition has so generally held sway in the reduction of freight charges, particularly as to distant competitive points, that a railway having such superior advantages as the New York Central has would constantly make use of them to the exhaustion, and at times to the destruction, of its rivals. But new light seems to have dawned upon our railway magnates. They are beginning to feel the disadvantages of railway wars, and, by so-called "poolings," to enter into copartnerships of a very much more permanent character than any heretofore known between such corporations, and we are now confronted by such a copartnership between the four great trunk lines from the Eastern seaboard to the West, having it in its power to level down and build up great communities, and using that power to the disadvantage of one and the advantage of another of our great centres of population. That the community, under these circumstances, has a duty to perform is too obvious to require comment. Whether there shall be a permanent control over our railways by the National Government, or by State governments acting through commissions, is a question that we shall not at present discuss.

"IN MEMORIAM."

NO one who has paid much attention to the way in which the great body of young men in a country like this, and for that matter in any country, get most of their moral training, can have failed to see that it is through "modern instances" rather than "wise saws"; that is, they form the ideals after which they strive not so much from the discourses to which they listen on goodness and badness, as from the kind of men on whom they see the public bestowing its honors and rewards. It is, in fact, through the spectacle of their success that political rascals do their mischief rather than through their foolish or ignorant legislation or administration. One man who shows that an exposure of his knavery does not hinder his political advancement does damage to the rising generation which no amount of mere didactic efforts can repair. These remarks, too, apply to honors to the dead as well as to honors to the living. Of course "obituary notices" are well known to have a good deal of hollowness and hypocrisy, but when they are the formal and elaborate utterances of the organs of public opinion they do help to form the public judgment about the quality of acts as well as about the quality of men. If your son sees you groaning and weeping at the grave of a noted thief, there will be no use in immediately afterwards giving him a lecture on the sacredness of property; and if your "secular paper" does all in its power to honor the memory of a noted cheat without denying his cheating, there is little use in drawing the attention of your family to a remarkable article in your "religious paper" in elucidation of the Ten Commandments.

The importance of this department of public instruction has received a fresh illustration from the course of some of our leading daily papers with regard to the late John Morrissey. They all published long biographies of him, mostly of the same tenor and evidently drawn from the same source. That of the *Times*, which has done most honor to Mr. Morrissey's memory, filled three and one-half of its columns; that of the *Herald* seven; that of the *Tribune* only a column, and this paper gave him in some degree his due. Three columns of the *Times*, or six-sevenths of the article, are devoted to telling how Morrissey, beginning life as an ignorant and vicious young laborer, forsook steady industry for gambling and pugilism, and became notorious by his offences against the law, and by his turbulence and violence. It is, in short, the history of a member of the criminal class, for whose benefit jails are built, and whose activity and liberty reflect shame on the community which permits them. It shows, also, how at the age of thirty he grew tired of fighting, as all pugilists do, and determined to become a professional gambler; and the last half column, devoted to his "political career," shows how, while keeper of a noted gambling-hell—or, in other words, a professional criminal—he made money enough to enable him to become active and influential in the politics of New York City—or, in other words, to succeed in the same field as Tweed, and win the suffrages of the same class of constituents. So he went to Congress and then to the State Senate. To neither body did he bring any qualification for the duties of a legislator representing a great commercial city, or any experience of any kind except that of a pugilist, bartender, gambler, stowaway, and wandering rough, or what the old English statute calls a "rogue and vagabond," and he died at the early age of forty-seven, doubtless through the exhaustion of his constitution from his excesses. Nevertheless, the *Times* says he was "in public affairs a man of sturdy common sense, clear perceptions, and unbending rectitude," and "no man ever charged John Morrissey with being a venal politician or a dishonest legislator." "The errors of his early career" (he was keeper of a gambling-hell down to the day of his death) "were fairly balanced by his undeniable public spirit and unchallenged fidelity to public trust." That is to say, you may safely lead the life of a criminal if in your thirty-fifth year you go to Congress and take no bribes; and you may keep a gambling-hell, and live by it, if you go to the State Senate and oppose Tammany.

The State Senate was not behind the press in its sorrowful admiration. It expressed by unanimous resolution "its respect" for Morrissey's "great moral courage, for his devotion to principle, and for his rare and unquestioned integrity"; and it started for his funeral "in a body." The Assembly also wept over him as a "well-meaning and upright legislator," and recorded "its high estimate of his character and official course."

There is something better still to come, however. A Washington correspondent of Monday's *Times* filled a column and a half in the most conspicuous part of the paper with an "In memory of Morrissey," giving anecdotes of the illustrious deceased. One passage in it has never been surpassed for naïveté in the political biography of the modern world:

"Last evening a number of gentlemen sat together in a leading hotel here and talked about him until bed-time. All except one of them had been his personal friends, and that one was no less a person than the venerable but still hale and hearty Simon Cameron. One after another they told their little story of the dead man's life, and 'the old Senator' listened in silence and with much attention. At last, when the rest had apparently finished, he broke the silence he had kept so long by exclaiming suddenly and in his own quick, nervous way: 'I never had much

personal knowledge of Mr. Morrissey, but I heard one story of him which always impressed me very deeply.' 'What was it? What was it?' asked the others in a breath, and in reply Mr. Cameron related the following incident. I give his own words as nearly as possible, only omitting names at his request. He said: 'When Morrissey first came to Washington I must confess that I was not very favorably impressed with him. He had a bad record, of course, and somehow or other most people in this world have a mean habit of remembering all the bad things a man does and forgetting all the good ones. At all events, I had never heard anything good of Morrissey. For this reason I was very much surprised one day to hear my friend (Senator Cameron named one of the best known Republican leaders in New York) speak in terms of great kindness of him. I gave expression to this surprise, when my friend told me that I was very much mistaken in Morrissey's character, and to prove what he said related the story to which I alluded. It was to the effect that a young man of great promise, a resident of New York City, and a clerk in a large business house, had found his way into Morrissey's gambling saloon, and while there had lost in play $12,000, which was for the moment in his possession, but which belonged to the firm in whose employ he was. The next morning, the young man, fully realizing his position, went to his mother and told her the whole story. She, almost wild with grief, went to her husband and repeated it to him. The old man was so stunned by the information of his boy's dishonor that he could suggest no plan by which he might escape public disgrace and punishment. In fact,' continued Mr. Cameron, 'they were all in a mighty bad way, but, as usual, the old woman was the first to get her wits about her, and she suggested to the boy's father to go to his friend —— (the Republican leader already alluded to), and to get him to go to Morrissey and see if he would not help them out of their trouble. The friend consented, much against his will. He went to the gambler, told him the whole story, and assured him that disgrace and ruin would be brought upon an estimable family if the money lost by the young man was not returned. Morrissey listened quietly to all that was told him, and then said: "Well, that's all very well, but the young fellow lost the money fair; and as for him bein' a poor innocent young dove that didn't know nothing of the world, that's all stuff; he's been in our place often, and won many a pile, but for the old woman's sake I'll see what I can do. Come to my house to-morrow morning, and like as not I can make the thing all right." The next morning the gentleman came as he was directed, and with the simple words: "Tell the old woman to keep her boy away from sportin' houses," Morrissey handed him the exact sum that the young clerk had lost. If such an action,' said Mr. Cameron, in conclusion, 'does not cover a multitude of sins, my seventy-nine years of life have taught me no lessons and brought me no knowledge.'"

One naturally hesitates about differing from a Pennsylvania moralist of seventy-nine years' standing, but we must remind him that the deceased statesman was, under the statutes of this State, liable to the young man for the money of which he stripped him, and, besides this, in stripping him of it exposed himself by law to the pains and penalties of a "common gambler"—*i. e.*, to two years' hard labor in the penitentiary and one thousand dollars fine, with further imprisonment until the fine was paid. It is, of course, a very surprising and unusual thing for a common gambler to restore their losses to his victims, as it is for a pickpocket to give back her watch to a widow. This latter sometimes happens, however, and we are gratified when we hear of it; but we do not take out our pocket-handkerchief and whimper over it, and describe it to our children as the act of a good and lamented citizen.

The impunity with which Morrissey for years pursued his nefarious calling, both here and at Saratoga, was a disgrace to the government of this State. But it is a more serious matter still that recognized public instructors should declare that going into politics for a few years and resisting the temptation to take bribes can atone for a youth of ruffianism and a middle life of crime, especially when we consider that the money to which Morrissey undoubtedly owed his political "integrity" was acquired by just such villanies as the Pennsylvania Nestor described and sniffled over. This looks like discredit to our civilization itself. No man ought to be publicly praised as Morrissey has been praised by any one who is not prepared to say that he would like to see such men indefinitely multiplied. Morrissey's admirers ought to be ready to declare, if their eulogies mean anything, that they would like to see the State of New York peopled by such men. They ought to be ready to go still further and say that there is not, and ought not to be, any connection between public and private morals, and that a good legislature might be made up out of the inmates of the Sing Sing and Auburn penitentiaries, and that Madame Restell might have made an excellent Commissioner of Charities and Corrections. If they do not mean this, and are not prepared to say this, their funeral discourses over the dead pugilist and gambler are not only trash but pernicious and disgusting trash. Morrissey was a criminal whose efforts to turn "respectable" in his latter years showed the contempt in which he held the morals of the community which tolerated him, and on which he preyed, and this contempt the obituary laudation of him in some quarters certainly seems to justify.

SAINTE-BEUVE'S CORRESPONDENCE.

PARIS, April 19, 1878.

AFTER some years, when time has done its work, nothing is more interesting than to read the correspondence of some great mind. Nothing can give you more keenly, more painfully, the sensation of the vanity and folly of most human efforts. At the same time, nothing can better show the real man, even under all the artifice of language and all the precautions of correspondence. I was reading a few days ago the correspondence of J.-J. Rousseau, so well forgotten, and in many respects so justly forgotten, so inferior to the correspondence of Voltaire; yet I felt that the real Rousseau was there, even more than in the 'Contrat Social,' in the 'Nouvelle Héloïse,' or in 'Émile.' I am reading the second volume of the correspondence of Sainte-Beuve, which has just appeared, with the same sort of interest. The way in which this correspondence comes to light shows well the avidity and impatience of our time. The literary executors have not waited till, by their efforts and by the generosity of the correspondents of Sainte-Beuve, they should find themselves in possession of their whole object; no, they have published one volume as soon as they had matter enough for one volume. They now publish a second volume, because they can feed the public with a volume more; and they announce that during the printing they have received new documents which will furnish the materials for a supplementary volume. They make a new appeal to all the friends and correspondents of Sainte-Beuve, and if these prove to be very generous, there is no reason why we should not expect a fourth, a fifth volume, etc. This hasty method is not very respectful to Sainte-Beuve. Though there is in each volume a chronological order, the series of the volumes will have no unity; but the public of our day cannot wait, and M. Troubat, the executor of Sainte-Beuve, will not wait.

The letters of the second volume extend from 1865 to 1869. I showed when I spoke of the first volume the Sainte-Beuve of the first period—the poet, the member of the Romantic pleiads, the Liberal who refused even the cross of the Legion of Honor. The present volume shows the Sainte-Beuve of the end—the senator, the invalid, the critic, who has himself ceased to create, but who applies his extraordinary faculties to the history of literature. There is more resemblance than I could have thought between the two men—between the Sainte-Beuve of 1830 and the Sainte-Beuve of 1860. The mind has expanded, an intense curiosity has accumulated many and well-chosen materials, familiarity with scientific men has given to Sainte-Beuve new and more exact methods, criticism has really become in his hands a sort of science; but the inner man is not much altered, the first instincts are still there, sometimes dormant, sometimes as ardent as in the days of the Restoration. A kind of atavism can be felt in each man, and connects old age and youth.

Sainte-Beuve had been made a senator by Napoleon III. (with a salary of 30,000 francs a year); he had become one of those dignitaries intended to be the chief support as well as the ornament of the state. For a while he had supported his new dignity with patience, but at the end his inner nature revolted against the subserviency of most of his colleagues. He was by nature not a Conservative, he was a man of opposition. He saw too well the defects of any human establishment; he could not blind his eyes. On the 11th August, 1868, he writes confidentially to M. de Lescure, the secretary of M. Rouher, who was then minister of state:

"My dear friend, you are near the most influential minister, and he deserves to be. I do not go out; I do not stir from my room; but I see, I hear, I observe. Tell your minister that, if one does not take care, all things will go and dissolve, and that everything will soon be at the mercy of the first event. Don't shake your head. Don't laugh and say that you are reassured. All the governments which have fallen have done that till the eve, till the morning, of their fall. The Empire is very sick. As I love it and am in it, you can understand that I am not the last to suffer. How have people come to spoil the finest situation and to be on the point of losing the finest game? How, after so much glory, have we entered the period of contempt? Believe me, and say it to the great intelligence which has not as much power as it ought to have: If you do not do something, and something well marked, the disaffection will increase very rapidly. Why not frankly declare a constitutional ministry? Surely, I would not have counselled it a few years ago; but it may now be our salvation. And do renew promptly a worn-out Chamber, which has ceased to feel, except by vague spasms, the current of public opinion."

Sainte-Beuve drifted into opposition. He quarrelled with his brother senators. He could not endure the stolid and heavy conservatism and Catholicism of the old generals, who voted in the Upper Chamber with a perfect discipline. He had become a member of the little court of Princess Mathilde Bonaparte, a lady who cared little for politics, but who sur-

rounded herself with artists, writers, philosophers, and free-thinkers. He was in the same political mood as Prince Napoleon, the brother of Princess Mathilde, a clever but variable man, who had but one fixed passion, the hatred of clericalism and of the Papacy. "The Louis Sixteenths and the Pius Ninths pay for men who were worse than themselves. The past is on their head. Have you never been in Italy, in Rome, that you are ignorant what the Roman Government is? How this temporal power will fall I do not know; but it is certainly condemned and struck to the heart. It would be dreadful for a country like ours to be tied to a corpse. You can, out of respect, support it a moment. You cannot carry it for ever" (letter of the 29th of October, 1867, to M. Camille Guinhut, editor of the *Standard*).

When M. Thiers spoke in favor of the temporal power, Sainte-Beuve wrote:

"This last sitting of the Chamber has been ominous, as men who have hitherto been the organs of ideas of civilization—Thiers, for instance—have defended without shame decrepit abuses which fall of themselves and are dying of senility. We have seen a minister of the Emperor (Rouher) overstepping probably his orders and saying *Never!* [M. Rouher said that the Empire would never abandon the cause of the temporal power, as limited to the city of Rome.] All the men who love the Empire in the way I do have been profoundly disheartened by this deviation of policy caused by the compromising declaration of the once eloquent lawyer of Clermont. Oh! how mistaken was M. Thiers when he said that if Voltaire should come back to the world he would not do exactly the same things. Voltaire would still have to defend common sense, and he would defend it against M. Thiers" (letter to M. Lasseau, of Clermont-Ferrand, December 9, 1867).

The spirit of unbelief had become, perhaps, the dominant spirit in Sainte-Beuve. He could forgive almost everything to the Empire except its spasmodic indulgence to religion. He had no liking for parliamentary institutions; he had become the enemy of all the old "ornaments" of the reign of Louis-Philippe; he did not believe in the men whom he had known as Liberals in his youth, and who had fallen in 1848. Some of these men were entrenched in the French Academy as in a citadel, and Sainte-Beuve had come to hate and despise the French Academy. His ideal was an intelligent, a free-thinking despot, a man of progress on the throne.

Though Sainte-Beuve had lived so long with the Jansenists (and in this second volume of correspondence we see him very busy with a revision of his 'History of Port Royal'), he had ceased to be a Christian, even in the most elastic sense of this word. He did not believe in the creation.

"The eternity of the world once admitted, all hangs together. The fatality of law is, for whoever reflects, a consolation as much as, and more than, a pain. We ought to submit with gravity. This respectful and dumb gravity of the thinking man is in its way a religion, an homage rendered to the majesty of the universe. Our wishes, ephemeral as they are and contradictory, prove nothing; they are like clouds which the winds push against each other: the sidereal order rules above. You are, my friend, of the religion of Democritus, of Aristotle, of Epicurus, of Lucretius, of Seneca, of Spinoza, of Buffon, of Diderot, of Goethe, of Humboldt. It is a good company" (letter to M. Louis Viardot, 17th of April, 1867).

He was himself of the same pantheistic religion, but, strangely enough, he brought into the calm sphere of pantheism some of the notions of the Jansenists. The Jansenists were the heirs of Calvin, the unconscious remnants of the great reformers; they believed with the greatest fervor in the perversity of man and in the doctrine of grace. Most of our modern free-thinkers have a curious adoration of mankind; let only man be delivered of the thraldom of priesthood and of royalty, and "tout est pour le mieux dans le meilleur des mondes possibles." Sainte-Beuve was too intelligent, too intellectually honest, to adopt doctrines which are only fit for the vulgar demagogue. He had learned history and knew that humanity was made of humans, and that the humans are not perfect in themselves. This is what he writes to Taine:

"You make to me an observation upon my 'Port Royal.' . . . There is a fine basis, you say, a broad basis in natural morality, in virtue as understood by Aristotle, Cicero, Marcus Aurelius, etc. I must confess to you that what has always embarrassed the expression of my thought in this direction and kept my adhesion back is the fact that I have not as optimistic an opinion of humanity as that which I see among all these natural moralists. I am much more struck by the miseries, the imperfections, the vices, the animal coarseness over which people imagine that it is easy to triumph. This natural morality, of which I desire the reign, and which in antiquity was the lot of an élite, seems to me very little advanced among the moderns, especially if you consider the masses. The nations which are praised *sur parole* and celebrated at a distance, are found to be far in arrears. You must be a Laboulaye before you believe that there is no corruption in North America. Our Algeria is dying of absinthe; so are our manufacturing cities of the north. If Rome is rotting, Geneva is becoming coarse. I see everywhere an animality and a brutality which discourages me and which adjourns my hope of the triumph of a healthy and scientific morality; I am contented with admiring and respecting it in a few" (2d of November, 1867).

This letter might be meditated by the worshippers of the new god, Humanity, coming, as it does, not from a Catholic, nor even from a professed or professing Christian. It shows, in my opinion, the best part of Sainte-Beuve, his love of truth, a love so intense that nothing could blind it—no political passion, no party spirit, no worldly consideration. This same love of truth explains the great interest which Sainte-Beuve shows in his correspondence for historical studies. There are many letters addressed to M. Chantelauze, who was engaged in a study of Cardinal de Retz, and who furnished Sainte-Beuve with valuable notes for 'Port Royal.' Sainte-Beuve was always kind to all the *débutans*, if he was often very severe on the men who had *arrived*. He takes great pains with such men as Charles Baudelaire, a sick, and half-mad poet; with obscure writers who never succeeded in coming to notoriety. He answers such men as Louis Ulbach; we see him in correspondence with M. Émile Zola, twelve years before the 'Assommoir.' He takes the trouble to make a long criticism of Zola's 'Thérèse Raquin.' He praises Zola's talent of analysis, the technical execution of many parts, but he shows the defects of thé novel with as much care as a conscientious professor who goes over the boy's theme. I do not believe that Sainte-Beuve was courting popularity when he took such pains with many *Bohèmes;* he knew that pearls are found in the dunghills of Bohemia; he was also, in his own way, a Socialist. He was not on good terms with what is called society; the *salons* of Paris were, under the Empire, hostile to the Empire. He hated the salons; as a Senator, he disliked the little chapels where love of the Papacy kept a timid flame. He resembled, in some respects, the Jacobins of the first Revolution, who died in the gilded uniforms of Senators of Napoleon the Great. What saved him, however, from their servility, was his intellectual freedom and honesty; Jansenism and Port Royal did much for him; he never became a low flatterer of imperialism nor of demagogy.

Correspondence.

IS POPULAR GOVERNMENT A FAILURE?

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: It seems to follow from your view of the "Fraud Movement" that there *is* no remedy, and that there *ought* to be none, in case of a President made such by fraud.

A few people devoutly believe in what is alleged by both parties, that fraud or violence sufficient to turn the scale one way or other existed on both sides at the last Presidential election. If that is the truth, *are we not already there*, are we not *now* at the South American level? Be that as it may, convince the sober-minded of the "new" truth that successful Presidential frauds cannot be enquired into, and you have a *reductio ad absurdum* of popular government.

Not a few are already convinced that a good solid despotism is better than the tyranny of party, the rascality of politicians, the anarchy resulting from the elective franchise granted to the "many-headed." But convince the people by demonstration that successful fraud must be left in quiet, and popular government is destined to go to the "moles and the bats."

J. B. W.

Morristown, N. J., May 3, 1878.

[What "follows from our view" is not that there ought to be no enquiry into charges of fraud in a Presidential election, but that the decision who has been elected President when made by the proper authority ought to be final and irreversible, and this not because abstract justice and right are not desirable things, but because in human affairs they are not always attainable, and because the chief end of government is peace and quiet—a fact which the law recognizes in private affairs by making prescription a good title to property. The cause of all the trouble last year lay in the fact that, although the vote for the President takes place on the same day in all the States, certain bodies called Returning Boards in some of the Southern States were armed with "judicial functions," and empowered to revise and change the figures according to their own views of fitness, and to delay the final count until they had learned the result

in other States, thus virtually giving them power to elect a President. A temptation of this kind to political adventurers of low character like McLin and Wells and Anderson was of course overwhelming. The American way of acting on a discovery of this kind is to change the machinery before the next election, so that local thimbleriggers will not have such another chance; and in the meantime to follow our lawful callings. The Mexican way is to lay aside all business and begin fighting and squabbling, bleeding, shouting and dying, in order to put into the Presidential chair the man to whom we think it was awarded by Eternal Justice. There is, and probably always has been, some fraud in every election; but the chief end of man in society is not to procure absolutely pure elections, but obtain in the long run as good government as the present condition of human nature will admit. We ought now either to secure the final closing of the contest in each State on the evening of the same day, so as to prevent trickery by holding over the returns when the contest is close and one or two States can turn the scale, or else make the election a purely Federal concern, with Federal machinery for both taking and canvassing the vote. In other words, we ought to adapt our system to newly-revealed conditions. We have courts and police for the prevention of crime, and yet many criminals escape. Should we all throw aside our private affairs, and declare that we should neither buy nor sell, nor plead nor preach, while a single thief or murderer was at large? Much of the talk about this Presidential fraud strikes us as even worse than Mexican—childish. —Ed. Nation.]

Notes.

HARPER & BROS. have reprinted in their "Half-Hour Series" the two short tales by George Eliot ('Brother Jacob' and 'The Lifted Veil') noticed by us in No. 669.——G. P. Putnam's Sons have in press a volume of humorous sketches by W. L. Alden, "the sixth-column man of the New York *Times*." It will be illustrated by F. S. Church in his peculiar manner.——Robert Clarke & Co. send us their substantial and well-printed 'General Catalogue of Choice Books for the Library, Classified and Priced.' It is well worth the very moderate sum for which it can be had.——*O Novo Mundo* for May contains a likeness of the late lamented Prof. Charles Frederic Hartt, in which the signs of overwork or of sickness are only too plainly visible.——At the recent sale of an English collector's French rarities in Paris, Fontaine's 'Fables,' edition 1677–94, 5 vols. 12mo, the only complete edition published by the fabulist himself, brought $3,390. This sum of money might easily have been spent by M. Feuillet de Conches in producing his unique copy of the 'Fables' described in the last *Polybiblion*. It consists of Lefebvre's large-paper edition, 8vo, illustrated by designs specially procured from all parts of the world, east and west. Ingres, Descamps, Horace Vernet, Rosa Bonheur, Eugène Delacroix, Granville, Johannot, Landseer, Cruikshank, Retzsch, and many other notable artists contributed to this work, in which, however, the Chinese and Japanese designs are conspicuous for their aptness and tastefulness, and the Abyssinian for their savagery, bordering on the grotesque.——M. Frédéric Mistral has undertaken a Provençal-French Dictionary which promises to be of great value and interest. It will make two volumes, 4to, and will cost two francs the *livraison*, or $16 to $18 altogether. Subscriptions should be sent to M. Mistral "à Maillane, par Graveson (Bouches-du-Rhône)."——We regret to record the death, on March 10, of Dr. John Baptist Feuling, Professor of Modern Languages and Comparative Philology at the University of Wisconsin. He was a native of Germany, born at Worms in 1838, and studied both at Giessen and, in the post-graduate course, at the University of Paris. He came to this country in 1861, and opened a German and French school at Toledo; afterwards became an instructor in Greek at Racine College, and in the spring of 1868 was invited to the professorship which is now vacant. Beyond a Greek poem, he left no published works, but he had planned an elaborate one on Germanic Inflections, and had completed a student's arrangement of Montesquieu's "Considérations sur les Causes de la Grandeur et la Décadence des Romains." Dr. Feuling wrote frequently for the press, and was an occasional contributor to the *Nation*.——Powhattan Bouldin, a well-known editor in the South, and a son of J. W. Bouldin, a politician of some note in the early part of the century, has recently published, on his own account, a volume entitled 'Home Reminiscences of John Randolph of Roanoke,' which for a Southern book is exceedingly well printed. Little, Brown & Co., of Boston, are the agents for the sale of it in the North.——J. B. Lippincott & Co. have in press 'The Life of Alexander H. Stephens,' by Prof. R. M. Johnston and Wm. Hand Browne, a work executed with Mr. Stephens's approval.

—The *American Journal of Mathematics*, issued under the auspices of the Johns Hopkins University, has for its primary object the publication of original investigations, together with other contributions which may have special interest for American students; but it is not intended to be a means of communication between those who have puzzling problems to propose and those who take delight in solving such puzzles. The editorial work is in charge of Professors Sylvester, Story, and Rowland of Baltimore, Benjamin Peirce of Cambridge, and Simon Newcomb of Washington. The first number, which has just made its appearance, contains in 104 handsomely-printed quarto pages eight articles, two of them from foreign contributors, in which the separate departments of astronomy, mechanics, physics, and pure mathematics are all represented. None of the papers is elementary in character, and a critical review of them would be out of place in our columns; but an idea of their scope can be given in a few words. The first article is a short note of three pages containing the proof of a proposition, which persons untrained in the methods of modern mathematics may well be excused for regarding as incomprehensible, that "if a fourth dimension were added to space, a closed material surface (or shell) could be turned inside out by simple flexure, without either stretching or tearing." This is followed by the first part of a paper upon the lunar theory by Mr. G. W. Hill. Professor Eddy, of Cincinnati, presents a simplified equation to express the relationship between the moments of flexure of a straight elastic girder at three successive points of support. An algebraic solution of the so-called irreducible case in cubic equations, with examples, covers eighteen pages. A short note on the theory of groups is communicated by Professor Cayley, of Cambridge, England. Professor Rowland's paper is a contribution to our knowledge of the theory of electric absorption. A very favorable review of Ferrero's treatise on the method of least squares is given by Mr. C. S. Peirce, and the balance of the number is occupied by Professor Sylvester with a paper in which the new atomic theory of chemistry is applied to the graphical representation of certain mathematical conceptions. A list of the names of the first hundred subscribers shows that the journal will have at the start a wide, if not a large, circulation, for the names are gathered from twenty-three different States, besides the District of Columbia, and three foreign countries. It is worthy of remark that three of the first hundred subscribers are ladies. We hope that the editors will be confirmed in their belief that the publication of this journal "will materially aid in fostering the study of mathematical science throughout this continent."

—The Society of Decorative Art, of which we had a good deal to say last winter, when its famous Loan Exhibition was held at the Academy, has removed its offices and class-rooms, and now occupies a tolerably spacious and convenient house in Nineteenth Street, a few doors east of Broadway. There was no room in the old quarters for a library, and too little for the class-rooms. The classes must have opportunity to grow, and the library ought to be so enlarged by the enthusiasm of the friends of the Society as to need a large room to itself; so that the removal has come none too soon. This Society has a twofold task to fulfil, which it has undertaken with complete confidence and single-mindedness. How far it succeeds depends upon the intelligence of the community, and it is so hard to reckon on the intelligence of a community. To find employment for persons who can design a little and embroider a little may not be hard, now that there is so general a demand for decoration of household interiors. Ceramic painting is in demand as well, and young women who can paint flowers on tiles can find a sale for them through the medium of the society. But the chief difficulty which the society has to face is in its undertaking to educate its work-people as well as to find work for them. When designs are sent in, whether merely indicated in drawings on paper, or worked out in embroidery, fan-painting, china-painting, or otherwise, they must either be rejected, as not worthy of the society's use, or else accepted for sale. The difficulty of deciding must be very great. In many cases it must be almost insuperable. Any one who is familiar with the trades which have to do with decorative design is aware how few persons there are to be found who have any idea of making designs, and also of the absolute necessity of some training in each particular direction. It is to be expected that the designs sent in from strangers—designs voluntarily offered—will generally be valueless. It is probable that of every fifty de-

signs laid before the society's committee two or three at most have a little merit, and one, perhaps, is actually fit to use. Under these circumstances, then, the first object of the society must be to show the makers of the designs that are the least bad where they may be improved, and what changes would make them acceptable. And the second object must be to persuade the makers of the host of absolutely poor designs that they are not on the right road at all. These duties are hard to discharge under any circumstances. When they are undertaken by unpaid committees the difficulty is greatly increased. And the great danger of failure in the society's undertaking is in the enmity too often felt by persons whose work is not accepted, and in the discouragement felt by all who are told that their work is not good, without being shown convincingly how it might be made better.

—In the meantime there has been launched a new association called the New York Exchange for Women's Work, and professing to accept and to try to sell exactly those productions which come outside of the field occupied by the Society of Decorative Art. Whatever women can make which is not artistical comes within the care of this society ; and it seems a most worthy undertaking, to turn away from vain efforts at decorative design, and to turn toward useful work in a thousand womanly tastes, that large majority of young women who can neither draw nor compose, who cannot express any valuable ideas either in color or form. There is one danger, though, in the undertaking of this society to do what the Society of Decorative Art does not do. There is danger that it will slightly overstep its boundary, and accept attempts at decorative design which the other society has rejected. If it should take any steps toward counteracting the Society of Decorative Art, it would be exerting a most mischievous influence. Let it be granted that the last-named society will make some mistakes, and will reject some designs that might be made available, it is yet the worst thing that could happen that rejected designs should find a welcome elsewhere ; that any one should be found ready to welcome them as not so bad after all ; that the natural sense of disappointment should be flattered into a sense of slighted merit by the approval of another organization as influential, perhaps, and as successful as the former one. It is to be hoped that no such clashing of authorities will take place, and no such degradation of the standard of taste be brought about, but that the Exchange for Women's Work will either limit itself, as its prospectus promises, to work not at all artistic in aim, or, if enlarging its field in that direction, will set up and maintain a standard in all respects as high as that of the Society of Decorative Art.

—Mr. L. J. Jennings, formerly editor of the New York *Times*, has brought a suit in the United States courts against Comptroller Kelly and others, as proprietors of the New York *Express*, for libel, in charging him with beating his wife and with other disreputable practices. We sincerely trust he will be successful enough to make the cut-throats of the political press afraid of this kind of warfare, and he is the better entitled to exemplary satisfaction because he has long borne this particular bit of abuse in silence. But he cannot hope to reappear in New York as plaintiff in a libel suit, as the New York *Tribune* has justly observed, without recalling both to the public and the jury his own remarkable performances in this same line. The New York *Times* under his management was as ruffianly a paper as has ever been published in this city. The foulness and indiscriminateness of the vituperation with which its columns were filled were amazing, although concealed for a time by the excitement about the Ring exposures. Mr. Jennings's ferocious monologues, studded with obscure insinuations, innuendoes, and threats directed against his enemies, political and private, for offenses which the public knew nothing of, or only guessed at, were an absolutely novel and often very comic feature in metropolitan journalism. At times he acted as if he had completely lost his head, as when he loaded a well-known resident of this city, who had never offended him, with filthy personal abuse because he disliked his speech on the relations of science and religion at a public dinner at which they were both invited guests. It was very discreditable to the proprietors of the *Times* that they should have allowed him to go on until he had entangled them in a libel suit to which they had no defence, and from which they had to extricate themselves by an apology ; and it was very creditable to the English press that during his long connection with it no editor or proprietor ever permitted him to display his wonderful capacity for coarse invective, which indeed was so great as to enable him easily to quell the fire of some of the most expert literary blackguards in America.

—The Russians have been taking legal advice on the subject of their rights and duties under the Declaration of Paris in case of war. They have got an "opinion" from Professor Bluntschli to the effect that there is no objection to their privateering, provided their privateers are regularly commissioned and officered vessels in the navy. In other words, they must not be privately owned vessels, which go into the war for the purpose of making a fortune for their owners, officers, and crew, by taking prizes, but must be a constituent part of the Russian navy, with officers of recognized rank, responsible to other officers above them, and so on. The word used in the Declaration is "la course," which has always been translated, no doubt correctly, "privateering." But privateering, as generally understood, is not at all the sort of "course" considered lawful by Professor Bluntschli. A privateer, in the established usage of those nations to which we must look for the history and meaning of the term, is a vessel privately owned and privately maintained, manned, equipped, and officered, but holding from a belligerent government a "letter of marque," or, in other words, a commission authorizing the capture of prizes and their conveyance to a prize court for adjudication. The objection to ventures of this sort is that they are set on foot chiefly for private gain through the plunder of innocent people ; that they are conducted by persons who, from the absence of supervision, are practically irresponsible, and that they therefore offer a premium to all sorts of violence, outrage, and crime.

—Another objection used to be the theoretical advantages of exempting all belligerent commerce from capture. We say theoretical, because never having been put into practice no one can say how exemption would have worked. But though private property on the high seas cannot thus be exempted without striking a fatal blow at privateering, it is perfectly possible to abolish privateering without introducing this exemption. The object of Russia is, of course, the destruction of English commerce by means of a device which does not involve "letters of marque." Many of the objections against privateering which are founded on its *character* as a barbarous mode of warfare would be removed by such a plan as that of the Russians ; and the only difficulties that we can perceive about its execution are, first, that of getting the ships, which is considerable, and, second, the lack of ports into which to take their prizes. For this privilege the Russians would have to look to some neutral power, as in a war between England and Russia the latter's ports would be pretty sure to be effectively blockaded. Professor Bluntschli's opinion seems to confirm positively what we stated last week, that old-fashioned privateering on Russia's part is out of the question ; and to have that definitely settled in case of a war involving great maritime interests would be no small gain. Privateering is a case of "survival" from primitive warfare, and closely resembles on sea the sack of towns on land. In other words, it is a method of crippling an enemy by the plunder of its unarmed and unresisting citizens. It is no doubt an effective method ; but mere effectiveness will no longer satisfy the conscience of mankind in such matters as these. Poisoning wells and killing prisoners are both effective methods of reducing an enemy's strength ; but civilized nations have discarded them.

—A writer in the *Revue des Deux Mondes* for April 1, M. Valbert, discusses with the aid of recent German works the subject of the "Socialist Party in Germany." The very title of his article suggests the organization and power of a sect which, in its least coherent condition, is still formidable and full of evil omen for modern society. In Germany it has been fortunate in having for its leaders men of uncommon intellectual force, able to set forth their doctrines in elaborate disquisitions like Ferdinand Lassalle's "System of Acquired Rights" and Karl Marx's "Capital," and for its apologists, the half-cultured class, the schoolmasters who never forget the saying that it was they who conquered at Sadowa, and whose pretensions to instruct the universe have since known no bounds (a class not unknown in the Mississippi Valley). It derives also great strength from the pessimism which counts so many disciples among the thoughtful aristocracy, from the false ideas of the nature and competence of the state which long submission to paternal government has fostered in Germany, and of course from the material disorder and distress which has partly been caused by the new Empire, and partly has not been alleviated by it. The result is that the party has twelve deputies in the Federal Parliament, that it numbers nearly one-tenth of all the voters, and that its success at the polls is often actively promoted by the Conservatives, both Catholic and Protestant, in their hatred of Liberalism. The Socialists boast of 14 printing-offices, from which issue 41 political sheets, whose increase is remarkably rapid. These are estimated to have 130,000 subscribers. Innumerable pamphlets and a very popular almanac, *Der*

arme Konrad, are other vehicles of propagandism. Only about 400,000 voters stand between the Government and a combination of hostile elements, including Ultramontanes, Poles, Alsatians, and Particularists, as well as Socialists. Some of the Socialist deputies are as ridiculous as Bland or Voorhees; others are able to command attention when they speak; and all, as the mouthpieces of a confident and growing faction, must be "counted with" by the Administration and the National Party. The weakness of democratic Socialism lies in the distrust with which the leaders are sooner or later regarded by the rank and file, and the dissensions sure to arise among those who regard society as conspiring against them. Of this the French Revolution and the Commune furnished abundant examples, and they have not been wanting in Germany. Marx himself, the head of the Internationals, who has for many years resided near London, has been stoutly denounced by the English section, and at the Congress at the Hague in 1872 led the Centralist faction which split off from the Federalists.

—Mr. Grant Allen, whose 'Physiological Æsthetics' we lately reviewed, contributes to the April number of *Mind* an interesting article on "Note-Deafness." His observations were made upon an intelligent man of thirty, who could distinguish differences of pitch amounting to no less than an octave at the upper and lower ends of a piano-scale, while in the middle, where his sensitiveness was greater, intervals amounting to three or four full tones could be discriminated. He was found unusually sensitive to such non-musical accompaniments as the thud of keys, the scraping of a violin, and the sound of rushing air in wind instruments, as well as to rhythm, whether of poetry or music. Intricate harmony caused only ennui. A brass band or fife and drum could pass under his window unnoticed while he was at work, or even suffering from headache. To lively, popular airs, however, with great and rapid changes of pitch, he was by no means indifferent. He could even sing a few familiar tunes so correctly in *tempo* that they were recognizable in spite of the falseness of the notes. The fact that dissonance was not unpleasant leads Mr. Allen to locate the disorder of function in Corti's arches rather than in the nervous centres. The former he supposes in this case to be badly tuned, so that they vibrated sympathetically to sound-waves of considerable range of frequency. It is greatly to be regretted that with so good a subject Mr. Allen did not follow the advice of his scientific friend and construct an accurate curve with a large number of ordinates, by Fechner's simple method. He did not even test his patient for *diplacusis*, which, if it existed, would obviate much of his theory. In one place we are told that his patient could not recognize the high notes of a piano, and elsewhere that he could hear notes as shrill as most other people.

—A recent number of Sybel's *Historische Zeitschrift* (the first number of the current year) contains a collection of notices of books upon the subject of the late American war, twenty-five in number, by F. von Meerheimb. They are mostly very short, but some of them (as those on Sherman's Memoirs and the Comte de Paris's History) are of considerable length; and even the shortest are of value, summing up in a very few words the leading features of the book. Gen. Sherman's Memoirs are pronounced "by far the most important" of all works written upon the subject, as Gen. Sherman himself is declared to be "the most considerable, perhaps the only, general of the North: only McClellan can come in question." The only German work on the list is Scheibert's 'Bürgerkrieg,' which the reviewer says should be rather "Organisation und Administration, Strategie und Technik, etc., im Bürgerkrieg, etc.," inasmuch as the book treats only of military relations—this, however, very well, and on the whole impartially, for one who served on the staff of both Lee and Stuart, and believed heartily in the justice of the Southern cause. Esten Cooke's lives of Lee and Stonewall Jackson are praised in the highest terms: Germany possesses nothing but Droysen's 'Leben Yorks' to compare with them. An interesting remark is made about American soldiers. "It testifies to the capability (*Tüchtigkeit*) of the Anglo-American character, that the soldiers went under fire the second time more resolutely than the first; bad soldiers are sometimes courageous in their first fight, but never after several failures; these volunteers were steeled by dangers, privations, and losses."

—The Old-French Text Society has furnished to its subscribers three volumes of the issue of 1876, the second year of its existence. These volumes are 'Miracles de Nostre Dame par personnages,' after the MS. in the National Library, edited by Gaston Paris and Ulysse Robert (Tome I.); 'Guillaume de Palerne,' after the MS. in the Arsenal at Paris, edited by H. Michelant; and 'Deux Redactions du Roman des Sept Sages de Rome,' by Gaston Paris. The first-named volume is a valuable contribution to the history of the early French drama. The manuscript, of the fifteenth century, contains forty miracles, and will furnish material for six volumes, the last to contain the notes and glossary. These miracle-plays early attracted the attention of scholars, and a number of them have already been published. The present volume contains eight, the most interesting of which are "Miracle de Saint Jehan Crisosthomes" and "Miracle de la femme du roy de Portugal," the latter a tragic drama not altogether unworthy of Calderon. The second work is doubly valuable for the insight it gives us into the manners of the time in which it was written (end of twelfth or beginning of thirteenth century), and from the fact that it is the original of an interesting English version composed about 1350, and edited by Sir F. Madden for the Roxburghe Club, and again in 1867 by W. W. Skeat, in the first volume of the extra series of the Early English Text Society. The last-named work contains two versions of the famous mediæval romance, "The Seven Wise Masters." Both versions are in prose, and the second is a reprint of the French translation (Geneva, 1492) of the Latin version known as the "Historia Septem Sapientum." The extreme rarity of this work makes the republication of this French translation very welcome, as it will, for all practical purposes, fill the place of the original. The editor, in a learned preface, endeavors to show that the "Historia Septem Sapientum" is of comparatively recent date, and has for its source a French version instead of being, as was generally supposed, the source of the French and other European versions.

WOOLSEY'S POLITICAL SCIENCE.*

II.

THE third, and much the largest, portion of Dr. Woolsey's work is devoted to "Practical Politics," and is composed in the main of a historical sketch of the origin and growth of the various known forms of government, monarchical, aristocratic, and democratic, including a careful and valuable chapter on confederations. In this field, of course, the great desideratum is accuracy, a point on which the author is too good a scholar and too experienced an investigator to leave himself open to anything but praise, even from those who are competent to follow him. In discussing the departments of government in a state he defends the constitution of the American Presidency against most of the foreign criticisms on it; is very severe on the "spoils" doctrine, and proposes three civil-service rules: (1) the concession to the victorious party of the cabinet offices, the foreign ministers, and some of the leading custom-houses and post-offices; (2) the local election of the smaller postmasters; and (3) the permanency of the inferior custom-house officers, and "others whose duties are of a permanent character"; but he gives no reason why collectors in the principal ports and leading postmasters should be changed. Experience and the nature of their work go to show that their permanence in office is peculiarly desirable. A change in the head of such an establishment as the New York Post-Office, for instance, every four years would work far greater mischief than the ousting of many hundreds of minor officials. He commends our system of permanent cabinets, but seems to approve but moderately, if at all, the plan of giving the members seats in Congress or the power of appearing before Congress to defend their policy. We confess, however, we do not know where he finds support for the belief that the absence of responsibility to the legislature gives our cabinet ministers "a power of free continuous action" which under the British system they could not have. In practice, the responsibility really exists among us as it does in England, but the penalty of failure to satisfy the legislature is different. Parliament when it withdraws its confidence from a minister turns him out of office; Congress ceases to pay any attention to his recommendations or actually legislates against him; but in both cases the power of "free continuous action" is taken away.

Dr. Woolsey would, in distributing representatives, give the sparsely populated country a larger proportion than the densely populated city, on the ground that the cities have more means of making themselves felt than the country, and are the dangerous element in our system. He touches one of the weak points of our legislatures, by suggesting that districts should, as in France and England, be allowed to seek their representatives where they please, and thus give men of eminence more than one chance of remaining in public life. Probably nothing contributes more to the intellectual poverty of American legislatures than the usage which

* 'Political Science; or, the State, Theoretically and Practically Considered. By Theodore D. Woolsey, late President of Yale College.' 2 vols. New York: Scribner, Armstrong & Co. 1878.

confines the voter's choice to the residents of his own district. Dr. Woolsey expresses a qualified approval of minority representation, but warmly commends the practice of self-nomination, as the best mode of deliverance from the tyranny and corruption of the caucus. He does not, however, point out how a self-nominated man could procure the machinery which the caucus sets in motion for its own candidates, and which, as our author admits, seems to be necessary to guide the mass of voters to a choice in a country of universal suffrage. The English judicial system apparently fulfils his ideal, but in mentioning the failure of the late attempt in New York to secure a life-tenure for the judges he overlooks the fact that the tenure was lengthened from six to fourteen years, which is at least a step in the right direction.

In touching on city government he advocates the organization of all municipalities under a general law, and ascribes existing evils in the government of American cities partly to universal suffrage, or rather the suffrage of non-taxpayers, and partly to the weakness of the mayor or chief executive officer. He proposes as a remedy (which, however, he acknowledges to be more desirable than attainable) "the restriction of the suffrage in civic affairs to taxpayers," but he does not touch on the one employed with so much effect in English legislation, namely, making every occupier of a room, who has furniture to levy on, a direct taxpayer for some amount, however small. The practice of exempting, either by law or in practice, persons who do not own a certain amount of property (in Massachusetts $2,000), is a fruitful source of extravagance and recklessness on the part of city voters.

Want of space will prevent our discussing in detail Dr. Woolsey's observations on the very interesting question of the proper subject-matter of law and administration, which, of course, brings up the relations of the government to the army, the police, education, and religion, the relief of the poor, the regulation of trade and commerce, and of traffic in intoxicating drinks, and other trades which are in themselves or may by excess or absence of control become injurious to the community. For his position on all these matters we must refer the reader to the book, with the single remark that he may be said, in general terms, to be a utilitarian modified by a strong belief in the value of political habits and political traditions, and in the controlling influence of "institutions," as distinguished from laws.

In the closing chapter, on "Political Changes," we expected to find a clearer and more outspoken expression of the author's political philosophy, in what may be called its last resort, than he has seen fit to make. He is, for a man whose political ideals and standards were necessarily formed before the tremendous changes of the last forty years had occurred, and whose studies have necessarily made him familiar with the endless repetition and revival which goes on in almost all political experimentation, singularly hopeful and patient. He acknowledges the possibility of national decline, and enumerates among its causes the unequal distribution of property, the loss of national self-esteem, the decay of genius and culture, the loss of national hopefulness, and the decay of faith and morals. He doubts that the institutions of the modern world are self-sustaining, and declares that "the history of the past does not authorize the opinion that nations carry down with them any great amount of wisdom from one generation to another."

"At least," he says, "they cannot be thought capable of doing this without carrying down with them correct moral judgments and moderation in action, which neither scepticism nor atheism can call forth. The progress of society brings with it new problems to solve. At present the problem of the future of the working classes, of their principles and relations to property and government, is a very serious one, and becomes gloomy and alarming when the pressure of financial and commercial distress is felt. . . . The truth is that, in addition to misgovernment and to calamities arising from the close connection of the parts of the world which propagate their waves of distress, as if through the sky, all abroad, we have new principles of justice, claims of absolute equality of condition through society, claims which so kindle the feverish brain of the depressed that nothing can lead them to patience and tranquillity but some of those Christian virtues they have cast off. The tendency is not to the discharge of duties in these times, but to the enforcement of claims which society cannot admit because they would be attended with immediate financial, social, and political ruin."

He then goes on to show that "the regulative, purifying, and reformatory principle needed in modern society" is the Christian religion, "which, *if believed to be true*, is fit to be the controlling permanent force in human nature." We have italicized the words in this statement which seem to deprive it of its value as an exposition of the mode of escape from the evils with which the modern world is now threatened, and which shows, as it seems to us, that, much thought as he has expended on it, Dr. Woolsey has not gone to the bottom of the great social and political problem of our time. The Christian religion owed all the force it has ever had as a political regulator to the belief of the masses that the historical events on which it is founded actually occurred. They accepted these events on the authority of the educated and well-to-do. They no longer accept them, because the educated and well-to-do have in their eyes lost their authority on nearly all social questions. In other words, the very fact which has created the danger has destroyed the remedy. They now look on Christianity as a cunningly devised fable intended to reconcile the poor and unhappy to their lot, and when the prosperous classes, of whom believers are mostly composed, preach it to them they reject them as interested and even corrupt witnesses. The refusal on the part of the religious world to look this fact in the face is one of the most serious features of the situation.

We believe the truth to be that the present mental condition of the working classes is due in part to the sceptical movement which has run through all classes, and which tends to concentrate attention more and more on the things of this life. In this concentration the able and energetic skeptic finds his consolation for increasing dimness of vision about the things of the future life, but to the poor and feeble and incapable it brings no consolation. It is due, also, to the enormous power over the condition of the individual attributed to government during the great reformatory movement which has been going on since the French Revolution ; and, finally, to the power lodged by universal suffrage in the hands of the working classes for the first time in history, and which they would be more than human if they did not seek to use for the supply of their greatest want, freedom from anxiety about food and clothing—the able and ambitious using it to secure freer play for their energies, which is *their* greatest want.

That the present condition of the working-class mind will do great mischief not through any sudden disaster or cataclysm, but through the diffusion of a feeling of malaise and insecurity through the modern world, which will sensibly check our civilization, we have little doubt. But that the remedy will come quickly, or will lie in any special belief or single influence, it is useless to expect. It will come through a variety of agencies, such as the plain demonstration in the eyes of those who bear the burden of the world's business of the gravity of the crisis ; the gradual adaptation of democratic institutions through this demonstration to the existence of a class in every community which does not share the best hopes and sympathies of the race ; or, in other words, some better provision for the residuum of radical incapacity and feebleness of character which every society must contain ; and, finally, a return in a more humane, and if you will Christian, form, to the old and outspoken belief in the importance of property and of the power of accumulating property, both as an indication of character and as an ingredient in all healthy civilization. One of the mistakes of modern democracy has been the gospel of poverty, or, in other words, the notion that there was something noble and elevating in owning nothing.

THE BELKNAP PAPERS.*

THESE two handsome and well-edited volumes belong to a class which it is very pleasant to read but very difficult to analyze. Jeremy Belknap was a clergyman, a historian, and a physicist, and in these three departments was a diligent student and earnest observer. He was born in Boston in 1744, and died there in 1798. His works, based upon industry and research, still hold their place among our earliest histories, and it was one of his chief honors that he founded the Historical Society of Massachusetts. His 'History of New Hampshire,' in 3 vols. 8vo, and his 'American Biography,' in 2 vols., are distinguished by their extensive information and profound research. In 'The Foresters' he painted the American manners of his time with wit and humor. As a clergyman he naturally printed many sermons, taking a prominent place among the preachers of his day. He was a ready penman and a hard-working student.

Contemporary and friend of this industrious man was Ebenezer Hazard, a native of Philadelphia, who filled the important office of United States Postmaster from 1782 to 1789. Between these two congenial spirits there sprang up an early friendship, to which we are indebted for the life-like picture of the struggles and aspirations of American authors contained in the volumes before us. Both loved research, and seemed never to have suffered themselves to grow weary in copying and commenting historical documents. Both loved natural history'

* 'Collections of the Massachusetts Historical Society. Vol. I. Fifth Series. Belknap Papers.' 2 vols. 8vo. Boston.

and eagerly followed up every new ray of light which they could throw upon it; or, to speak briefly, both loved knowledge in all her forms. Hazard's forte was the collection and arrangement of historical documents; he is still an authority on the ground which he covered. And now, if we consider that we are at the very dawn of American literature, and that one at least of these two men lived with his pen in his hand, we shall easily conceive that their letters are full of interest for every curious enquirer. In those days magazines played an important part, and these volumes afford us many glimpses behind the editorial scenes. "To be an editor in this place is what I deprecate," writes Belknap to Hazard from Boston. "The integrity and firmness of a Cato would scarcely make a man proof against the envy and obloquy to which he would be exposed." A careful examination of these magazines would well repay the labor. The Post-Office also comes in for occasional mention. The transportation of a letter from Boston to New York, and the conjectures with regard to its rapid passage, furnish an amusing paragraph:

"How did that letter reach New York so as to appear in print by 8 o'clock A.M. on Monday, 24th? It could not have arrived by *post* before the 26th. The *stage* left Boston on Thursday the 20th, arrived at Hartford in the evening of Saturday, 22d, and does not travel on Sunday, and the letter could not have come from Hartford hither (130 miles) on *Monday* before 8 o'clock A.M. There was no arrival from *Rhode Island* except one vessel, which left *Newport* the 19th, the day the letter is dated at Boston. So much for anti-federal veracity. I believe the letter was wrote here."

"We have had a very disagreeable tumult here lately," writes Hazard to Belknap, in 1788, "but it has now subsided. Some of our medical tribe have plundered the dormitories of the dead, and, in a most indelicate manner, dissected the bodies of their inhabitants. Their conduct has for a long time given general offence, and last Sunday afternoon a body of people collected, forced their way into the hospital, seized two doctors (who were afterwards sent to jail), and destroyed apparatus, preparations, injections, etc., etc. So great was the ferment that before all was over the Governour was obliged to call out the militia, to quell some folks who had determined to break the jail and glut their revenge upon the doctors. Three people lost their lives by the fire of the militia, and others on both sides were wounded. We are now quiet again, and the law will take its course with the culprits."

The question of slavery is beginning to make itself felt. On the 19th March Belknap writes to Hazard:

"We have nothing new. Our negro bill (I suppose) has passed the Lower House. There are opposers, but their opposition was not daring and form[idable, but] rather sly and evasive. I'll tell you more about it next time. Pray have you, or can you procure for me, without any expense, Clarkson's 'Essay on Slavery'? Is he a Clarkson of your kindred? He is a hero in the cause, and may Heaven prosper his endeavours."

In Boston harbor kidnapping is not altogether unknown:

"You will see in the *Centinel*, of yesterday, an account of a most atrocious insult on the rights of mankind and the laws of society, committed within the limits of our harbour a few days ago. Several peaceful negroes, and some of very good character, who have families here, were decoyed on board a vessell which lay below Long Island, under pretence of shifting the ballast, and then carried off to be sold (no doubt) for slaves abroad. . . . The negroes who were kidnapped here were sold at Martinico, and set to work, which they refused, and were flogged by their masters. In a few days Governour Hancock's and the French Consul's letters arrived, and the Governour of the island took the negroes under his protection, to be returned. Avery (the kidnapper) had disappeared, and the planters will lose their purchase money unless they can find him. A similar scene, I am informed, has passed at Fairfield, in Connecticut; 8 negroes were carried off by one Willard.

"Our law is passed and I suppose will make its appearance in this day's paper. Some people are very angry about it. They say it will operate against the Federal Constitution in Carolina. Clarkson's Essay is indeed a masterly performance—the most complete and comprehensive piece that I have seen on the subject. I wish success to his farther endeavours, which are said to be making, to abolish the inhuman traffick."

But the subject of the greatest interest in those days was the adoption of the Constitution. To us who have proved its efficacy it may seem strange that there could be two opinions about it. The miseries of the Confederation were felt by all, and yet some of the best men doubted. The story of its adoption is told in these pages, if not with elegance, with an intense interest:

"This P.M.," Belknap writes to Hazard, "the great question is decided by a majority of 19, in favour of the Constitution; the whole house being 355. I congratulate you on this auspicious event, and am, with ardent praise to Heaven, and the most sincere affection to you and yours, Your joyful and happy friend, "JERE. BELKNAP."

The reports of the debates are very imperfect. Belknap has preserved the memory of some of them which it would have been a pity to lose:

"Rufus King," he writes, "shines among the Feds. with a superior lustre. His speeches are clear, cool, nervous, pointed, and conclusive. Parsons distinguishes accurately and reasons forcibly; but I need not give the particular merits of each. You will have them in the papers; for the printers are vigilant, and keep a scribe constantly employed to take minutes, though they cannot copy the energy and pathos of the speakers."

We give one more extract, in refreshing contrast to the communistic talk of the present day:

"It gives us great pleasure to hear some of the honest, sensible, independent yeomanry speak in favour of the Constitution. Their feelings, their natural language, their similes are highly entertaining. We had such a speaker to-day, a Mr. Smith, of Lanesborough, in Berkshire. 'I know,' said he, 'the worth of a good government by the want of it. I live in a part of the country where anarchy has prevailed, and that leads to tyranny. We were so distressed last winter that we should have been glad to submit to anybody who would have set up his standard, even to a monarch. And this monarchy might have led to tyranny; but better have one tyrant than many at once.' In answer to the question that learned and monied men were not fit to be trusted with the government, he said: 'Suppose you have a farm of 50 acres, and your title is disputed, and you join on a man who has 5,000 acres, and his title is involved in the same dispute, is it not better to have him for your friend than to defend yourself alone?' Again: 'Suppose you were to join with two or three neighbours in clearing up a rough piece of ground and sowing it with wheat, would you let it lie unfenced because you could not all agree what *sort* of a fence to make? Is it not better to have a fence, though it does not please all of your fancies, than to have none?' In answer to the objection, Let it alone for the *present*, and be not in a hurry, he said: 'Take things when they are ripe. There is a time to sow and a time to reap. We have sowed our seed by sending men to the Federal Convention; now the fruit is ripe, let us gather it. This is the harvest, and, if we don't improve this opportunity, I am afraid we shall never have another.'

"Is not this true natural eloquence and forcible reasoning? This speech was received with the highest pleasure. It was addressed to his 'brother plough-joggers,' as he called them, and it nettled the insurgents, who called him to order, but their voice was overruled, and he went through."

Among the questions which agitated the public was the choice of the name of the new city which the directors of the Ohio Company were about to build:

"In my opinion," writes Hazard, "he cannot give the new city a more proper name than *Protepolis*. *Urania* seems to be quite out of the way. *Tempi* would, I think, do much better. But I wanted something *original*. In this view, *Genesis* would do. There are *Montgomerys* already. The streets are to be wide."

The Dighton Rock comes in for a brief mention:

"Jemmy Winthrop has visited Dighton Rock, and taken off the inscription more perfectly than it was ever done before. But how to translate it? Ay, there's the rub. And perhaps, if it was translated, it might prove an unmeaning scrawl. But we are in the dark in that, as well as many other points of American antiquity."

Dr. Belknap's interest extends to everything that bears the name of knowledge:

"I have been told that *Yankee Doodle* is an old English ballad—as old, perhaps, as Chevy Chase. Did you ever see or hear of it? Is there not a collection of old ballads by Thomas Hearne, the antiquarian? . . . I have heard a word used by some of the old people in Dover—*cantankerous*—which is almost forgotten even in that quarter. It means tough, crabbed, or something of that sort. Goldsmith uses it in his play, 'She Stoops to Conquer': 'a cantankerous, bitter toad'; and, but for this, I should not have known that the old people brought it from England with them. The English may laugh at us as much as they please, but they ought to remember that their ancestors and ours were the same; and many things which they ridicule in us were *absolutely derived* from them. Instance the law proceedings against witches, the severity against Quakers, etc., etc."

We commend these volumes to the lovers of good reading.

Supplément au Dictionnaire de la Langue Française de É. Littré. (Paris: Hachette; New York: F. W. Christern.)—The twelfth and last *livraison* of this important work appeared some months ago. We gave a brief account of the first three. In running through the remainder, we have been struck once more with the hospitable reception of foreign words that have been used, perhaps for a single time, by respectable French writers, whether in books, periodicals, or the daily press. They are let in as if fully naturalized, and give an unwonted cosmopolitan air to a vocabulary deemed rather exclusive. Thus, we find *greenback*, *iceberg*, *Io* ("the 85th telescopic planet, discovered in 1865 by Mr. Peters"), *kioekkenmoedding*, *squatter* (pron. "skoua-teur"), *tramway*, *volante*, *walrus*, *wampoum*, *waste* (used by Chateaubriand), *water-closet*, *wehrgeld*, *zaptieh*, *zootrope*, *ambatch* (borrowed by Laveleye from Schweinfurth), etc. In

not a few instances in which our own language has been allowed to enrich M. Littré's, his etymologies and illustrations have considerable interest for us. Under *évolution* a very apt "example" has been added from 'Tristram Shandy,' Uncle Toby maintaining that the word which his brother had carelessly used for "revolution" had more sense than the latter was disposed to allow it. Under *flirter*, the authority cited, M. Simonin, tells how the "misses de New-York" go riding in Central Park with cavaliers who openly flirt with them. Mr. Bartlett will be glad to learn that *Brother Jonathan* is not derived from his Excellency Jonathan Trumbull, whom Washington is supposed to have been in the habit of addressing in this manner, but has a later and quite different origin, to wit: "At the beginning of the present century a series of letters appeared in Europe, which were written from America, urging the English to emigrate thither, and were signed by a Quacker [*sic*] *Brother Jonathan. C'est de là sans doute que vient la dénomination.*" One of the additions to *plate-forme* is the American political signification of the word: the declarations of candidates are made from "un échafaudage en plate-forme." *Teetotalism*, which receives one explanation from Smart and another from Webster, has still a third from Littré: according to him it comes from *teetotum*. M. Hovelacque contributes to the word *tsar* some further remarks on its derivation. Finally, in M. Marcel Devic's 'Etymological Dictionary of all French Words of Oriental Origin,' which is appended to the 'Supplement,' the English reader will find a great deal of curious information about words of this class which are as familiar to us as to the French.

Among the new French words we have noted *anaconda; ex-libris* (book-owners' plates); *enrégimentement* and *inorganisation*, for which M. Littré cites himself as authority; *gable*, a Norman word, incorrectly, it is said, printed *gâble* by M. Viollet-le-Duc; *ingénérosité* (perhaps unique in Cherbuliez's "Peut-on en vouloir aux Prussiens . . . de leur ingénérosité à l'égard des petits?"); *paléocrystique; Prudhomme*, Henri Monnier's creation, "un bourgeois débitant solennellement les choses les plus vulgaires et parfois les plus sottes"; *téléphone*, "invented by Prof. Bell in the United States"; *audible; câbler*, to "cable"; *désencanailler*, About's way of saying "take me out of that crowd"; *remonétisation*, for whose American origin the *Nation* is cited; *ruine-maison*, the family bankrupt; and *wagnerisme* (pron. "vagh-né-ri-sm'"). The illustrative passage cited under this last title is amusing: "M. Gounod," says M. de Lagenevais, "a tiré du wagnerisme tout ce qu'il avait de bon à nous donner." We miss from these neologisms *formulettes*, the recent invention of folk-lore antiquarians.

For interesting derivations we may refer to *Ghetto; Huguenot*, discussed in the space of more than a column, with the result of strengthening the theory that it comes from German *eidgenoss*, confederate, assimilated in France to a proper name already existing; *péquin*, meaning non-military, possibly from the circumstance that military and *cantonal* delegates (called *cantons* for short) were present together at the festival of the Federation, July 14, 1790; *Pérou; matelot*, definitively shown to have come from the old Scandinavian (*norois*) *mötunautr* or *matunautr*, meaning messmate.

We should never end if we stopped to point out the aid which the dictionary affords the foreigner in comprehending the French idiom. One instance we will allow ourselves: *Au pied de la lettre* is a figurative expression derived from the printing-office, *pied* meaning the part of the letter furthest from the eye when looked at printer-fashion, *i.e.* inverted. Rousseau, who is very frequently cited in this 'Supplement,' appears under *mandarin*, in explanation of the phrase *tuer le mandarin*, that is, to commit a bad act in the hope that it will never be known. Rousseau had asked whether, if in order to become the heir of a rich man whom you had never seen or heard of, and who lived in the depths of China, you had only to press a button (*pousser un bouton*), you would not press it and kill the mandarin. In his day, pressing a button to operate an effect thousands of miles away was not known except to the imagination; but, thanks to electricity, the supposed case could now be realized.

The Great Thirst Land. By Parker Gillmore, "Ubique." (New York: Cassell, Petter & Galpin.)—It seems somewhat strange to the ordinary American that a man should prepare an elaborate and expensive outfit (including in the present instance eleven guns, twenty thousand rounds of ammunition, one hundred pounds of gunpowder, five hundred pounds of lead, and as many of shot, the whole equipment weighing four tons and a half), should proceed to a distant and barbarous country, cut himself off for months from all civilization, and for weeks from the sound of an intelligible human voice, undergoing the severest manual labor, the most frightful hardships, and with life staked at every moment upon the merest turn of chance, and all for the sake of destroying some new wild animal. Yet many Englishmen are at this moment doubtless engaged in similar enterprises all over the uncivilized world, and Mr. Parker Gillmore seems, if we may judge from the number of his works referred to, to have made it the business of his life. It is a pure hunter's book. The English is by no means of the purest, the wit is rather ponderous, and the sentiment, except in a few passages, decidedly thin. But these defects are more than made up by the unconscious development of individual character and simple directness of narrative. To judge from casual allusions, Capt. Gillmore seems to have been in early life crossed in love, and driven by the disappointment to a course of wandering, but, while constantly changing the place, to have always kept the pain.

An affectionate nature appears throughout. Starting for the Cape with a stranger—a Scotchman named Morris—he evinces for him the closest friendship. From Port Natal the travelling is done with a huge wagon, drawn by numerous oxen, and the troubles and difficulties from the outset with these and the native drivers are such as would have discouraged any but the most dogged determination. The country and the life of the Dutch Boers are described with much spirit. Morris falls ill and is obliged to return to England; and thus, after leaving Soshong, the native town of the Bechuana king, Kama, Mr. Gillmore is alone with native servants, with whom he can only communicate by signs, and all of whom, except one faithful Zulu, who has followed him from the coast, he is perfectly conscious would be ready to desert him, or murder him and take possession of his property, on a very slender opportunity. The sufferings from want of water in crossing the border of Kalahari, the Great Thirst Land, are such as to make the successful passage seem almost miraculous. This being passed, game, the object of this quixotic expedition, exists in bewildering abundance. Lions, giraffes, elephants, rhinoceroses, buffaloes, quaggas, antelopes, ostriches, and so on appear almost to swarm, and the bushmen, who seem to have about an even chance of eating or being eaten, are unsurpassed in the world as trackers. But Mr. Gillmore lacks the one taste which appears to be adequate to impel men to such enterprises, that of butchery. He refuses to kill unless for some decided advantage, as food, ivory, or ostrich feathers, and seems positively to enjoy missing his aim, and seeing the animal bound or fly off in its natural grace and wildness. His companion and consolation is an invaluable mare, Ruby, whom he can hardly mention without the epithet "darling", though a part of his affection is bestowed upon several dogs of doubtful breed. The climax of misery appears to be reached when, after arriving at the settlements and selling off his wagon and other possessions, he is set upon, on his way to the coast, by a deserter of the Thirty-sixth Regiment with three or four other scoundrels:

"Between them they pummelled me into a cocked hat (any decent boy at home could have done so then), drove the post-cart off without me, and stole my watch, chain, and money, thus leaving me 150 miles to trudge on foot, without food, and all the surrounding coppies covered with snow; but I did it."

Commencing with a slight feeling of contempt at his account of the voyage out, we found our interest more and more riveted by the simple manliness, the courage and endurance of the writer, and laid down the book with a strong feeling of personal attraction. It is wholesome reading, and particularly to be recommended to parents who would wean their boys from the exciting dissipation of sensation novels.

Canoeing in Kanuckia; or, Haps and Mishaps, Afloat and Ashore, of the Statesman, the Editor, the Artist, and the Scribbler. Recorded by the Commodore and the Cook (C. L. Norton and John Habberton). Illustrated. (New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons. 1878. 12mo.)—From internal evidence we are strongly inclined to believe that the technical information with regard to canoes and canoeing contained in this book is furnished by Mr. C. L. Norton, the rest by Mr. Habberton. With Mr. Norton's style we are not familiar; with Mr. Habberton's we are. The author of 'Helen's Babies' has already earned a wide reputation by what he has been lucky enough to persuade the world into taking for humor, and he might well be pardoned if his success has misled him as to his vocation. That Mr. Habberton has a sense of humor cannot be denied; a perception of incongruity the critics have satisfied themselves is at the root of all humorous ideas, and of the incongruous he is, in his way, quite a master. But it would be proved by his case, even if it were not otherwise known, that the incongruous alone is by no means enough. The idea of

the author of 'Helen's Babies' being a humorist involves incongruity, but it is not amusing. It does not make us laugh, but tends rather to depression and gloom. In a pleasure trip of the sort described here there are many little incidents and accidents which are amusing to the last degree to those immediately concerned, and this will probably continue to be the case to the end of time; they bring out comical traits of character, and reveal all sorts of peculiarities which render the journey agreeable and entertaining, and endear, to those who make it, all its associations. But there is a long way between this and its being made interesting or amusing to those who have had nothing to do with it. And little adventures of this sort cannot become literature until they do interest "innocent blind persons." This we can hardly conceive to be the case with 'Canoeing in Kanuckia.' The information on the subject of canoes and canoeing is valuable, but the description of the adventures of the canoeists far from entertaining. If Mr. Norton would get some one else for his co-laborer he might produce a very readable manual on the subject.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Authors.—Titles.	*Publishers.—Prices.*
Corporal Bruce of the Balaklava Six Hundred: a Tale, swd	(A. K. Loring) $0 50
Grove (G.), Dictionary of Music and Musicians, Part II., swd	(Macmillan & Co.) 1 25
Hall (Rev. C. H.), The Valley of the Shadow: Sermons	(T. Whittaker) 1 00
Hare (A. J. C.), Walks in London, 2 vols	(Geo. Routledge & Sons)
Hassard (J. R. G.), Life of Pope Pius IX	(Catholic Pub. Soc.)
Hinds (W. A.), American Communities	(Oneida)
Howson (H.), Patents and the Useful Arts	(Philadelphia)
Hugo (V.), Histoire d'un Crime, Vol. II., swd	(F. W. Christern)
Huntington (F.), Echoing and Re-echoing	(D. Lothrop & Co.) 1 50
Longfellow (H. W.), Kéramos, and Other Poems	(Houghton, Osgood & Co.) 1 25
Morgan (J. A.), Legal Maxims	(Robert Clarke & Co.) 2 00
Palfrey (F. W.), Memoir of Wm. Francis Bartlett	(Houghton, Osgood & Co.) 1 50
Pretyman (J. R.), Dispauperization, 2d ed	(Longmans, Green & Co.)
Storr (F.), Lessing's Fables	(Rivingtons)
" The Æneid of Virgil, Books I.-II	"
Thomson (Sir C. W.), The Atlantic, 2 vols	(Harper & Bros.) 12 00
Trotter (J. M.), Music and Some Highly Musical People	(Lee & Shepard)
Wayland (Rev. F.), Elements of Political Economy	(Sheldon & Co.)
Wreck of the *Grosvenor*, swd	(Harper & Bros.) 30

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, MAY 16, 1878.

The Week.

THE Senate has passed a bill to distribute awards under the Mexican Convention of 1868, making special exception of two claims whose fraudulent character is pretty evident, and which must at least undergo fresh investigation. It has also passed the Indian Appropriation Bill, and, on Friday, the bill repealing the Bankrupt Act. This last, on its recommittal to the Senate by the Judiciary Committee, failed to be sustained in the point fixing the date of operation as January 1, 1879, for which September 1 proximo was substituted, and the bill again delivered to the House. On Monday an attempt was made to attach a Brazilian steamship subsidy to the Post-Office Appropriation Bill, or, in other words, an engagement to pay for direct mail service under the American flag a hundredfold what is now being paid for the same service under the British flag. Mr. Blaine, fresh from his advocacy of protection at the Permanent Exhibition, boldly stood by the stars and stripes; but as good Republicans as he, and better lawyers, and some of the leading Democrats, opposed the measure, both intrinsically and as being against the rules. Under the latter view, the amendment received its quietus on Tuesday, after which the bill was passed. The Tariff debate was resumed in the House on Wednesday, and Mr. Kelley got the floor on the following day in opposition to the bill. On Thursday the House passed a communistic joint resolution, making eight hours a day's work, and ordering this construction of the Eight-Hour Law to be observed by the Departments. But the Supreme Court, on appeal from the Court of Claims, has decided brutally that for eight hours' work only eight hours' pay is due.

On Monday the long-threatened attack on the President's title was begun, and under the best auspices, for Mr. Clarkson Potter headed it, and the Speaker by previous agreement admitted his resolution as of "privilege." This parliamentary term is so elastic that the burden of proof appears to rest with those who deny its applicability on any given occasion. The Republicans accepted it with considerable success. Mr. Potter's ground that his resolution was based on the memorial of a "sovereign State" (Maryland) was shown, we think, by Mr. Garfield to be irrelevant, but Speaker Randall held fast to it, and was sustained on appeal by 128 to 108, almost a strict party vote. The resolution recited the contents of the Maryland memorial, McLin's Florida confession, and the charge of fraud in certain parishes of Louisiana, and provided for a select committee of eleven to investigate the alleged frauds in both these States, with authority to send for persons and papers, and to report at any time. The power to report was cut off by a point of order raised by Mr. Conger, and then Mr. Hale endeavored on behalf of the Republicans to amend the resolution so as to include all cases of fraud in any of the States. Mr. Potter declined to allow this even to be read, and insisted on the previous question, whereupon the Republicans, denouncing the movement as intended for party campaign uses, left the House without a quorum, and proceedings abruptly terminated. On Tuesday the same performance was repeated, and the Democrats went into caucus to brace themselves up for the struggle, however prolonged it might be.

The Democrats are displaying their usual want of discrimination in their management of the affair. If they do not, as they say, enter on the investigation with the view of ousting Mr. Hayes, they are entering on it with the view either of making party capital for use in the fall canvass, or for providing a basis for legislation to prevent frauds in Presidential elections hereafter. In either case it is folly to refuse the Republican offer to make the enquiry general. If it is plainly undertaken with the view of bringing odium on the Republicans, it will not do much good in the canvass; while if it is undertaken in order to get information for changes in the electoral law, all frauds, no matter by whom committed, and whether in Louisiana or Oregon, ought to be examined, both in order to secure Republican co-operation and in order to make the new plan, whatever it be, effective. In fact, the McLin and Dennis "confessions," just as they stand, would be better things to go before the people with than a huge mass of testimony taken in an avowedly partisan inquisition. The confessions are simple, neat, and comprehensible, while it will be impossible to get the result of the investigation before the public in any digestible form. In the meantime the excitement of the Democratic editors over the "moral aspect" of the matter increases.

Mr. Stanley Matthews's "name having been used in connection with the (Second Ohio) District," he writes to a friend that he will under no circumstances consent to be a candidate. He is doubtless making a virtue of necessity, but that the virtue is a genuine article there is no sort of doubt. Mr. Matthews is an able lawyer, and, we believe, an estimable citizen, but his entrance into political life and sudden assumption, on his own motion, of the functions of a Minister of Finance was, we have no doubt, a suggestion of Satan. Mr. Matthews was no more fitted to tackle financial questions than to take charge of the Coast Survey, and his wrestlings with them, during his brief term in the Senate, was something which nobody but the enemy of mankind could witness without pain. His single phrase about "not caring for abroad" revealed immense ignorance of the very elements of trade and finance. That a roaring, ranting ignoramus like Logan or Voorhees should put himself in such a position would not be surprising or depressing; but that a man of Mr. Matthews's standing and cultivation should do it makes the future of the race look dark.

The community is indebted to Mr. Frank Gowan, of Pennsylvania, for the vigorous assertion of the law which has led to the execution of eleven "Mollie Maguire" murderers within the last year—probably as salutary a lesson as could possibly have been given to the ignorant and lawless men with whom the mining region abounds. The news comes now, however, that all trouble is not yet over, and that a new organization called the "Knights of Labor" has been formed, which is said to number about 200,000 men in the whole State, most of them foreigners, and is, like all secret societies, producing more or less uneasiness. The constitution, which has found its way into print, is harmless enough, and, indeed, differs little from the platform of the National party; it is in the working of it that the mischief will appear. After the usual denunciation of the rich, it proposes to bring "every department of productive industry within the folds of organization"—whatever that may mean—and to "make moral worth, not wealth," the standard of individual and national greatness: a very important undertaking, if it can be carried out. After this comes the usual plan of securing somehow a more equitable distribution of the products of labor and capital, and the provision of health and comfort for the whole working class, including leisure for "intellectual enjoyment" and a sufficiency of pocket-money issued directly by the Government without the intervention of banks.

On the other hand, the communistic movement seems to have received a serious check in San Francisco, where it has been most formidable, by a split in the ranks, the majority, both in numbers as well as in other things, having deposed Kearney from the leadership, for "insanity, Cæsarism, and corruption"—all grave offences. He probably precipitated his ruin by his savage attacks on the

Catholic clergy, who have not minced matters in denouncing him and his followers, and who, in fact, have been behaving admirably everywhere with regard to these anti-social movements and organizations. Kearney had an interview with the Archbishop before his overthrow, at which he requested the prelate "to mind his own business," to which the latter replied by a depressing anecdote of his early experience in California—how he went to bed one night leaving San Francisco apparently very quiet, and on waking up in the morning found the streets filled with armed men and a poor fellow like Kearney hanging to a lamp-post. Kearney has the satisfaction of knowing, however, that during his reign he depressed the price of real estate or made it unsalable, seriously interrupted business, and caused the banks to curtail their loans. This is something of which a half-cracked drayman living in a busy, civilized community may well boast.

The first State "Nationalists" Convention, in preparation for the coming elections, assembled on Wednesday in Philadelphia, embracing some two hundred delegates. The Committee on Credentials had to decide between contesting delegations from Philadelphia, and concluded to admit all the labor delegates and ten of the greenback—among the last, Mr. Henry Carey Baird. When candidates began to be nominated, a resolution was introduced and carried pledging the Convention not to nominate any person (except for the judiciary) who had not "totally severed all connection with either of the old factions known as the Democratic and Republican parties." This broke the "slate" prepared by the chairman. The resolutions adopted resembled the complexion of the Convention itself: nothing was excluded that presented itself, and there was no editing of the hotch-potch to give it harmony and consistency. They propose "that the hours of labor should be so limited as to afford the laborer an opportunity to cultivate his mental faculties, and enjoy rational, social intercourse with his friends," and generally to improve his condition; and to this end the following reforms are declared necessary: (1) prohibition of the prison contract system; (2) lowering the rate of interest on money, "by the Government issuing free legal-tender money sufficient for the wants of trade, and regulating its value and its volume by wise and judicious legislation"; (3) protection through "a tariff based on Constitutional limits for revenue"; (4) bestowing public lands on actual settlers, and not as subsidies; (5) constructing works of national importance; (6) encouraging shipbuilding; (7) founding postal savings-banks; (8) repeal of unconstitutional charters and special (State) privileges; (9) Granger regulation of rates of transportation; (10) immediate repeal of the Resumption Act; (11) equal and just taxation of all property whatsoever; (12) payment of Government bonds in lawful money. A final resolution condemns violent measures and advocates peaceful resort to the ballot. The resolutions by implication define the "producing" interests as the manufacturing, mining, farming, and laboring. A conspicuous figure in the Convention was John Siney, a leading demagogue in the coal districts.

The reform newspapers have been occupying themselves a good deal during the past week with the proceedings of Mr. Hamilton Fish, jr., at Albany. They say that his career this winter has been a "failure," and that he has, by entering into a sort of alliance with the Tammany politicians, by refusing to do anything about the Municipal Amendments, and, finally, by reading a prosy speech on what is called the "bonded indebtedness" measure, shown himself to be "no statesman." We have always taken a great deal of interest in this gentleman's career, because it may be justly considered a typical one. Mr. Fish belongs to a class—the growth of which the newspapers from time to time do what they can to encourage—that of young men of education and position and good family who "attend to their political duties," go to the "primaries," and do what they can to qualify themselves to understand the "mechanism of government." Mr. Fish has done this for a number of years, and with gratifying results. He has risen steadily to his present position, which is that of chairman of an important committee; and he was talked of at the opening of the Legislature as a candidate for Speaker. We have therefore examined the charges against him with care. The important part of the charge is that he has acted with Tammany, and neglected the Municipal Amendments. Now, it is well known that Tammany Hall and Mr. Conkling's friends have made a little arrangement by which the municipal offices at the next election are to be divided by John Kelly, and the Legislature is to be carried by the Republicans. The carrying of the next Legislature by the Republicans means the re-election of Mr. Conkling to the Senate; and it is well known, too, that both Mr. Kelly and Mr. Conkling are opposed to the Municipal Amendments—the former on the ground that they are designed to "rob the poor man of his vote," and the latter because they are "a trap." But Mr. Fish's political future depends altogether on Mr. Conkling. Instead of being misled by the "dyspeptic" reform talk of the newspapers, he has, with what strikes us as considerable sagacity in so young a man, seen from the first that the "mechanism of government" was in the hands of Mr. Conkling; and he has steadily acted in that gentleman's interest. As long as Mr. Conkling's interests and those of Reform do not interfere with each other, he is for Reform; when they do, he is for Mr. Conkling. Instead of being a "failure," we think his career has been a remarkable success; and if Mr. Conkling and Mr. Kelly carry the day next fall, we think it safe to say that Mr. Fish will be a very prominent candidate for Speaker.

As to the treatment by the Legislature of the Municipal Amendments, the impression has been created that the committee having this subject in charge has neglected its duty and not properly pressed the matter on the attention of the Legislature. This is a mistake. There was no real necessity for the Committee to press the matter at all, as the duty of taking up the Amendments rested with the Legislature itself, and these had already been passed by one legislature. But the suggestion that the Committee failed to do its duty is a mere pretence. The facts are, that three months ago the Committee of Fifty appointed two sub-committees, one to endeavor to persuade the Governor to recommend action in his message, the other to do whatever was necessary to urge the matter on the Legislature; that both committees set to work at once; that the latter committee early in the session had interviews with prominent politicians at Albany, who gave them to understand that a hearing on the subject was not desirable, and that the Amendments would be taken up at the proper time; that, trusting to these representations, the Committee waited till they were satisfied that the promises were not honest, and then made application in writing for a hearing some two weeks before the end of the session. The Committee received a reply saying that a day would be set for the hearing; but no further notice of the application being taken, telegrams were sent reiterating it. Then at length a day was set; but when the Committee appeared, after being put off for two or three hours, they were begged to be short, as the senators and representatives wanted to go to tea, and profound regret was expressed that the application had not been made earlier. On the hearing a very good argument for the submission of the Amendments to the people was made by Messrs. Sterne, Peckham, and Olin; but the Committee had, of course, no idea when they went to Albany that any attention would be paid to what they said. They knew, what seems to have been overlooked elsewhere, that Conkling "tipped the wink" to the Legislature on the subject of the Amendments weeks ago.

The sales of U. S. 4½ per cent. bonds were sufficient during the week to enable the Syndicate to anticipate their August and September options for $10,000,000; this they did on the 14th, making $35,000,000 of the bonds taken by them since April 11. The demand for gold to settle bond subscriptions has advanced the price to 100⅝ and 100¾. Foreign exchange has been weak, and has fallen

nearly one point below that at which gold coin can be profitably exported. In London U. S. bonds have been strong, and prices have advanced; British consols and Russian securities have also advanced. Silver has been weak at 53½*d.* to 53⅝*d.* per ounce. The bullion value of the silver dollar at the close of the week was $0.9049.

The London *Economist* makes an interesting contribution to the literature of the Silver question by discussing our proposed international bi-metallic conference. The little fellows of the Latin Union, with whom we are trying to throw in our lot, and among whom the position of a country like this is ridiculous—such as Greece and Switzerland—have accepted the invitation, and, with their aid, the *Economist* thinks the Conference may have "a brief existence," but will never reach "a healthy infancy." The important question, What is France likely to do? has probably been answered in a letter from M. de Parieu, the chief author of the Latin Union, to the Spanish Minister of Finance, in which he says that, if what the United States seek is "international conversations" on bi-metallism, economic truth would doubtless gain by them; but that "if America invites us to an absolute rehabilitation of depreciated silver, in order to gain us over as customers for the metal she produces, may we not suspect the possibility of being her dupes?" He then goes on to point out if a nation has a double standard "the depreciated money will reach it from every side; it is the discredited metal only which will come to fill its mints." The unhappy old man has evidently not read the report of the Jones Commission. Worse still remains to be told. M. Charles Le Toujé, one of the leading French authorities on this question, writes to a Bordeaux paper, declaring that the heavy silver coinage has so gone out of favor in France that the only chance the Latin Union has of prolonging its existence lies in the adoption of a single gold standard. On the other hand, M. Leroy Beau-lieu says there are not now more than $240,000,000 of five-franc pieces in France, of which the Bank holds $100,000,000, and that of these it would have to retain about $60,000,000 for subsidiary coinage, so that the demonetization of silver would only throw about $180,000,000 out of circulation. How the Chicago-and Cincinnati sages will laugh over this.

The Emperor William was fired at twice on Saturday last, while driving in the Unter-den-Linden at Berlin, by a tinsmith named Hoedel, who was arrested at once, and appears to have been an active member of the Socialist organization, though its organs, of course, repudiate all responsibility for him or sympathy with him. He declared at first that he meant to kill himself, in order to illustrate the sad condition of the people under the existing social régime; but this version he does not persist in. The attempt has called out unbounded demonstrations of loyalty and affection from the people of Berlin, with whom the Emperor is very popular. But it has also excited or greatly intensified the feeling of dread and detestation with which the Socialistic movement begins to be regarded, and is bringing the band of professors and theologians who, a few years ago, tried to found a new school of political economy, and became known as "Katheder-Socialisten," into considerable odium. Their teachings threw the responsibility of the condition of the working classes on the Government and "Society" in a very marked degree, and were a kind of protest against the *laissez-faire* theory; and they seem to have flattered themselves that the followers of Bebel and Karl Marx would fall into line under the leadership of scholars and gentlemen, and society would be regenerated by the aid of the historical method. The late attempt of the clergy to "capture" the organization, of which we gave an account a fortnight ago, and which the Socialist brethren met with blasphemy and obscenity, was an outcome of the professorial movement, and its lamentable failure, coupled with the Hoedel attempt, will probably put an end to the alliance between Kultur and Nihilism.

General Todleben made an attempt during the week to frighten the Turks into giving up Varna and Shumla and Batum by threatening to occupy Constantinople, and they apparently agreed to do so on his consenting to retire to Adrianople. This arrangement was disavowed at St. Petersburg, however, and he was directed to hold his present position firmly; and indeed the force at San Stefano has been greatly strengthened. The Turks, therefore, refuse to give up Varna and Batum, but are reported to be ready to surrender Shumla, which is weakly garrisoned, and is of little value since the Russians cut its communications with Varna. Austria is, in the meantime, playing her old waiting game. Prince Auersperg, in the Reichsrath, said her position remains unchanged; that the interests of Europe are her interests, and that she will defend them, and other vague matter; and both he and M. Tisza, the Hungarian Minister, deny all intention of occupying Bosnia by way of spoil, or withdrawing any portion of Turkey from European jurisdiction as her share. There are still rumors, however, and they seem more probable, that she will occupy Bosnia pending the settlement, by way of securing her own frontier and delivering herself from the crowd of turbulent fugitives from the province which are now on her soil and living at her expense.

Everything in European politics seems to be waiting on the result of Count Shuvaloff's mission from London to St. Petersburg, about the nature of which there is little but conjecture. The most probable supposition, and the only one to which the attitude of the British Ministry gives any support, is that England has at last communicated through him to Russia what her desires or expectations about the problem really are, and that Russia having now something to say yes or no to, besides the form of submitting the Treaty to the Congress, there is some chance that the two principals in the controversy may come to an understanding. Shuvaloff's interviews with the Emperor have been strictly private, no one being present except the correspondent of the New York *Herald*, without whom, if we may judge from the news in that paper, they never go to business, and in his presence the Czar said that "he was not disposed to yield a single point to England, and that he was willing to take the chances of a protracted war." In fact, thus far Shuvaloff has not, according to the same authority, made the slightest impression on the mind of his master, who is bent on battle. Shuvaloff is, however, going to keep at him. The Shuvaloff mission is likely to exert an unfavorable influence on the Hartington resolutions about the employment of Indian troops, inasmuch as if peace is secured the subject will lose most of its interest, while if war seems certain the public excitement will be so great that the Liberals will probably again recoil from any attempt to embarrass the Ministry.

The introduction of the Indian troops into Europe without the knowledge or consent of Parliament is exciting increasing attention in England, and Lord Hartington, on behalf of the Opposition, has given notice that he will shortly move a resolution that no forces can be raised or kept by the Crown, except in India, in time of peace and without the sanction of Parliament. What gives the matter a serious air is that if Indian troops can be brought to the Mediterranean on a mere order of the executive, they can be brought to England, and, although there is no likelihood of anything of the kind at present, the mere exercise of the power in the present case would establish a precedent under which the king might maintain a large army in Europe without a vote of the House of Commons. The occurrence, too, is startling in another way: the British army has in nearly every European war been aided by mercenaries; it has generally during the last century had a small German Legion in its ranks, and has usually had foreign auxiliaries. But if Lord Beaconsfield is allowed to carry out his gorgeous dreams, there is a strong likelihood that a purely British force may find itself before long for the first time acting as an auxiliary to a large army of mercenary troops in British pay, which in case of victory would claim the larger share of the honor. People begin to ask themselves what the effect of this on British prestige in Europe would be, and how the Indian troops would feel and act after they got home, after beating white soldiers in the open field. It is a brilliant stroke, doubtless, to convert England suddenly into one of the great military as well as great naval powers of Europe, but it is setting people thinking.

THE SOURCES OF COMMUNISM.

THE reports of the social and political disturbance wrought by the Nihilist agitation in Russia are curious reading to those who remember the serene indifference with which Russian writers and politicians watched the perplexities of other countries over the labor problem in the eventful years between 1848 and 1860. At that time it was their theory that owing to the peculiar land system of Russia, and particularly owing to the institution known as the *mir*, or village community, which prevented the growth of a proletariat, she would never be troubled by the Red Spectre which was frightening France out of her wits, and was, they believed, destined before long to shake the British Empire to its centre. North Germany was, a very few years ago, supposed to be in the enjoyment of similar immunity, owing to her schools, her military system, and the sober and phlegmatic temperament of the people; but she is now nearly as much alarmed by the spectre as France used to be, and France has reached a repose which may be, after all, only temporary, by wading through torrents of French blood. There is not a statesman in the Western World, in fact, who is not at this moment puzzled and even alarmed by the discontent of that vast body of persons who live by the daily labor of their hands. It has been all but demonstrated that no traditions, or training, or peculiarities of position or government are sufficient to keep the Socialistic devil out. All the "modern improvements" seem to help him. He passes the sea and the mountains with the telegraph and the steamer, and makes as much use of the printing-press as either Church or King. He has his newspapers, his tracts and missionaries everywhere, and his vicious roar may be heard all over the Western World from the Ural to the Rocky Mountains. The worst of it is that no means of coming to terms with him has as yet been discovered. He cannot, apparently, be bought off, because after giving him what he wants Society would have nothing left. When the old Sinner, in the 'Lives of the Saints,' sold himself to the old Devil, he always got something for his soul—that is, he was allowed a certain period of enjoyment of certain pleasures before he surrendered himself. But the Red Spectre offers nothing and asks for all. The rich man is called on to strip himself of his riches; the frugal man of his savings; the able man to treat his ability as an incumbrance; and the whole community, as a community, to give up all it loves and glories in. Smoking is to be allowed at funerals, and men and women are to mate in the streets. Children are to go to the foundling hospital. Whatever power there is anywhere is to be lodged in the hands of the most stupid and incapable. The lazy are to lie on their backs and the industrious to get nothing for their industry.

The cause of this extraordinary and widespread outburst of insanity—for so it must be considered—will probably be more thoroughly studied than it has ever been before, now that it is perceived to be an epidemic from which no country or social system is safe, instead of being, as was long thought, a vagary peculiar to France, and it is only from a study of the causes that a remedy will come, if remedy there be. When one makes even a slight examination of the seeds of Socialist doctrine, one is surprised to find how many of them lie in the political and democratic doctrines which have been preached ever since the French Revolution, by progressive people of all classes, mostly with but little thought of where they would lead us. In the first place, the assumption that the numerical majority is all-wise, and ought to be all-powerful, on which all modern democracy rests, makes it difficult or impossible to put any limit on the experiments which the numerical majority may try. It has a right to make mistakes if it pleases, and where outside of it is the standing place to be found for arguments against the expediency of its edicts? Who are you, that you are so much wiser than the rest of the community? is a question which the philosopher who argues about "justice," when he has once committed himself to the democratic theory, finds it difficult to answer. In the next place, contentment, which occupied a very high place among the virtues, and was taught in the churches as a Christian virtue for seventeen hundred years, and particularly contentment with one's station in life and worldly surroundings, has been tacitly repudiated even by social and religious conservatives. Discontent is now taught in all the schools as a virtue of a very high order. You are not to be satisfied with the station in which you were born or with the work you are doing, unless you are at the head of some large organization, a church, an army, a state, a warehouse, an insurance company, or a railroad. You are to strive continually for fame and wealth; or, in the language of plain people, for the position of "boss" of some "job." Every boy in Europe and America has this now dinned into his ears from his fifth year upwards. As the demand for "bosses" is, however, very limited, the immense majority are very much disappointed before they reach middle life, and try to find explanations of their failure which will not wound their self-love. The readiest one is the rottenness of society, and the richness of the field it offers to trickery and greed.

Thirdly, the modern system of industry brings large bodies of poor laborers in contact with great masses of wealth, and by employing them indoors stimulates the passion for speculation on the causes and incidents of their condition, and on the springs of society in general, which used to be mainly confined to shoemakers. More attractive materials for a demagogue, or a better field for the spread of crude social themes, than the population of a great manufacturing town have never existed. Agriculture, or any muscular employment in the open air, keeps down mental activity and strengthens the love of routine, for much the same reason that it makes a man sleepy in the evening; but working under cover, at trades that call for dexterity rather than strength, seems to give the brain a morbid energy which finds relief in imaginary rearrangements of society.

It must not be forgotten, too, though it perhaps cannot be put down among the direct causes of socialism, that "the achievements of science," in increasing our powers of material production, coupled with the incessant boasting of scientific men and philanthropists about what science may yet accomplish in the future, have filled the working-class mind with fantastic dreams as to the possibility of machinery displacing manual labor, and enabling the race to multiply *ad libitum* without inconvenience. Consequently, when population follows close on the increase of production, as it has done, on the whole, even during the past fifty years, and the poor still continue poor and anxious, they begin to suspect some trick or fraud on the part of the capitalist. They are undoubtedly better off than their grandfathers, but they have still to toil and deny themselves, and see the rich enjoying their wealth in greater numbers than ever. This same agency also conceals from them that great fact of sociology—perhaps the greatest of all—that the earth, do what we will with it, will probably never afford much more than a subsistence to the great mass of mankind—that is, plain food and plain clothing. The race, by ceaseless toil and endeavor, throws some of its members up above want or anxiety about daily bread, and gives a few leisure to keep its records and add to the stores of its knowledge, but they are only a handful after all. The notion that by some little device the world can be peopled with what are called "ladies and gentlemen," which is at the bottom of all socialism, springs from an immense delusion about the bountifulness of Nature. This notion, too, is stimulated by much of the teaching of the pulpit and press about the perfectibility of man, which when it becomes current in workshops and mines undergoes curious distortion, and begets a strange impatience. The preacher usually means that one thousand or ten thousand years hence man will be refined, polished, cultivated, at ease in his circumstances, and noble in his life and aims, and able to dispense with the coarse or police side of government. This dream, which seems so attractive in the student's library, puts on a very different shape among the real sons of toil. The laborer does not care much whether posterity is "perfect" or not; he wants to have a taste of perfection himself, and is irritated by all attempts to postpone the great consummation. One cannot say, of course, with any certainty how these difficulties will be met, but it may be affirmed with confidence that during the next fifty years the character of instruction and preaching on all social questions will change

greatly, though perhaps very gradually, and that considerably less responsibility will be imposed on governments and more on the individual man than during the last fifty years, and that when a human being begins to conduct himself like a wild animal the plea of unhappiness will not be so readily accepted in his defence.

THE SENATORIAL VIEW OF THE REPUBLICAN POLICY.

DURING the past two years or more, attention has been frequently called to the failure of the Republican leaders to provide any definite platform or plan of action for their party. They have admitted in numerous speeches and "interviews" that the party's future was clouded, and that it was desirable that it should "rally" and "unite"; but what it was going to rally against or unite on was not explained. Some of the most prominent Republicans are agreed that the President's policy is not a success; that it has broken up the party for the time being; that civil-service reform will never do; and that "conciliation" means a base surrender to the Solid South. They are agreed, too, that the Democrats are just as bad as ever, and that no third party has any chance in the present state of politics. They have, moreover, announced on many occasions that they have plans of their own for reuniting the party and leading it on to victory; but hitherto they have refrained from communicating the exact nature of these to the public, thinking, apparently, that in politics confidence is not a plant of slow growth, and that they have only to let their new platform be known to have the party at their backs in full force again. From recent indications, however, it seems that they have at length determined to throw aside all reserve and unfold their designs. The last number of the *North American Review* contains two articles by leading Republican Senators, giving a sketch of the present position and future policy of the party. These articles are all the more valuable because they have been drawn out by an attack of Mr. Julian's, in a preceding number of the *Review*, in which he described the party as being engaged in a "death-struggle." Mr. Julian's attitude towards the party, it is needless to say, is critical and despondent.

The reply to this article, the author of which belongs to the class variously known as "idealists," "doctrinaires," or "dyspeptics," as their discontent is believed by the political class to spring from the head, the heart, or the stomach, naturally divides itself into two parts—the first a refutation of the charge that the Republican party is "in its death-struggle," a task undertaken by Senator Howe; the second a description of the new platform now in process of construction by its leaders, this being the work of Senator Angus Cameron. Mr. Howe, as those know who have read his late speech on Mr. Schurz, is a master of irony and satire, and nothing can be better than the ingenious turn by which he produces at the outset, on his reader's mind, the impression that it is not the Republican party but himself and Mr. Julian who are engaged in a death-struggle. Mr. Howe goes into an examination of the history of the Republican party and brings it down to the adoption of the new Constitutional Amendments. Down to this point he considers Mr. Julian's course consistent and patriotic; but after the adoption of the Amendments he shows that Mr. Julian deserted the party and is now a traitor. He is a traitor because the work of the party is not yet done. He says it is; but Mr. Howe points out that it is not; because, though the Amendments have been adopted, the Democrats are not in sympathy with them, and will not protect the negro if they come into power. We have examined this part of his argument with a good deal of care, because it is here that the dispute seems to hinge, and we have looked to see what the Senator thinks the Republican party can now do for the negro. It must not be supposed that he has not examined this subject carefully. He has found something in the way of protection for which the Republican party is needed. The Constitution provides that State and United States officers "shall be bound by oath or affirmation to support" the Constitution, and it may be inferred that if they do not take the oath, they will not carry out its provisions for the protection of the negro. But what, he says, if the Democrats come in, and the oath is not taken? Who is to see that it is taken properly? Who is to administer it?

But Mr. Howe's main business is with Mr. Julian's treason. To the statesman treason is always a fascinating subject. If the political speeches of the last twelve years could be examined for the purpose the public would be surprised at the number and variety of traitors this country now contains. But Mr. Julian goes beyond them all. Language fails for a description of them, and Mr. Howe is obliged to invent an epithet and set him down as "politically a unique," and what sort of a person a "unique" is may be guessed from Mr. Julian's reckless behavior about the New York Custom-house. We have often observed that this institution is a sort of political touchstone. When a man, after hearing for years of the abuses that go on within its walls, walks up to it, looks it calmly over, and, after an examination of its manner of working and some of its staple products, turns round and enquires quietly what there is to complain of, he may be set down as a true man; but if he gets excited over it and denounces it, it is safe to assume that he is meditating some act of treason. Now, Mr. Julian allowed himself to indulge in language concerning the New York Custom-house which we should not think of repeating, but which was, to say the least, strong, and he suggested that investigation into its operations was "spoiled by whitewash." Now, says Mr. Howe, Mr. Buckingham, of Connecticut, was at the head of the investigating committee, and if Mr. Julian accuses him "of having concealed official guilt," he has nothing to fear for this world, for Mr. Buckingham is no longer living; and hereafter he will be tolerably safe too, for after such slander there will be little chance of any meeting between the two in the next world—an insinuation which leads us to infer that Mr. Howe takes the same view of Mr. Julian's prospects hereafter as that taken by the clergyman in the story, who, on being asked where So-and-so was, replied, "If he were dead I could tell you." There are things in recent politics which Mr. Howe confesses an inability to deal with. The Cincinnati movement of 1872 is one of these. "We are," he says, "too near that event. We cannot outline it. We do not appreciate it. We are dazed by the din and glamour of the great pretence." "But," he thoughtfully adds, "History will laugh."

Like Mr. Howe, Mr. Angus Cameron begins his article with one or two propositions calculated to carry the reader with him. It is in politics, he says, as it is in nature—"there is 'action and reaction'; there is ebb and flow." Not even a Democrat can deny this, and yet it is pregnant with meaning. Mr. Cameron having established this as the basis of his argument, gives an instance of "ebb and flow" in the alternations of the light of noon-day with the darkness of the eclipse. Mr. Cameron is fond of metaphor. He declares that he is not alarmed at the dissensions in the Republican party; that these are "the mere flotsam and jetsam thrown up by the self-moving Gulf-Stream of Republican Destiny"; the people, he goes on, are rulers here; "leaders are no longer necessary." "Men die," he continues, "or fall out of line, or desert to the enemy"; but it is all one with the people; "no ambition sways them, no reverses discourage them"; the only man fit to be the "ruler" of a republic is he who has "no policy of his own." Charles I. tried having a policy, but his attempt is only noteworthy as a "startling illustration of the tragical element that lies hidden behind the mask of the ludicrous." Calhoun, it seems, tried it too.

No one can doubt, Mr. Cameron continues, that the Republican party has been the party of progress. It has freed the slaves—and with what result? Only this: a Solid South—"a war-chariot armed with disciplined and exultant soldiers," without which the party would be "a feeble faction, a moral night-scavenger's cart, laden with the offscourings of Tipperary civilization." He does not say that the South should not rule solely because its leaders were traitors. That he considers a sufficient reason, for "magnanimity becomes imbecility; manly forgiveness becomes eunuchal sentimentality; Shakspere becomes a Tupper, when it is contended that condonation of treason involves the rule of the traitor.

Having disposed of this branch of his subject, Mr. Cameron ap-

proaches his second division, and asks, "Can the leopard change his spots?" To this he replies with considerable force that "the negative of this question would seem to be supported by the greater weight of human testimony"; and if the leopard cannot, can the Democrat or Southerner? He then proceeds to "call up in review one or two only out of scores of important issues still undecided," to see whether the correct decision is more likely to be reached by Democrats or Republicans. The first of these is civil-service reform. This, he shows, was invented by some "literary men," though he does not specify whom. He makes short work of their hollow pretences by a novel argument. "Every inventor," he says, even of a mouse-trap, can secure protection for his mechanical skill in almost every civilized country. Yet Longfellow and Emerson "cannot protect their productions one mile beyond the limits of the country." Are men of this sort fit to deal with practical questions of administration? "Do the literary class marvel that national legislators do not pay a swift homage to their political suggestions?"

Having thus disposed of civil-service reform, he shows that the question of the national debt can only be dealt with by the Republican party, because the Democrats do not mean to pay it; that, if not repudiated directly, the South means to repudiate by bankrupting the Treasury by means of Southern claims, and so on. But this part of the article is not new; it was to be met with in most of the campaign speeches summer before last. We have turned over with interest the pages of Mr. Cameron's article to see what he has to propose for the future. He certainly does provide a new platform, and it is this: The Republican party, he says, "will endure just as long as it worthily represents the principles of Progress." What are these principles? the reader may be inclined to ask. Do they involve States rights or Federal centralization, free-trade or protection, direct or indirect taxation, anti-sectarian or sectarian education? On these matters Mr. Cameron maintains a strict silence. "The Principle of Progress," he says, "or, to use the newer word, of Evolution," is what we want. So long as we stick to that, and so long as we are "confronted by an organization hostile to every phase of human development, whether in the individual or the state or the nation; an organization whose ideal leader is a political Columbus with his eyes in the back of his head—sailing American waters under the American flag, but ever seeking with a longing unappeasable for a southwest passage to the lost but loved Laurentian seas of our antediluvian world," we are safe. Henry Wilson "could see no reason why the Republican party should not endure a thousand years," and Mr. Cameron says that he thinks "the Vice-President was right." We have endeavored not to exaggerate or misrepresent Mr. Howe or Mr. Cameron. "Progress and Evolution" may strike "dyspeptics" as a rather vague party cry; it is less definite even than the bloody shirt; but it has the advantage of being comprehensive, and the man who can say he is opposed to both Progress and Evolution in the coming campaign can be only fit to be led by a political Columbus with his eyes in the back part of his head.

PROFESSOR JOSEPH HENRY.

IF Mr. Galton's researches on hereditary genius were supplemented by equally careful ones on cases of genius which appeared to be entirely sporadic, we might find an exhibit yet more striking than that with which he presented us. It is certainly worthy of note that the man who, during the present generation, has exerted the most enduring and widespread influence upon the progress of American science, is not known to have had a blood relation of intellectual prominence. His ancestry is unknown, and his parentage offers no features of interest. Even the year of his birth is in doubt—some authorities placing it in 1797, and others in 1799 or even later. His father died when the son was still very young, and his mother before he grew up. A parish library supplied him with boyish reading, and his earlier tastes were in the direction of romance and the drama. He was nearly grown when the accidental possession of a copy of Robinson's 'Mechanical Philosophy' turned his thoughts towards natural philosophy and led him to seek a scientific education at the Albany Academy. Here he made himself so good a name as to be taken into the family of the Patroon in the capacity of private tutor. Failing physical health led to his spending a year as a civil engineer in the western part of the State. He returned home with a robust constitution, which never failed him throughout his long life. He declined further lucrative employment in the same capacity to accept the more congenial position of a professorship at the Albany Academy.

It was while a professor at Albany that he commenced the brilliant series of researches in electricity on which his purely scientific reputation principally rests, and which culminated in the discovery of the principles of the Morse telegraph. If we compare the poverty of his apparatus and the poverty of his means for research and publication with the importance of the results which he reached, we may accord him a place by the side of Faraday as an experimentalist. He became the sole discoverer of one of the most singular forms of electrical induction, and was among the first, perhaps the very first, to see clearly the laws which connected the transmission of electricity with the power of the battery employed. One of the problems to which he devoted himself was that of producing mechanical effects at a great distance by the aid of an electro-magnet and a conducting wire. The horse-shoe electro-magnet, formed by winding copper wire around a bar of iron bent into the form of a U, had been known before his time, and it was also known that by increasing the number of coils of wire greater force could be given to the magnet if the latter were near the battery. But when it was removed to a distance the power was found to weaken at so rapid a rate that the idea of using the electro-magnet for telegraphic purposes seemed hopeless. Henry's experiments were directed toward determining the laws of electro-motive force from which this diminution of power resulted, and led to the discovery of a relation between the number of coils of wire round the electro-magnet and the construction of the battery to work it. He showed that the very same amount of acid and zinc arranged in one way would produce entirely different effects when arranged in another, and that by increasing the number of cells in the battery there was no limit to the distance at which its effects might be felt. It only remained for some one to invent an instrument by which these effects should be made to register in an intelligible manner, to complete the electro-magnetic telegraph, and this was done by Morse. Henry himself considered the work of an inventor as wholly distinct from that of a scientific investigator, and would not protect the application of his discoveries, nor even engage in the work of maturing such applications. He never sought to detract from Morse's merits as the inventor of the magneto-electric telegraph, but did on one occasion, under legal process, give a history of the subject which was not favorable to Morse's claim to the exclusive use of the electro-magnet for telegraphic purposes. Some feeling was thus excited; but Henry took no other part in the controversy than to ask an investigation of some charges against himself contained in an article of Morse's.

In 1832 Professor Henry was tendered the chair of Natural Philosophy in Princeton College, a promotion which he accepted with great diffidence. The change was accompanied with a great increase in the means of continuing his researches in electricity. He found congenial society, a large and appreciative circle of listeners, large additions to his supply of apparatus, and a scientific society glad to publish his researches. Heretofore his publications were mostly confined to papers in *Silliman's Journal*. The Transactions of the American Philosophical Society now afforded him room for much more extended memoirs, and enabled him very soon to acquire a European reputation.

In 1837 he visited Europe and made the acquaintance of Faraday, Wheatstone, Bailey, and other eminent physicists, discussing with Wheatstone their projects for an electric telegraph. He returned to his lectures with the zest and vigor acquired by this exchange of views with men of like pursuits with himself, and held his place as the foremost of American scientific teachers until 1846, when he was called to an entirely different sphere of activity.

Ten years before, Congress had accepted by a solemn act the curious bequest of James Smithson, made to the United States in trust, "to found at Washington an establishment for the increase and diffusion of knowledge among men." The will gave no indications whatever as to the details of the proposed establishment, and long consideration was therefore necessary before the Government could decide upon its organization. It was not until 1846 that a definite plan of organization was established by law. When this was done, Professor Henry was at once looked upon as pre-eminently the man to be the principal executive officer of the Institution. He accepted the position with "reluctance, fear, and trembling," upon the urgent solicitation of Professor Bache. To describe what he did during the thirty years of his connection with it would be to write the history of the Institution. We shall, therefore, confine ourselves to some

episodes of a special interest at the present time, hoping to revert to the subject of its general management upon a future occasion. From the beginning two different views of the proper direction in which the energies of the establishment should be devoted have been entertained. There was a scientific party which held that the operations of the establishment should be confined strictly within the limits prescribed by the donor, and in the sense in which he himself, as a scientific investigator, would naturally have construed his own words—in fact, that it should be entirely an institution for scientific research and publication. Another party was desirous of giving it a larger scope and wider range, including literature and art as well as science. These latter views were naturally entertained by the men who framed the plan of organization. Accordingly we find that the act alluded to provided for a capacious building, with suitable rooms or halls for the reception and arrangement upon a liberal scale of objects of natural history, for a library, gallery of art, and lecture-rooms, and for the reception and exhibition of "all objects of art and of foreign and curious research," of objects of natural history, and plants and geological specimens belonging or hereafter to belong to the United States, which may be in the city of Washington. The new secretary, of course, sympathized entirely with the scientific party, who considered most of these objects as foreign to the proper purpose of the Institution, and the expenditure of money upon them as contrary to the expressed intention of the donor. An acrimonious controversy thus arose, resulting in the retirement of a large minority of the Board of Regents and several of the assistants of the Institution. The whole policy of Henry was directed towards diminishing as far as possible the expenditure of the Smithsonian fund upon the library, the building, the museum, and art-gallery, by having these several objects provided for in other ways. He got the library removed to the Capitol and deposited in the Library of Congress, and the art-gallery superseded by the Corcoran Gallery of Art. The impropriety of charging the Smithsonian fund with the support of the Governmental collections was so obvious that Congress has for several years provided for the maintenance of the National Museum, as it has now become, in connection with the Institution. He aimed at a complete separation of the Museum from the Institution; the Government leasing the building for the use of the former, while the latter should find more modest and appropriate but less expensive quarters. This project, however, he did not live to carry out.

Henry was, of course, the authority most frequently and regularly consulted by the Government on all questions which arose involving applications of science or of scientific principles. His greatest services to the Government were rendered as a member of the Light-House Board, a position which he held from the time the Board was organized. His principal duties were at first to enquire into the various methods of illumination, and especially to test the oils proposed for this purpose. Of late years he began to investigate the subject of fog-signals, which led to a very extended series of experimental researches on the causes which influence the propagation of sound through the air, and which sometimes render it inaudible at comparatively short distances. These experiments were mostly published in the annual reports of the Light-House Board.

The idea of using the telegraph for communicating the weather reports originated with Professor Henry, and was put in operation at the Institution at an early period of his connection with it. Visitors of that period will recall the large map of the United States which hung in one of the public halls, on which the state of the weather at many points of the country was indicated by marks pinned to the map. In accordance with his life custom, as soon as another department was found ready to continue any of his researches with a prospect of success he turned them over to it without any reserve except that of receiving due credit. The subject of meteorology was, in 1871, left by him to the Signal Office.

The whole course of Professor Henry was marked by an elevation of character entirely in keeping with his intellectual force. Placed in a position where the temptation to lend the use of his name to commercial enterprises was incessant, he so studiously avoided every appearance of evil that the shadow of suspicion never rested upon him. His services to the Government in many capacities, especially in that of member of the Light-House Board, where his experiments saved it hundreds of thousands of dollars, were entirely gratuitous. His salary was paid from the Smithsonian bequest, and he never asked the Government for a dollar on account of his services. An elevated but genial humor, a delicate poetic taste, a memory replete with anecdote, a refined, intellectual face, and an impressive bearing made him one of the most valued members of the intellectual society of Washington. One of his most remarkable traits was the entire absence of personal feeling against those by whom he felt himself wronged. His address to the Board of Regents asking an investigation of charges brought against him by S. F. B. Morse, the celebrated inventor of the electro-magnetic telegraph, was such a model of elevated sentiment, and breathed such purity of feeling, that no one in reading it could doubt the result. Like most men of his kind, he was averse to controversy, and we believe never took the slightest part in any of the disputes with which his name was sometimes associated. As secretary of the Smithsonian Institution he is entitled to the enduring credit of preventing a permanent misdirection of its activities, and this of itself will earn him the gratitude of men of science in generations to come.

Correspondence.

THE AMERICAN COLLEGE AT BEIRUT.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The reviewer of Dr. Hamlin's 'Among the Turks,' in the *Nation* of March 7, refers to the "American College" at Beirut, Syria, but, while speaking well of it, makes a statement which will convey a very wrong impression concerning it. Since this institution was founded by some of the leading men of New York, and the funds for erecting the various buildings here and for endowing the professorships were given mainly by New York merchants, you will allow me to correct such an impression.

The reviewer says "there is great difficulty in finding suitable text-books, and the students, being instructed in no foreign language, are thereby cut off from still further improvement," and more to the same effect. The college here was established to be an "institution where native youth may obtain, in their own country and language, a literary and scientific education." The instruction from the first was given, therefore, in Arabic. But the students have *never* been in the position of "being instructed in no foreign language." English and French are thoroughly taught, the former through a six-years' course, the latter four years. The reviewer may have had the medical department in mind when he wrote what he did, and in that department English is not taught, at least at present; but one of the conditions of admission to the study of medicine is that the applicant "has studied English, French, or German, and passes an examination in one of those languages." At first, the medical students came to us from without the school and knew French, but now the majority of these students come from our literary department and English is the language best known.

It is but just to add that experience is teaching us more and more that no "further improvement" is made after graduation unless English or French has been well learned. We see this so clearly that we are extending our course of instruction in English, and are now teaching Chemistry, Physics, Geology, Modern History, and Moral Philosophy through the medium of the English.

The college is, of course, unsectarian, though not un-Christian, and numbers among its students Protestants, Catholics, Greeks, Druzes, and Moslems. Regular morning and evening prayers are attended by all, and a Sunday preaching service is attended by the boarders.

Yours truly, Edwin R. Lewis.

Syrian Protestant College, Beirut, Syria, April 18, 1878.

TURGENEFF AND HIS TRANSLATORS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The reprint of Mr. James's essay on Turgeneff gives a suitable occasion for a word about the translations of this author's works. The only ones to be heartily recommended are the German published by Behre at Mitau. They are the author's copyright, and may be depended upon as containing *the whole* of the originals, given with all the fidelity that could be expected of the heavier, more-involved German in dealing with the direct, crisp Russian. It is a great pity that the earlier edition of Janke of Berlin has been the medium by which so many persons have obtained their first knowledge of Turgeneff. At a mark a volume one has no business to ask for exactness, but the cutting was a little too wholesale which, for instance, reduced 'Smoke' ('Dunst') to hardly two-thirds of the original. Turgeneff's master-hand is shown in nothing so much as in his perfect sense of proportion. This cutting and compressing destroys all that. One might as well reduce a Meissonier or a Turner by cutting out an inch-strip here and a hand's-breadth there.

The French have not done so much better, for they too have often left out long passages, the omission of which completely disturbs and falsifies the relative positions of the characters; nay, it almost reverses the order in which the artist has placed them in the planes of his picture. I have before me a French sketch of Russian contemporary literature, an accepted authority, which describes 'Smoke' as "a love-affair with a married woman," without the slightest hint of the earlier betrothal, the essential circumstance which gives the whole force to the well-nigh tragic story. But, turning to the translation, one is not so much surprised, since the condensing of the first third of the book has altered the perspective completely. Potughine and Litvinoff are no longer in the foreground, as in the original, but Irena herself. Without the correction of the French by the original or by the 'Rauch' (Behre), the storm which raged against the author, the anathemas hurled upon him by both the Slavophile and the Occidental party, are incomprehensible. Russian social questions may not have the same interest in Paris or here that is awakened by the intensely passionate drama of the romances, but Turgeneff, whether artist or man, is not Turgeneff apart from them.

I have said the German is too heavy, its construction too involved, for the Russian. The French, though light and fine, is still less adequate to express the wonderful vividness and picturesque variety of the Russian. Since the translators had at the outset the difficult and inevitable condition, to render the fullest of modern languages in that which is the narrowest, one might have expected of them a most persistent attempt at exactness and literalness; but so far from that, there is always a preference for general terms, an aim at something that seems to be a curious idea of "finish," according to some supposed standard, all which ends in a copy wherein the lines are faint, the colors dull and dead, the action tame. Taking up this same 'Smoke' at random, I find an instance like this: It is a moment of no less importance than the first appearance of Irena in the story, on the staircase of the hotel at Baden. The French reads:

"Une dame de haute taille, avec une courte voilette sur son chapeau, le descendait; en apercevant Litvinoff, elle s'arrêta comme frappée de la foudre. Elle rougit et pâlit; Litvinoff ne la remarqua pas; elle descendit rapidement l'escalier."

The Russian, as literally as I can render it, is:

"A tall, stately lady, in a hat and a short black veil, with light, soft grace was descending the same stairway, and, seeing Litvinoff, turned towards him and stopped as if overpowered (struck still) with surprise. Her face in an instant flushed, and then as quickly grew pale, under the close-woven lace; but Litvinoff did not notice her, and the lady, more lightly and softly than before, went on down the broad steps."

Perhaps the saving of space in the French is enough to supply a plausible motive for this condensing, but how are we to account for the omission of the closing words of Neshdanoff's letter to Marianna in the last chapter of 'Nov'? The French reads "Adieu, Marianna, adieu!' The English follows that in "Farewell, Marianna, farewell!" The force of the Russian word itself is unattainable; for though it is the common word of parting, yet that is not, as with us, a wish for others' welfare, but a direct personal appeal for pardon for any pain or trouble given. It is commonly supposed to have passed into ordinary speech from its use by the dying. Since, then, so much of the pathos of the original must inevitably be wanting, how extraordinary that the closing words, "My pure, untouched one," should have been *left out*. I am assured that the word for "untouched" would bear without forcing the rendering "immaculate," but I prefer to leave the original figure. The light thrown by those simple words upon the much-discussed question of the relations of Neshdanoff and Marianna in those last weeks of his life makes their suppression almost a wilful violation of facts.

Nearly all the English translations have been taken from the French, and, of course, adopt all these alterations in form and perspective, while the style suffers a further depreciation from the tendency to use the Latin side of our language in translating from the French, and so departing more and more from the vigorous and vivid definiteness of the original. Our English is the one adequate language for translating Russian, both from the similarity in directness of construction and the fulness of vocabulary it derives from its double parentage. One need know no language but English to feel the superiority of Mr. Ralston's 'Lisa' ('Une Nichée de Gentilshommes') over all the other translations. It is a pity to have to put at the other end of the scale Mr. Schuyler's 'Fathers and Sons.' While the French have altered the form, Mr. Schuyler has falsified the tone, the atmosphere. The whole book is belittled and "vulgarized" by the ignoble touch. Imagine a great drama played with all the perfection and grace of the Français, and then put it into the hands of the stock company of one of our second-best theatres, and the difference is not greater than between Turgeneff's 'Fathers and Sons' and Mr. Schuyler's. The baldest literal translation of the scene in Bazaroff's death-chamber would be ample proof of the justice of this criticism.

All the criticism upon Turgeneff known in this country has been based upon these imperfect translations. To Mr. James, 'Smoke' is the story of "the baleful beauty who robs Tatiana of her lover"; Bazaroff's claims are "brutal"; Turgeneff is himself a hopeless pessimist, scarcely different from the crowd around "the Russian tree" at Baden. There is more and better and deeper than all that, more than there is space here to analyze. In the dim, blurred picture that is all we get: only the stronger lines, only the tragic lights and shadows remain; the softer, tenderer half-tones are lost. The style, too, as essential to the force and the truth of the work as to its beauty, we have scarcely heard of. Turgeneff's style is as well worth study as Goethe's. Clear, simple, and perfect in measure, it renews for us the hope that it is even yet possible to embody the intense situations of modern life in the statuesque beauty of the antique.

CLARA B. MARTIN.

BOSTON, April 30, 1878.

THE REISSUE OF LEGAL TENDERS.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The Cincinnati Central Club of the "National Party of the United States," at its meeting in this city on the 29th ult., passed the following resolution:

"*Resolved*, That Judge Hilton, of this city, a member of this club, be requested to enquire of the New York *Nation* the authority for its statement in its issue of 18th ult., p. 350, 'that the Supreme Court of the United States had denied the right of the United States to reissue legal-tender notes in time of peace'; and that Judge Hilton make such statement of the decision of the Court referred to, for publication in the *Nation*, as truth, the dignity of the subject, and the immense interests involved to the Government and the people require."

In compliance with the above, this communication is addressed to you, in order to provoke investigation and probe this matter to the bottom, and we therefore hope you will deem it worthy of publication and of editorial notice in your widely-circulated and influential paper. Certainly the gravity of the subject at this particular juncture, when the Secretary of the Treasury is about to reissue (or proposes to do so) as a circulating medium the legal-tender notes which he may from time to time redeem in coin under the Resumption Act, requires this investigation. The Secretary thus aims to give the notes the highest possible character the Government is capable of giving; particularly so should Congress also authorize them, at his suggestion, to be received in payment of duties on imports.

In your article, on p. 257, you say:

"If he (Secretary Sherman) means to reissue the greenbacks, he ought in decency to ask Congress that they may be deprived of their legal-tender character and allowed to circulate for what they are worth as Government promissory notes. It is exceedingly doubtful in any case whether his reissue would be accepted as any thing more than this, and whether the courts would hold them to be a legal tender."

The above suggestion would be like the play of "Hamlet" with the part of *Hamlet* left out by special request. It is what Chief-Justice Chase, in his dissenting opinion, after the war was over, urged, as a plea for their unconstitutionality, that the legal-tender property did not add to their value. This could only excite a smile, for without it they would have totally depreciated. As there was no coin in the country, there was nothing left to circulate as legal tender, or pass as money from hand to hand in payment of the immense business transactions of the country. That salutary principle engrafted upon it, and which really makes it money, has survived all the vicissitudes of war and peace. It was potent then, and it is still more potent now. Without it those notes would have been no better, if as good, as the national-bank notes, which are not money but a mere promise to pay money, and not a legal tender. The others are, as declared by the law creating them, both lawful money and a legal tender—an immense difference—and thus endowed with totally distinct and substantive qualities.

This brief statement is all that is required on this point. I now address myself to the question which is fundamental and lies at the bottom of this whole discussion. Has the Legal-Tender Act of February 25, 1862, been pronounced by the Supreme Court of the United States con-

stitutional, a power which may be brought into requisition in peace or in war at the discretion of Congress? If the Supreme Court has so declared, it is the supreme law of the land, and must be so everywhere held and enforced, until repealed or altered by the same power that enacted the law. Justice Strong, in the opinion of the Court, 12 Wallace, 530, says:

"There may be a difference in the effects produced by the acts and in the hardship of their operation, but in both cases the fundamental question—that which tests the validity of the legislation—is, Can Congress constitutionally give to Treasury notes the character and qualities of money? Can such notes be constituted a legitimate circulating medium, having a defined legal value? If they can, then such notes must be available to fulfil all contracts (not expressly excepted) solvable in money, without reference to the time when the contracts were made. Hence it is not strange that those who hold the legal-tender acts unconstitutional when applied to contracts made before February, 1862, find themselves compelled also to hold that the acts are invalid as to debts contracted after that time, and to hold that both classes of debts alike can be discharged only by gold and silver coin."

Can "the fundamental question" be stated clearer than this, or the English language used stronger or in terms more distinct? It is this fundamental question that the Court decided in the affirmative. The opinion of the Court is a very able one, examining all the arguments and authorities pro and con. The case was decided in 1870, after repeated arguments by the ablest counsel in the country and by a full bench. There is not one word in the decision that puts it on the ground of a war-power, or only to be exercised in time of war. The acts were enacted during the war, and the money created exercised a powerful influence on the war. But it places the exercise of the power as a necessary and incidental one to the emission of bills of credit, Treasury or bank notes, to circulate as money, which the Court had previously decided was a constitutional prerogative of Congress, in Veazie Bank *v.* Fenno (8 Wallace, 533). And, as the Constitution is silent as to what the Government may make a legal tender, even as to coin, the whole power results as a necessary incident of the other delegated powers, over the entire circulating medium.

The Court say, on p. 544 (12 Wallace), referring to the above case in 8 Wallace:

"It is not easy to see why if State bank notes can be taxed out of existence, for the purposes of indirectly making United States notes more convenient and *useful for commercial purposes*, the same end may not be secured by making them a legal tender." . . .

Further, "They claim that the clause which conferred upon Congress power 'to coin money, regulate the value thereof and of foreign coin,' contains an implication that nothing but that which is the subject of coinage can ever be declared by law to be money, or have the uses of money. If by this is meant that because certain powers over the currency are *expressly* given to Congress all other powers relating to the same subject are impliedly forbidden, we need only remark that such is not the manner in which the Constitution has always been construed. On the contrary, etc."

And then the Court gives at considerable length examples of the contrary. Finally, on p. 553, the Court say:

"But without extending our remarks further, it will be seen that we hold the acts of Congress constitutional as applied to contracts made either before or after their passage."

I might close here; but I will briefly refer to the concurring opinion of Justice Bradley, which has been charged as placing the decision upon the war-power doctrine, and an extract from which, often quoted and taken out of the connection of what is stated before and after, has misled many and I am glad to have an opportunity to correct it. In opening, Justice Bradley says, p. 554:

"I concur in the opinion just read, and should feel that it was out of place to add anything further on the subject, were it not for its great importance." And on p. 567 he says: "I do not say that it is a war-power, or that it is only to be called into exercise in time of war; for other public exigencies may arise in the history of a nation which may make it expedient and imperative to exercise it. But of the occasion when, and of the time how long, it shall be exercised and in force, it is for the legislative department of the Government to judge."

In the other parts of his lengthy opinion he rests it upon general principles fully stated, as does Justice Strong, and not upon any emergency of peace or war. However, the above extract is clear, as Congress is *the judge of the "occasion," and the time when it may exercise it.* This is enough. Respectfully, GEO. H. HILTON.

CINCINNATI, May 6, 1878.

[As regards the extent to which the legal-tender quality added to the value of the greenbacks, Judge Hilton's memory seems to fail him. He may "smile," but the *fact* is that they began to depreciate immediately after they were issued, until at one period, near the close of the war, it took $2 80 in paper to buy a gold dollar. They rose and fell with the credit of the Government, just as ordinary promissory notes would have done, and it is difficult to believe that the simple promissory notes of the Government would at any time have sold for less than thirty-six cents on the dollar, which is all the greenback at one time brought. We do not say the legal-tender quality was of no value to the paper. In the first place, as Judge Miller pointed out in his dissenting opinion in Hepburn *v.* Griswold, it caught all creditors with debts outstanding when the issue was made, and, in catching them, expelled specie from the country. This gave the greenbacks a monopoly of the work of currency, and therefore in some degree strengthened them. The illusion under which Judge Hilton and a good many others labor, and have labored, is that when a government makes a worthless material a legal-tender, it catches not only the actual creditor but all who may wish to sell or lend afterwards. This is the fundamental fallacy of the greenback movement. But as soon as you have hit the existing creditor the force of your legal-tender bolt is spent, and your note becomes practically a simple promissory note, owing its value partly to the chance of its being paid and partly to its convenience as currency. Prices of all commodities, and the amount advanced on all securities after the issue, are based simply on the seller's or lender's *own* estimate of the value of the note. To the Government estimate of it, or wish about it, he pays no attention whatever. If people cared what Congress said on this subject, gold in 1864 would not have risen to 280. This is, indeed, one of the best-known incidents in the history of legal-tender paper. The passage Judge Hilton quotes from Judge Strong's decision does not touch the question we are discussing at all. That question is not, Has Congress a right to issue legal-tender paper money at any time, and, if so, is such issue valid as regards previous as well as regards subsequent contracts? What we are discussing is: Has the Supreme Court denied the right of Congress to issue such paper money in time of peace, or has it only affirmed that right as a war right? On this point Judge Hilton has been far too sparing in his quotations, and has not, as it seems to us, by any means "probed the matter to the bottom."

The judgment in the two cases, King *v.* Lee and Parker *v.* Davis, which overruled the decision in Hepburn *v.* Griswold, was delivered in two opinions by Judges Strong and Bradley respectively. The former maintains the power of Congress to issue paper money and make it a legal tender by a variety of arguments with which we have here no concern. Its right to exercise the power in 1862 he shows by describing the circumstances under which it was exercised, or, in other words, the nature of the crisis which called for it, such as the existence of a civil war, "threatening the Constitution or the Government itself with destruction"; the emptiness of the Treasury; the impossibility of meeting the needs of the Treasury by taxation or a voluntary loan at home or abroad. The assertion that the money might have been procured in some other way he treats as "mere conjecture," and argues that the issue having, in point of fact, met the "emergency," Congress exercised a legitimate discretion in resorting to it. But he concedes that "Congress is not authorized to enact laws in furtherance even of a legitimate end merely because they are useful, or because they make the Government stronger." He "does not assert that Congress may make anything which has no value money." "What we do assert," he says, "is that Congress has power to enact that the Government promises to pay shall be, *for the time being*, equivalent in value to the representative of value determined by the coinage acts. . . . It is, then, a mistake to regard the legal-tender acts as either fixing a standard of value or regulating money values, or making that money which has no intrinsic value."

Judge Bradley is still more explicit. After affirming the prerogative of every Government to "*anticipate its resources*," by the issue of exchequer bills, and to make them legal tender in the absence of a Constitutional prohibition, he goes on to say that the exercise of this power

"is a pledge of the national credit. It is a promise by the Gov-

ernment to pay dollars; *it is not an attempt to make dollars.* The standard of value is not changed. The Government simply demands that its credit shall be accepted and received by public and private creditors *during the pending exigency.* Every government has a right to demand *this when its existence is at stake.*" . . . "But it is said, Why not borrow money in the ordinary way? The answer is, the legislative department, being the nation itself by its representatives, has a choice of methods, and is master of its own discretion. One mode of borrowing, it is true, is to issue the Government bonds, and to invite capitalists to purchase them. But this is not the only mode. It is often too tardy and inefficient. *In time of war and public danger,* Congress, representing the sovereign power, may authorize the President to take private property for public use and give Government certificates therefor. . . . It is an indirect way of compelling the owner of property to lend to the Government."

From this he draws the conclusion that if the Government, instead of directly taking the property, buys the property from those who are willing to sell, and gives certificates in payment which the seller is authorized to force on his creditors in payment of his debts, "it is nothing more than transferring the Government loan from the hands of one man to the hands of another—perhaps more able to advance it." He adds:

"No one supposes that these Government certificates are never to be paid—that the day of specie payments is never to return. And it matters not in what form they are issued, the principle is still the same. Instead of certificates they may be Treasury notes, or paper of any other form. . . . Through whatever changes they pass, their ultimate destination *is to be paid.* But it is the prerogative of the legislative department to determine when the fit time for payment has come. It may be long delayed, perhaps many may think *too long after the exigency has passed.* But the abuse, if proven, is no argument against its existence."

We will here remark that Congress *has* provided that the "certificates" now outstanding shall be "paid" on presentation on and after January, 1879, and it is therefore plain that the reissue of them by Secretary Sherman will be made without a shadow of authority. He will be virtually issuing new exchequer bills which Congress has not authorized, and which are not called for by any public "emergency" or "exigency."

Judge Bradley further says, in a passage of which Judge Hilton has conveniently quoted only one-half:

"It follows as another corollary from the views which I have expressed that the power to make Treasury notes a legal tender, whilst a mere incidental one to that of issuing the notes themselves, and to one of the forms of borrowing, is nevertheless a power *not to be resorted to except on extraordinary and pressing occasions,* such as war and other public exigencies of great gravity and importance, *and should be no longer exerted than all the circumstances of the case demand.* I do not say it is a war-power, or that it is only to be called into exercise in time of war, for other public exigencies may arise in the history of a nation which may make it expedient and imperative to exercise it."

We think, although the financial discussions in the opinions are very foggy, that it may therefore be affirmed that the Court has, by a very strong implication, denied the right of Congress to issue legal-tender paper, except in "time of war," or of great national danger or distress, threatening the country with the loss of a convenient medium of exchange; and that the notion that Congress, when the country is furnished with an abundance of paper issued by banks, founded, regulated, and secured, in so far as their circulation is concerned, by the Government, and when peace reigns everywhere within our borders, can go into the business of issuing legal-tender exchequer bills to any amount it pleases, and to an amount which would probably be changed once a year, is unwarranted. We have italicized the passages in the above extracts to which we wish to direct the particular attention of "the Cincinnati Central Club."—Ed. Nation.]

PRESIDENT HAYES'S HONOR.

"The Electoral Commission . . . delivered the country from a great peril, and Mr. Hayes from what was, or ought to have been, a great perplexity. It gave him as good a title to the Presidency as was possible under the circumstances, and a good enough title to satisfy all sensible men who cared more for the stability of the Government and the prosperity of the country than for the triumph of any political party. It not only enabled him to take the place without discredit, but made it impossible to avoid taking it. It was awarded to him by as good authority as if Congress, instead of creating the Electoral Commission, had itself declared him elected in the usual way. The fact that frauds had occurred in any particular State concerned him no more in the one case than it would have concerned him in the other. No honorable man could accept the Presidency if before accepting it he was bound to satisfy himself that in every State in which he had a majority, the vote had been lawfully cast and the count honestly made."—*Nation,* May 2.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: I do not object to the political conclusions reached in the above paragraph, but its ethics are shocking, and it confuses the moral duties of Mr. Hayes by making no distinction between his obligations before and after the Electoral Commission.

The scamp whose title to his property is secured by his plea of the statute of limitations, or his minority, is no less a scamp because of the security which the law, for other than moral reasons, gives him. His title is good, but decent people give him a wide berth.

That Mr. Hayes, under ordinary circumstances, ought to have taken for granted that the election was fair, and was not "bound to satisfy himself that in every State in which" a majority was returned for him "the vote had been lawfully cast and honestly counted," may be assumed. *Omnia præsumuntur rite acta* is, perhaps, predicable of elections as well as judicial proceedings. But how when that presumption of correctness is rebutted and destroyed? How when honest men of his own party (Gen. Barlow) sent there by him reported to him that he had not a majority in Florida? How when honest newspapers (the *Nation* among others) told him he was not elected? How when every honest man in the country knew that the vilest wretches in the land were his election officers, counting, altering, forging, and swearing falsely for him, and that his friends, "the visiting statesmen," all since rewarded by him, stood by and silently or otherwise helped the cause along? Then one would say that the presumption of fairness which you invoke for Mr. Hayes hardly applies, and he was, if an honorable man, bound to do something. What?

It was not after the decision of the Electoral Committee that Mr. Hayes committed his crime. It commenced on the morning after the election, when Wm. E. Chandler, chairman of the committee conducting his canvass, telegraphed South that Louisiana and Florida *must* be held for the Republicans. From that hour to the time when the Returning Boards returned the fraudulent majorities was the supreme hour for Mr. Hayes. Can it be doubted that a word, a hint from him then on the side of truth, would have prevailed? Will the *Nation* maintain that it was not for him to have said that word then, in the face of what was notorious to every honest man? Silence, or what in the light of after events must be construed into worse than silence—acquiescence with knowledge—on the acts of his agents, is Mr. Hayes's dishonor, and no verdict of any tribunal on the question of his title, especially that of a tribunal which (properly, I think) gave him his title because it could not investigate the fraud, can wash out that stain.

When the public works of Pennsylvania were sold by the State to the Pennsylvania Railroad, corruption ran riot in the Legislature. It was barely concealed sufficiently to prevent legislative enquiry. Every one knew of it—what men's votes were bought, how much went into this one's pocket, and how that man managed it. Yet in a litigation arising out of it the president of the mighty corporation out of whose treasury the money came was able to swear that he did not know of any improper practices through which the legislation was procured. Are you of the opinion that the president of this road, much more the would-be President of this great Republic, from whose exalted seat no beams save those of the highest purity and honor should be reflected, can call about him the villains of his community, can show them the end he would accomplish, can fill their hands with money, and then say that *he* knew of no unlawful means used?

No! We won't deny his title. But let not the *Nation,* of all the papers in this country, say that the question of Mr. Hayes's title is the question of his honor. J. S.

Philadelphia, May 8, 1878.

[We have not overlooked the distinction between Mr. Hayes's position before and after the decision of the Commission. We said very distinctly at the time that we saw no way in which he could take the place by the award of his own party simply—that is, by the proposed count by the Vice-President, backed by the Army and Navy,

and supported by the reports of "visiting statesmen." That scheme having been fortunately abandoned, we thought him, under all the circumstances, justified in concluding that inasmuch as it was not his purely personal concern, he being really the representative of a party containing a large body of men as moral and honorable as himself, he ought to wait and see what *both* parties would decide as to the best mode of terminating the controversy, and abide by the result. Both parties did come to an agreement, and arranged that the office should be awarded to one of two claimants in a certain manner, and it was so awarded. J. S.'s parallel about the statute of limitation fails, owing to the fact that "the scamp's" rival claimant never agreed to have the matter settled by the statute of limitations, or by proof of the date of his birth.

We confess, however, that we do not and did not look on Mr. Hayes's attitude during the count down in Florida and Louisiana as entirely satisfactory. He ought not, we thought and think, to have permitted the operations of the "visiting statesmen," and his conduct at that period has been put in a worse light by the rewards since showered on those "statesmen," and on members of the Returning Boards. We naturally think, too, that he ought to have paid more heed to General Barlow and the *Nation*. But when it comes to setting him down as dishonorable for these reasons we are met by serious difficulties which do not seem to have occurred to J. S. We do not feel that we have a right to exact from Mr. Hayes, in a time of tremendous popular excitement, a nicer sense of propriety than that which during that unfortunate winter prevailed among the bulk of the best members of his own party. We believe he was sustained in his attitude by the great body of the most honest and upright Republicans, and it was idle to expect that he would not be much influenced by this support in the midst of a crisis which put such a terrible strain on the judgment; and it would be unjust to heap reprobation on him for doing what a thousand honored and honorable men, whom we could name, would have done in his place. That the moral standard of these thousand was at the time temporarily lowered we do not deny, but it was lowered just as the standard of so many excellent men is lowered in war, when the end seems so tremendous that their sense of proportion is disordered, and any means seem welcome and even lawful.

It must be taken into account, too, that the consciences of those worthy Republicans who believed the Returning Boards had cheated Tilden were quieted by the equally strong belief that Hayes had been cheated at the polls by intimidation and violence, and that in the matter of fraud, therefore, both candidates stood on the same level. We pointed out frequently in these columns what we considered the objection to this theory, but we never felt authorized to denounce as a rascal anybody who did not accept our view. As an illustration of the condition of the public mind at that time on points of morals, we may recall the fact that we suggested as a way out of the terrible dilemma in which the country found itself in the month following the election, that any member of the Electoral College who thought what J. S. thinks Mr. Hayes ought to have known, and must have known – that the vote of Florida and Louisiana had been fraudulently counted—should, by casting his vote for a third candidate, refuse to consummate the fraud, so as to throw the election into the House and thus commit the issue to the regular machinery of the Constitution. That an elector who thought so was bound to withhold his vote from the conspirators, in the absence of any mode of reporting the facts to his constituents and resigning his trust to them, is as plain a proposition in morals as the Eighth Commandment. Nevertheless, not only did no elector think so—which is not perhaps surprising—but thousands of professed moralists, ministers, editors of "religious" papers, deacons, and what not, thought that the mere proposal that an elector should divert his vote, fraud or no fraud, was a shocking one. In other words, a mere political usage was more sacred in their eyes than one of the fundamental canons of civilized morality. In view of this state of facts, why single out Mr. Hayes as peculiarly and conspicuously feeble in his moral perceptions?—Ed. Nation.]

Notes.

A SECOND edition of Tuckerman's 'Greeks of To-Day' has just been published by G. P. Putnam's Sons. On comparing it with the edition of 1872 we find that it has been revised to good purpose, though not thoroughly, and can now be praised with less reserve than formerly.——Revisions and additions, including a number of maps, have added much to the value of Leeds's 'History of the United States,' of which the second edition has lately appeared (Lippincott & Co.)——Sheldon & Co. have issued Wayland's 'Elements of Political Economy,' recast and freshened by Dr. Chapin, President of Beloit College.——Dr. R. S. Storrs's two public addresses on "The Early American Spirit" and "The Declaration of Independence," heretofore printed separately, have now been brought out in one elegant volume by A. D. F. Randolph & Co.——The following are among the latest Government publications: Vol. vii. of the U. S. Geological Survey of the Territories, 4to, being Prof. Lesquereux's report on the Tertiary Flora of the West, accompanied by sixty-two highly interesting plates of fossil leaves; the same Survey's Bulletin (vol. iv., No. 1), of whose fourteen articles we can only mention Sennett on the Birds of the Lower Rio Grande, and Coues on a Breed of Solid-hoofed Pigs in Texas; and vol. iii. of the Powell Survey's 'Contributions to North American Ethnology,' 4to. This last is a report on the tribes of California by Stephen Powers, and has a popular as well as a scientific interest, being well garnished with legends and excellent illustrations.——The discussion in which Prof. Dunbar had the last word is continued in the *Penn Monthly* for May, by Prof. R E. Thompson, who writes of the "Use and Abuse of Examinations."——The third year of the Bowdoin College Summer School of Science opens July 15, at Brunswick, Me., and lasts six weeks. Instruction will be given in chemistry, mineralogy, and zoölogy.——The London scientific journal, *Nature*, begins this month a new volume, and announces simultaneously that it will be enlarged and that its price will be raised. This is a sign of prosperity which every one who knows the character of the paper, and its immense utility as a scientific medium, must rejoice to observe.——Prof. Ernst Curtius's 'Atlas of Athens' will soon appear, with twelve new maps.——A "Mazarin" Bible is to be sold in Paris, June 1; it is described as more perfect than the one which brought £3,400 at the Perkins sale in 1873.——Houghton, Osgood & Co. have nearly ready a volume of 'Memorial and Biographical Sketches,' ranging from Rousseau to John A. Andrew, by the Rev. James Freeman Clarke.——R. Worthington is about to bring out a new and enlarged edition of Lord Dufferin's 'Letters from High Latitudes.'——Fords, Howard & Hulbert will publish, May 22, Mrs. H. B. Stowe's 'Poganuc People.'——The obituary of the week includes, besides the honored head of the Smithsonian Institution, Miss Catherine E. Beecher, the oldest child of Lyman Beecher, and a prolific and useful author in her day.

—That which is inevitable is sure to come to pass, and "cultured" Boston may thank the committee of divines and other well-intentioned men who set up and support Joseph Cook, for *un mauvais quart d'heure*, very amusing withal, to which the *Saturday Review* treats us in its review of the Lectures on Biology. The title of the article, "Spread-Eagle Philosophy," is not amiss, and the inference that the lectures "show one what the metaphysics of Massachusetts are like, and the kind of style and of argument that pleases a serious American audience," is not unfair under the circumstances. Having noticed how these demoralizing deliverances were lauded by a Boston audience with an unequalled amount of brains in it, the reviewer may well "wonder what sort of trash he could pour out before an audience which he held in less respect." The following hits the mark:

"'Herr Lotze's philosophy,' we are informed, 'is the most brilliant, the most audacious, the most abreast of the time, of all the philosophies of the globe.' *The most abreast of the time*—these words sum up the popular conception of philosophy. Who is the very newest man? people ask; what is the 'last novelty' in opinion? That is the faith to run after, just as the last hideous color is the most fashionable. People seem to think that Herr Lotze, or Herr Haeckel, or Mr. Huxley has found something out that proves or disproves the mysterious and eternal questions. If we have loops at the end of our nerves all is well; there is a God and a future life. If the horse is descended from a pony no bigger than a fox, let us eat and drink, for to-morrow we die. The last speaker is sure to know best; the most recent work on the microscope contains the secret of the universe."

—Whoever has enjoyed Zamacois's well-known painting, "The Education of a Prince," will appreciate the contrast afforded by the account,

in *Scribner's* for April, of the school-life of the young Queen Mercédès of Spain. The story is told by one of her fellow-pupils in a conventual *pensionnat* near Paris during the term 1873–74. The princess was a day-scholar only; her Boston friend, the writer, spent all her time at the convent. The gossip about Mercédès is conveyed in a series of home letters, lively and graphic, and of unusual literary merit considering the age of the writer. Except in being addressed as Madame, the princess of thirteen was treated to perfect equality, and she eagerly courted it. She would not lend the weight of her rank to a movement to pardon an offender justly punished, in her opinion; she would neither head it nor join it at all, much as the culprit was wanted for a play in which a leading part fell to her. Other characteristic scènes are where Mercédès herself submits to a just though humiliating punishment, and afterwards voluntarily thanks her superior for reminding her of her duty "to give the highest example"; where she tries to recite Longfellow's "Psalm of Life" and breaks down, and sits down as if the earth had swallowed her up, in mortification; and where she avoids taking the honor of a purple ribbon because she thinks she does not deserve it. These incidents speak well for her conscientious disposition and careful training. One curious family custom is reported on her authority. The youthful Montpensiers are never allowed to retire for the night without receiving their father's blessing, and usually they keep very early hours. Sometimes, however, "when their father is off with the hunt he is delayed till nearly midnight; but, instead of undressing, the children stay down-stairs and take naps in chairs till he gets back. . . . When the father comes home they just wake up enough to receive his embrace and blessing, and get off to bed as fast as they can." Besides what this article ("A Queen at School") has to tell of its immediate subject, it may be recommended for its spirited pictures of religious *pension* life. Extremes seem to meet when we read a passage like the following, which suggests the ideal of co-education:

"After they had gone, *Horatio*, *Bernardo*, and I repaired to the dressing-room to get ready, studying our parts till the last moment, and Sister Marie N—— flying round to put us in order. What a palpitation of the heart it does give you to have a pretty creature, with whom you are desperately in love, suddenly drop on her knees before you to strap up your boots!"

—The *Sun* has obtained from Mr. Schuckers (the biographer of Chief-Justice Chase), and published, the protest drawn up at the time of the forced rehearing of the legal-tender cases by the judges who were opposed to the reopening of the question. This paper, corroborated in many points by a narrative of the circumstances written by the Chief-Justice, and now also published for the first time, was actually filed with the Clerk of the Court, in 1870, but was subsequently withdrawn from the records. It gives the following history of the matter: At the time of the legal-tender arguments the legal-tender question was involved in a number of cases before the court; in order to avoid the necessity of going over the ground several times, the cases of Lathams *agst.* the United States and Deming *agst.* the United States were continued on an order of Court that the question should be argued in other cases, and not in them. That these cases were to abide the result in the others was the understanding of counsel, as is proved by notes addressed by them to the Chief-Justice; beside this, leave was given to the Attorney-General to make an argument on behalf of the Government, and under this permission Mr. Evarts did make a full and thorough argument. Every precaution having thus been taken, the legal-tender question was decided in a series of cases ending with Hepburn *agst.* Griswold, in which the legal-tender acts were decided to be unconstitutional as to contracts made before their passage, by five judges to three; this decision was made in conference January 29, 1870, but the reading of it was delayed a week to give time for the preparation of the dissenting opinion. The cases having all been thus decided, Messrs. Bradley and Strong were made members of the court, and "within two days after this change had been effected, the Attorney-General (Judge Hoar) moved that these two cases, which had been passed under the order already stated, be set down for argument, and suggested that the legal-tender question might be reconsidered in them." "And then," the protest continues, "for the first time we heard it insisted that the legal-tender question had not been argued and decided in those identical cases, and might therefore be re-argued in them." But, besides the objection to reargument arising from the fact that the understanding had been all along that the Latham and Deming cases should abide the result in the others, there was in force a rule of court announced in 1852, and "very recently reiterated," to the effect that no reargument could be granted in any case "unless a member of the court who concurred in the judgment desired it." Notwithstanding all this the reargument was ordered by a vote of five to four, the majority being secured by the union of the two new judges with the minority. Considering that it was known in advance almost certainly how these new judges would vote, it would require a good deal of evidence, after the publication of this document, to refute the charge that the court was "packed" to obtain a reversal.

—Calmann Lévy has published Emile Augier's plays in six volumes. Augier was one of the followers of Ponsard in the reaction against the Romantic school that began about 1843. His first play "La ciguë" had a Greek story; it was as bright as Ponsard's "Lucrèce" was austere. He soon turned to the comedy of contemporary manners, but so long as he wrote in verse it was evident that the Greeks and the poets of the seventeenth century had all his admiration; and even in his prose comedies there is that restraint and absence of passion and sensation that becomes a disciple at once of the classic school and the "school of good sense." Many of the plays seem in some respects more like novels than dramas. The movement is a little slow, the action is peaceable, there is a certain want of force to which we are not accustomed on the stage. Nevertheless, almost every one has been warmly applauded, and they are excellent reading, with their graceful versification, sparkling dialogue, and most ingenious studies of character. Some of the comedies that are highly esteemed by the French critics—and indeed, so far as their words go, have little that is objectionable—offend American sensibilities by their subject. Naturally the pieces "qui relèvent une plaie sociale" are not altogether agreeable reading. But the following can be recommended to any one: "L'habit vert," "Ceinture dorée," "La pierre de touche," "Un beau mariage," "Maître Guérin," "Lions et renards," "Le post-scriptum," and, less unreservedly, "Philiberte." Augier has just brought out a new five-act comedy, "Les Fourchambault" with such success that his election to the Academy is thought to be assured.

—All students of Spanish literature and all lovers of the sonnet doubtless remember the celebrated "Sonnet to Violante" in Lope de Vega's comedy, "Niña de Plata." In it the poet bewails his inability to obey his mistress's request to rhyme her fourteen lines, and so bewailing and half unconscious, as it were, achieves the task. The idea has been imitated many times and in many languages; in Italian by Marino; in French by Voiture, who adopts the "rondeau" form instead of the sonnet. In Lord Holland's 'Life of Lope de Vega' (London, 1817) is an English version by Edwards, and this French one by Regnier Desmarets:

"Doris, qui sait qu'aux vers quelquefois je me plais,
Me demande un sonnet, et je m'en désespère
Quatorze vers; Grand Dieu! le moyen de les faire!
En voilà cependant quatre déjà de faits.
Je ne pouvois d'abord trouver de rime; mais
En faisant on apprend à se tirer d'affaire.
Poursuivons: les quatrains ne m'étonneront guères,
Si du premier tercet je pus faire les frais.
Je commence au hazard; et si je ne m'abuse,
Je n'ai pas commencé sans l'aveu de la muse.
Puisqu'en si peu de tems je m'en tire du net,
J'entame le second, et ma joie est extrême;
Car des vers commandés, j'achève le treizième;
Comptez s'ils sont quatorze, et voilà le sonnet."

In the recently issued almanac of the Paris newspaper, *Le Figaro*, is this somewhat similar sonnet by M. Henri Meilhac—a writer generally of sufficient originality not to tread in the tracks of his predecessors:

"Un sonnet, dites-vous; savez-vous bien, Madame,
Qu'il me faudra trouver trois rimes à sonnet?
Madame, heureusement, rime avec âme et flamme,
Et le premier quatrain me semble assez complet.

"J'entame le second, le second je l'entame,
Et prends en l'entamant un air tout guilleret,
Car ne m'étant encor point servi du mot âme,
Je compte m'en servir, et m'en sers en effet.

"Vous m'accorderez bien, maintenant, j'imagine,
Qu'un sonnet sans amour ferait fort triste mine,
Qu'il aurait l'air boiteux, contrefait, mal tourné.

"Il nous faut de l'amour, il nous en faut quand même;
J'écris donc en tremblant: Je vous aime ou je t'aime,
Et voilà, pour le coup, mon sonnet terminé."

A neat English version of Voiture's rondeau, turning on the same point, can be found in Mr. Austin Dobson's 'Proverbs in Porcelain.' And while we are discussing this class of literary coincidence we may as well note that Mr. Bret Harte seems to have taken a fancy to Mr. Dobson's dainty "Tu Quoque," for in a recent poem the American poet has "lifted" the color and form of the English poet's Horatian verse.

—A writer in the Milan *Perseveranza* of April 21, 24, discusses the portraits of Columbus whose claims are worth considering. He begins by declining to express any opinion about a portrait said to have turned up here at a sale in New Orleans in 1865, and which he had not seen; but he clearly intimates his belief that it is one of those sophistications for which the special word "humbug" has been devised. The portrait regarded as

most genuine, he says, is that attributed to Antonio del Rincon, the favorite court-painter of Ferdinand and Isabella, whose portraits by him are still preserved at Toledo. This artist died at Seville in 1500. After enumerating the several likenesses reproduced by De Bry; that attributed to Parmigianino and preserved in the National Museum at Naples, which was accepted by Prescott; Colendi's engraving from an old anonymous portrait in the family of Colombo of Cuccaro; the niello (after an original design by Stradano) copied by Paul Lacroix in vol. i. of his 'Les Arts au Moyen Age,' and others, the writer gives his reason for thinking that the miniature of Saint Christopher at the head of De la Cosa's Map of the New World (1500) may be intended to represent Columbus. If so, the likeness might be allowed a place amongst the most probable, seeing that John De la Cosa accompanied Columbus as pilot in his second voyage (1493), which the map delineates. This idea has occurred to others, *e.g.*, Ferdinand Denis; and Michael Colin's edition of Herrera's 'Novus Orbis' (Amsterdam, 1623) has a portrait of Columbus which *appears* to be De la Cosa's St. Christopher enlarged.

—We feel that we are doing those of our readers who are especially devoted to the study of the Greek language, and are sufficiently familiar with German to use the book to advantage, a service by calling their attention to J. H. Heinrich Schmidt's 'Synonymik der griechischen Sprache,' the first volume of which came out not much more than a year and a half ago, and the second volume of which appeared recently. We might be surprised at the fact that works on Greek synonyms are so rare, although the subject is one of such great importance, especially in the case of a language whose vocabulary is so copious and at the same time full of such delicate distinctions of meaning, if we did not know the extraordinary difficulty of the task, and the almost total absence of preparatory monographs by uniting, improving, and enlarging which a comprehensive work on Greek synonyms might be formed. Something in this direction has, indeed, been done—observations as to synonyms are found scattered over the whole field of Greek philological literature; but this is the first time that the subject has been treated on so extensive a scale, with so scientific a method, and with proper, not excessive, attention to comparative philology as far as it bears on Greek etymology. The author promises to give us the third volume at no very distant date, and immediately afterwards to prepare a comparative manual of Greek and Latin synonyms for the use of schools.

—From German papers we gather the following statistics concerning the number of students at their principal universities during the past winter:

	Theology.		Law.	Medicine.	"Philosophy."	
	Evang	Cath.				
Berlin	168	—	1,758	345	1,163	2,834
Bonn	50	89	219	126	375	895
Breslau	49	52	432	168	552	1,253
Erlangen	133	—	51	110	154	448
Freiburg	—	41	77	143	70	331
Giessen	20	—	88	61	130	294
Göttingen	86	—	275	115	433	909
Greifswald	43	—	73	218	126	460
Königsberg	43	—	174	134	305	655
Leipzig	339	—	1,067	365	1,263	3,034
Marburg	51	—	85	100	179	415
Strassburg	49	—	156	147	275	627
Tübingen	215	168	256	222	145	946
Würzburg	—	135	92	431	274	922

These figures are at least interesting as showing the continued prosperity of the Leipzig University, and that Berlin promises to regain something of its former numerical glory. At Leipzig there has been a pretty regular growth, the figures for the summer semester of 1872 being, for example, 2,315, while for that of 1877 they were 2,842. Berlin, on the other hand, has shown a curious fluctuation, due, perhaps, in a measure to the hard times and high rents; the number of matriculated students has been: winter 1871–2, 2,603; summer 1872, 1,990; winter 1873–4, 1,757; summer 1874, 1,609; winter 1874–5, 1,824; summer 1877, 2,237. There is another way of calculating the attendance upon the Berlin University, by including the students of several institutions who are permitted to attend university lectures. As this privilege is given to the *Bau-Akademie*, the *Gewerbe-Akademie*, and the *Berg-Akademie*, as well as to the training-school for the army medical service, and those permitted to attend lectures without matriculation, the teaching influence of the University is represented by adding from 1,000 to 1,500 to the number of matriculated students, resulting this past winter in the handsome number of 4,386, the corresponding sum for last summer being 4,311. At Leipzig there are no such institutions to draw from, and the matriculated students form without question the great majority of the hearers of lectures, the number of those who are admitted to lectures without being matriculated varying from 100 to 125 only; this gives Leipzig for the past winter the number 2,163, that for the preceding summer having been 2,038.

RECENT POETRY.

In some previous papers under this head it has been necessary to exhibit some flowers of rhetoric so marvellous as to excite a little incredulity among readers. It has been suggested that we must have invented them; that they never could have been seriously printed in books. If this distrust has been created by merely local and cis-Atlantic productions, it is hard to predict what will be said when the book under consideration is 'Elva: a Story of the Dark Ages,' by Viscount de Figanière, G.C. St. Anne, late Envoy Extraordinary and Minister Plenipotentiary of his Majesty the King of Portugal at the Imperial Court of Russia, from 1870 to 1876 (London: Trübner). The very announcement sounds improbable and suspicious. Mr. Blaine, for instance, reflecting on the small size of the kingdom of Portugal, must be amazed at the daring of a mere foreigner who claims for himself so many titles to the square inch. General Badeau must be astounded that any one but an American consul should announce himself so loftily. The book was apparently written in Russia, by a Portuguese gentleman; the scene is laid in Spain; it is dedicated to an English lady, and on the closing pages there is a list of the author's additional titles and honors, as well as of his writings in English, French, and Portuguese. It thus comes to us as a sort of poetic International Exposition, and there is nothing left for Americans but to inspect it.

It was, perhaps, wrong to say that the scene is laid in Spain, since a large part of the action takes place in the atmosphere above that peninsula. Most of the *dramatis personæ* are bewitched in different ways; they rise out of ponds, disappear through windows, ride magic coursers, and exhibit claws and cloven hoofs. One of them thus describes his parentage, and his parents' wedding:

> "I said my father was a Jew—
> His name is in Leviticus—
> But he was then an incubus
> When he my mother knew.
> They met, and married near a bog,
> Where hissed the snake and croaked the frog.
> An owlet black performed the rite,
> While tempest howling chilled the night.
>
> The nuptials graced an ape and bat;
> There came a toad, a swarthy cat;
> There squatted, too, the frog hard by,
> Safe in its back the bone;
> There coiled the adder, and its eye
> The carbuncle outshone" (p. 18).

There is a good deal of this sort of society, and it is, on the whole, preferable to that of the supernatural performers who constantly appear in the book. The nearest approach to a human being is Elva herself, who is ultimately vowed to the fiends, in a rash moment, by her father. She is thus represented:

> "Her beauteous face can well portray
> The early blush of lovely day,
> But ne'er damned spirit's hate!
> Her glossy hair, so soft and fine,
> Eyes which decorum shades—
> Swimming in lymph more crystalline
> Than dew on quiv'ring blades" (p. 21).

Allowing for some difference of longitude, the landscape scenery reminds one very much of the Michigan poem of "Teuchsa Grondie," noticed in these columns some weeks ago. Take, for instance, the following Homeric catalogue of localities:

> "The sierras Dima, steep Lecándè,
> Altah, Gorbea, and Ochándè,
> Send forth their hardy denizens
> Who meet, near Oca's base,
> With those whom claim Durango's glens,
> And mingling there in scores or tens,
> A common way they trace;
> While some in wherries forward urge,
> The rest walk by Mundaca's verge.
> Not far from Cosnoaga's side—
> Which greets Astraeus' roral bride" (p. 52).

Here is a milder description, portraying cloud-scenery at nightfall:

> "The mass crenated edges rolled,
> And eft assumed a smaller mould;
> The while its pitchy darkness sped,
> And sapph'rine silver through it spread;
> Then so diaph'nous was its sheen,
> That twinkling stars athwart were seen.
> Such vap'ry stool had lightly pressed
> Kind Mary's feet, I trow,
> When she, 'mid cherubim, angels blest,
> Gave from on high some holy hest,
> Or her esteem in smiles expressed,
> To rapted saint below" (p. 89).

But such peaceful scenes are rarely found in this volume. The author is in incessant motion; his headquarters are in the saddle, like General Pope's. In the first canto he gives chase to a mad bull, and in the last he rides upon a goblin mare, the vehemence of whose movements is thus described:

> "They see a something leap the wall—
> A fox?—a deer?—a horse? They call—
> Whiz! driz! 'tis in their midst. Aghast
> They scatter, or they fall. 'Tis past!
> A mile away. The hedge is cleared—
> Ere Echo ceased, 't had disappeared" (p. 153).

Thus rapidly, and thus regretfully, must we permit the Viscount de Figanière to disappear from these pages.

It is impossible to speak favorably of Mr. Paul Dyrsen's 'Goethe's Poems, translated in the original metres' (New York: Christern). The translator aims at a full version of Goethe's minor poems; the intention is praiseworthy, but the utter want of poetic grace and form renders the whole effort a failure, while the meaning is sometimes so hopelessly perverted as to suggest a doubt whether the translator is familiar with either English or German. One would say, for instance, that it was impossible wholly to spoil the lovely little song of the child Mignon in "Wilhelm Meister" when she wishes to retain the angel-garments she is wearing. "So lasst mich scheinen bis ich werde," she says; and Carlyle translates it *verbatim*, and yet gracefully: "Such let me seem till such I be." Mr. Dyrsen drops all this innocent yearning, and substitutes the exceedingly prosaic statement:

> "What I shall be I now am seeming."

Again, in the yet more familiar verses from the same book, beginning

> "Wer nie sein Brod mit Thränen ass,"

he contrives to denude the poem of all its solemn sweetness, and to introduce additions of his own; thus:

> "Who never ate with tears his bread,
> Who never by remorse persistent
> For nights was kept awake in bed,
> Does not yet know that God is distant.
>
> "That we are born, and have desires
> That lead us into sin, he suffers,
> And wretchedness till life expires
> To make atonement for He offers."

The last line, if intelligible, is misleading; and the "remorse persistent" and "God is distant" are both added by the translator.

Mr. Henry Phillips, Jr.'s 'Poems translated from the Spanish and German' (Philadelphia: privately printed) may be read to advantage after those just mentioned, and have a fair degree of merit. They are, however, disfigured by a frequent habit of italicizing important and even unimportant words, thus really affronting the reader's intelligence, and making what is flat sometimes seem flatter, as in this from Von Zedlitz:

> "I met a beauteous maiden
> Whose thoughts were pure as snow;
> Her voice was like a mellow flute,
> My heart was in a glow.
>
> "Her words were full of wisdom,
> Her soul, of feelings strong;
> She *seemed* a perfect woman—
> *Though probably I'm wrong*" (p. 71).

'Poke o' Moonshine,' by Latham Cornell Strong (New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons), is written with more care and thoughtfulness than most poems of its class, but it has a most unattractive title and an Indian theme. No one has ever yet explained why it is so hard to make long poems on Indian subjects agreeable or even readable; but even Whittier has not conquered this difficulty. Yet we prefer the rather tiresome simplicity of this tale to the jaunty air and sensuous themes of 'Cothurnus and Lyre,' by Edward J. Harding (New York: Authors' Publishing Company). This volume was written, as is stated, by "a young English bookkeeper, at present residing in New York, and composed in the scanty leisure of his evenings and early mornings." There is something modest and disarming in this appeal, but the tone of the poems hardly carries it out; they seem intended rather to challenge the reader's homage than to win his sympathy. The main poem is a drama entitled "Ernest," of whose style this is perhaps an unfavorable sample:

> "O maddening moon! I miss thy beams to-night:
> Enchanted seas antipodal pursue
> Thy white and cruel feet; for me, I shudder
> At thy sardonic lights and awful shades,
> Thy cold embraces and thy deadly loves,
> Thy sterile coinage of illusive silver,
> Mirage of limpid springs on arid sands,
> And all thy meretricious comeliness" (p. 26).

This dramatic poem has a modern English theme, and is crammed with horrors; it may have some strength behind the crudeness, but it is hard to tell. The eighteen "odes" which follow seem to aim at a Horatian flavor, but that is all which can be said for them.

'The Viking, Guy, Legend of the Moxahala, and Other Poems,' by Charles Edgar Spencer (Philadelphia: Lippincott), is a thick volume of beautifully-printed verses, which give an impression of great ease and volubility in rhyming, and of a ready imitativeness. The reflection of various authors greets us in turning the pages, and among these is that of the most dangerous of all models, Poe. The poem "Ouranopetes" contains fourteen stanzas in the following strain:

> "I remember—and thus am I cursed.
> O how sweet were a Lethean measure
> To deaden the memory of Pleasure
> When the bright-tinted bubble is burst!
> When dreams that, while *dreaming*,
> Seem teeming
> With bliss,
> Are no more;
> Ah! why are we doom'd to deplore
> That *something* we ever shall miss?" (p. 195).

The flavor of Poe being thus dangerous, it seems a relief to turn to a poet who prefers that of Aldrich. Mr. Edgar Fawcett dedicates his 'Fantasy and Passion' (Boston: Roberts Bros.) to this older poet, and has before now taken pains, in other ways, to show his fidelity to his friend. Such loyalty is to be respected, but it is self-limiting; a man usually names his standard in his dedication. However pleasing may be the poems of Mr. Aldrich, it will hardly be asserted that they show enough of wealth or vigor to allow of much dilution, and imitation must almost inevitably dilute. The result is what we should expect—where Mr. Aldrich is weak, Mr. Fawcett is weaker; where Mr. Aldrich seems a little over-dainty, Mr. Fawcett is simply spasmodic. What other epithet can be given to a verse like this, from the poem on "The Winds"?

> "Here grouped in superb frigidity
> The blasts of the North repose,
> Proud spirits of stern intrepidity
> Whose wings with clangors unclose.
> In their saturnine eyes crepuscular
> Cold hatreds bitterly glow;
> In the girth of their dark arms muscular
> Lie shipwreck, ruin, and woe!" (p. 120).

There is one trait in which Mr. Fawcett especially reminds us of his friend: the frequent selection of too large a canvas for some slight and delicate thought. "The White Rose Lover" is one of Mr. Aldrich's prettiest conceits, and it is hammered out into four verses only; but it would be still better in two. Thus Mr. Fawcett, wandering in a neglected garden, sees in fancy the encroaching weeds as an insurgent mob and the one white rose as a fair young queen. It is a genuinely poetic motive; Heine would have crystallized it into two short verses, and Browning into a line and a half, but it takes Mr. Fawcett twenty-four lines, and before he is half through the material is exhausted. The same defect marks many of the "fantasy" poems—too much elaboration for the thought; while in the verses of passion the reader has a constant suspicion that the poet is nourishing, encouraging, and, so to say, pumping up his emotions. The simple fact that out of the hundred and twenty-five poems in this volume all but seven end with exclamation points, awakens a suspicion of their genuineness. The volcano does not need to erect guide-posts to show where the lava flows. There is so much of this attitudinizing, and so much of the repulsive, in Mr. Fawcett's pages that the reader is often in doubt whether to recognize him as a poet at all, were it not that he sometimes consents to show himself tender and strong and self-restrained, as in this:

> "IF TRULY.
>
> "If truly thou art still the same,
> Deep-eyed, soft-speaking as of old;
> If nothing strange or sad or cold,
> Nothing that hints of tears untold,
> Nothing that one might name or might not name,
> Meeting thee after these flown years be seen,
> To mar the accustomed sweetness of thy mien,
> Then surely 'tis not mine to chide
> Harsh fate, being satisfied!
>
> "If truly thou art happy, this
> Alone suffices, love, to me!
> If all that I might ever be
> That other now has grown; if he
> Awakes the pure deep thrills of utter bliss
> I had believed one only could awake;
> If he has found the secret that can make
> Thy days to music glide—
> Enough! I am satisfied!" (p. 63).

LORD MELBOURNE.*

WHEN the Whigs offered Sir Walter Scott the use of a frigate to convey him to the Mediterranean, he "exclaimed that things were still in the hands of gentlemen." The words, though only the expression of personal feeling, precisely hit off a striking peculiarity of the peaceful

* 'Memoirs of the Right Honorable William, second Viscount Melbourne. By W. M. Torrens.' New York: Macmillan & Co.

revolution carried through by the authors of the Reform Bill. The control of a democratic movement remained throughout "in the hands of gentlemen." Of the gentlemanlike aspect of the Whig revolution Lord Melbourne was the representative. He was in every fibre a gentleman and a man of fashion. He had the knowledge of the world, the coolness, the easy temper, the agreeable manners, the suavity, and the wit which secure and deserve social success. He possessed just that kind of cultivation and interest in intellectual pursuits which adds weight and distinction to social talents. He held power for at least as long a period as any Minister who has been in office since 1830. He lived at a period of great changes and keen party feeling; yet even now he is remembered, as far as he is remembered at all, not like Brougham for his marked personality, not like Lord Russell for his connection with great measures, not even like Palmerston for remarkable administrative powers, but for *mots*, such as the well-known "Can't you leave it alone?" or "I wish I were as cocksure of anything as Tom Macaulay is of everything," which have much more connection with knowledge of life than with statesmanship. So slight, indeed, is the impression which he has made on the minds of his countrymen that such permanent fame as he will possess arises from Sydney Smith's picture of his manner:

"Our viscount," writes the Whig reviewer, "is somewhat of an impostor. Instead of being the ignorant man he pretends to be, before he meets the deputation of tallow-chandlers in the morning he sits up half the night talking with —— about melting and skimming, and then, although he has acquired knowledge enough to work off a whole vat of prime Leicestershire tallow, he pretends next morning not to know the difference between a dip and a mould. I, moreover, believe him to be conscientiously alive to the good or evil that he is doing; but if you have no mind to put or be put to, the sooner you get out of his way the better."

The eight hundred pages of Mr. McCullagh Torrens's turgid rhetoric will not convey to the reader half so vivid an idea of the patriotic *poco-curante* who presided over the English Government at a most critical period as may be derived from the ten or twelve lines of Sydney Smith's banter. When we add to this the fact, mentioned by a reviewer who apparently knew the viscount, that not one of Lord Melbourne's best remarks can be quoted without a free use of expletives which the taste or the religious sentiment of modern times condemns, we may form some idea of the character of the man of fashion who, with all the talents which fitted him to shine in the society that gathered round George the Fourth when the Regent still affected to care for wit, was destined to guide England through the transition period which divides the aristocratic Toryism of Lord Liverpool and Lord Eldon from the Conservatism of Peel or the closely-allied Liberalism of Cobden.

The first feeling which arises in the mind of an historical student who weighs impartially the talents and the career of Lord Melbourne is curiosity to ascertain what was the force or fate which placed an easygoing man of the world at the head of affairs at a time of vehement party feeling. The answer is not far to seek. The power which made Melbourne Prime Minister was the same power which took Lord Althorp from his hunters and his prize-fighters and set him to make budgets. This power was the House of Commons. Macaulay has written pages to show that, as eloquence governs Parliament, the tendency of parliamentary government is to place men in office simply because of their capacity for speaking. Lord Russell has retorted with considerable effect that the House of Commons has again and again refused to follow the most brilliant rhetoricians, and has forced into power men who abhorred office and who could not string together ten sentences of idiomatic English. Yet, while appearing to differ, these expounders of sound constitutional doctrine at bottom agree. Where Parliament is sovereign, qualities which captivate Parliament are rewarded by office. The eloquence which charms or overawes a deliberative assembly will not miss its reward. But an assembly is influenced by other qualities than eloquence; high character, what people call weight, tact, knowledge of men, powers of management, or it may be talent for intrigue—all have their effect on a legislative body, and are certain to receive from such a body the honor which it can confer. Lord Melbourne floated into power because, without eloquence and without high statesmanlike capacity, he conciliated the liking and trust of the respectable and commonplace gentlemen who have seats in Parliament. That the men who have Parliamentary talents will reap the rewards of Parliamentary influence is almost too obvious a truth to need comment. The important question is whether the Parliamentary talents are likely to be connected with the qualities required in a statesman.

At first sight it must be admitted that Lord Melbourne's career does not raise our opinion of the capacity of Parliament for appointing fit men to high office. His glaring defects as a minister were patent to all zealous reformers. Miss Martineau, after her manner, hated a minister who could be jocose even on matters of political economy. The man who could, as the story goes, say at the conclusion of a cabinet meeting, "Now, are we going to say that lowering the duty will raise the price of corn or will sink the price of corn? It does not much matter which we say, but we must all say the same thing," naturally excited the abhorrence of a lady who believed that her economical tracts saved the country. We may be sure, again, that zealous Benthamites like Mill and his little school, who dreamed that they were revolutionizing England, despised a premier who was not as far advanced on the path of political truth as the ordinary Whig leaders, and who (it is highly probable) did not study the *Westminster Review*. All "earnest" persons (and between 1830 and 1840 earnestness was coming into vogue) must, in short, have condemned with more or less severity a leader whose apparent function was to prevent his own party from carrying out their own principles to their full length. Nor can the present generation, which has lost the passion for earnestness, and has got no other in its place, fail to see that Lord Melbourne's censors were in many respects in the right. He was not a man capable of forcing a revolution to its legitimate results. If a minister like Gladstone or Peel had guided the Whigs immediately after the first Reform Bill, he probably could have carried into effect measures which were only passed when the generation who in 1830 were enthusiastic for reform had for the most part gone to their graves. To expect, indeed, that a minister should execute with great zeal a policy with which he had no keen sympathy is unreasonable; but Melbourne did not even take the trouble to give effect to measures of which he entirely approved. His intellectual liberality and his clear good sense made him averse to all intolerance. He saw at a glance that Catholic emancipation lost half its beneficial effect if the Catholics of Ireland were not made to feel that they were socially the equals of Protestants. He would gladly have opened every career to the ambition of Catholics, but he never ventured to give effect to his own convictions. Protestants were estranged and Catholics were not conciliated. The Ministry lost credit in England from the patronage of O'Connell, and at the same time by disappointing the just hopes of the Irish leader forced him into the advocacy of repeal. The half-heartedness of Melbourne's policy in Ireland was precisely paralleled by the timidity of his ecclesiastical policy in England. He was fond of theological speculation; he sympathized with Liberal Churchmen; but if he ventured to raise Thirlwall to the bench on receiving an episcopal guarantee of the historian's orthodoxy, no persuasion could prevail upon him to promote Arnold, who, next to Sydney Smith, had ventured more for Liberalism than any Churchman of the day. Lord Melbourne's prudence had its natural reward. The bishops he appointed at once voted with the Tories, and Liberal Churchmen felt no enthusiasm for the Whig Ministry. When at last the Conservatives returned to power the effect of Lord Melbourne's policy became apparent: the popularity gained by the Reform Bill was gone, and even Liberals looked with relief to the advent of a government ruled by a minister of undoubted capacity.

If the career of a minister who became Premier because he was a gentleman seems a satire on Parliamentary government, there is another side to the picture, and a theorist who wished to illustrate the sagacity with which popular assemblies instinctively discover the person who fitly represents their wishes, might find in Lord Melbourne a good illustration of his theory. His lordship's defects were patent, but his lordship's defects and his lordship's virtues met the requirements of the time. The Reform Bill had excited an amount of popular enthusiasm and aristocratic rancor which was full of danger to the state. The movement which produced reform had, moreover, outrun the wishes of commonplace Englishmen. The new electors wished to avoid both Tory reaction and radical innovation. The peril which menaced the nation was that, to use the slang of modern politics, the "era of revolutions should not be closed." An attempt to push the reform movement to its logical consequences would have suggested reactionary schemes for undoing the results of the Reform Bill. What was needed was that passions on all sides should be pacified, and Lord Melbourne was from every circumstance of connection and character born to be a pacificator. Violent democrats could not suspect him of treachery. Bigoted conservatives could not believe that the disciple of Canning and the companion of George IV. wished to overthrow the monarchy. The very complaints of his radical supporters reassured his Tory opponents. His passion for letting things alone enabled the nation to recover its calmness. His studious care to avoid offence, the knowledge of character which made him see that he could not trust Brougham as a colleague and could trust Wellington though an op-

ponent, soothed down the mass of personal irritation which always results from revolutionary change. When some one complained to Wellington that Melbourne was too frequently at the palace, the duke replied: "I only wish he were there always"; and these words probably expressed the feeling of all the more sagacious Conservative leaders, who knew that come what would Melbourne's conduct would be the conduct of a gentleman. In nothing could a prime minister's character be put to a severer test than in his relation to the young Queen, and in this relation Lord Melbourne, by the admission of his opponents, displayed all his best qualities. It is, in fact, as the almost paternal guide of a sovereign who was scarcely more than a child that Lord Melbourne (if at all) will be remembered. His tact, his kindliness, his social talents, had all full play in directing the steps of an inexperienced young lady who, as far as age went, might have been his daughter. That he was the confidant of his sovereign without incurring even the suspicion of being a flatterer or an intriguer; that he gained her implicit confidence, and so exercised his influence as to obtain the approval of political enemies, is proof enough that he possessed gifts and virtues of no ordinary character. His best qualities were, no doubt, rather the characteristics of a great gentleman than of a great statesman; yet there are different kinds of eminence, and Lord Melbourne's admirers need not be ashamed of their hero if, to adopt the suggestion of Lord Houghton's, he is known among English premiers as "the last of the gentlemen."

Constantinople. By Edmondo de Amicis. (New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons. 1878.)—One of the effects of the modern facility of bookmaking is that whenever any quarter of the world becomes of exceptional interest (and never, perhaps, were more minds turned to one point than now to Turkey and Constantinople) there is a deluge of publications enough to frighten the stoutest reader. Only the exceptionally strong ones, therefore, can really claim attention. On opening the covers of the present work we find that it is translated from the Italian, and, more than that, from the seventh Italian edition. Farther information, from a high Florentine authority, tells us that

"Without any slight to other clever authors, it is the positive fact that Signor de Amicis is the most popular writer in the country. Each new book of his sells faster than its predecessors, and his last book, 'Constantinople,' has taken Italy by storm. His brief volume has reached the seventh edition in less than as many months, and the last, only issued a few weeks ago, is already in its second. This, for Italy, is an enormous success."

The reader will, therefore, enter upon his labors hopefully. The first general remark which presents itself is that the enthusiasm is very highly strained; in fact, to a degree which, in English or American hands, could proceed only from a very young person, and would, therefore, almost certainly degenerate into feebleness. But the Italian language has something child-like in itself, and the child-like enthusiasm shows not ungracefully in a mature mind. One is reminded of Macaulay's climax, "What the Englishman is to the Italian, what the Italian is to the Hindoo," and so on. Of humor, as we understand it, there is not much in this work, but one remark will excite a smile in travellers of different kinds. Some persons at the hotel had objected that there were no sidewalks, that the theatres were dark, and there was no place to pass the evening. "They had come to Constantinople," observes the author, "to pass the evening!" The horrors of the Turkish bath, again, excite him to a grim banter which, though of finer texture, has some flavor of Mark Twain.

The first chapter describes the arrival in the Golden Horn, and we can scarcely imagine a more vivid picture expressed in words. One can hear the captain warning the passengers over-night that whoever comes up late shall be thrown into the sea. One can feel the early fog which damps all hopes, notwithstanding the captain's assurance that it will rise with the sun; and then the lifting and the golden light which spreads over Stamboul and Galata and Pera and Scutari; over Saint Sophia and the mosques of Ahmed and Soliman and Mahomet and Selim, till the whole is bathed in the full light of day. It is curious to note throughout the book how the Southern blood rejoices in the full power of the sun. One of the first visits is to the floating bridge which crosses the Golden Horn, and furnishes the occasion for a description of the motley population which swarms across it, quite as vivid as that of the external appearance of the city. Then follow excursions through the city and suburbs—to the Great Bazaar, the Dolma Bagtche, Saint Sophia, the Old Seraglio; through the respective quarters of the Greeks, Armenians, and Hebrews, with some account of each nationality. The dogs of Constantinople are almost as famous as the city itself. We give a little extract out of half a dozen pages devoted to them, as illustrating a municipal administration which may make New York feel quite proud:

"Often in the night the peaceful citizens of Galata and Pera are awakened by the most diabolical noises; and looking from the window they behold a crowd of dogs leaping high in the air, whirling round and round, and beating their heads furiously against the walls, and in the morning the ground is strewn with corpses. The doctor and apothecary of the quarter having the habit of studying at night, and wishing to procure a week of quiet, have been distributing a little poison."

Four pages upon the eunuch have a touching pathos in their account of this most awful form of human slavery, and the traffic is still carried on in Constantinople with only a "hypocrisy of secrecy." The following is from the "Ramazan":

"It is amusing to plant one's self upon the bridge of the Sultan Validé a few minutes before the sun goes down. About a thousand boatmen may be seen at this point, far and near, going and coming, or sitting still. They have every one been fasting since dawn, are wild with hunger, and have their little supper ready in the caique, and their eyes constantly move from the food to the sun, from the sun to the food, while there is a general agitation and restlessness among them as in a menagerie when the animals are about to be fed. When the sun is half hidden they begin to take the food in their hands, while all with one accord turn toward the West, and stand fixed, with their eyes on the sun, mouths open, bread in hand, and joy in the visage. At last the fiery point vanishes, the cannon thunders, and at that very instant thirty-two thousand teeth bite off enormous morsels from a thousand pieces of bread."

The least successful parts seem to be those in which the writer attempts to recall the past glories of the sultans. We can accept his strong language for the things which he sees, but when he sets his imagination to dress up the past, we must beg to be excused. Still, when in making the tour of the walls he sketches the famous siege, perhaps the most momentous in history, by which the Christian Empire passed to the Turk, even those familiar with Gibbon will feel a new thrill. The architectural description also lags a little. Saint Sophia appears to have occasioned some disappointment and to have forced the visitor to whip his Pegasus a little, but there is a natural tone again in the admiration of the graceful and beautiful minaret, the Mohammedan substitute for bell-tower, and of the cry of countless muezzins, who are selected apparently for their sweet voices.

Though the book is of recent publication, the visit took place before the events which threaten the existence of the Turkish Empire, as is evident from the fact that the Sultan seen and described is the late Abdul Aziz, already become, what *Punch*, at the time of his accession, said of his predecessor, Abdul *As-was*. The analysis of character under "The Turks" is not mixed up, therefore, with attempts at forecast. It sets forth only the never-failing interest of this camp of Asiatic fatalists thrust into one corner of Europe. The closing picture takes us through the beautiful and historical shores of the Bosphorus to leave us in the gray mists of the Black Sea. The work of translation is very well done, though we notice here and there an idiom such as "secular," a word which both French and Italians are very fond of applying to trees, not as opposed to "religious" but in the sense of "century old."

Stories from Homer. By the Rev. Alfred J. Church. (New York: Harper & Bros. 1878.)—This little book deserves high commendation. It is another attempt to render Homer accessible to those who cannot read him, or who can read him only with difficulty, in the Greek text, and this purpose we think it fills most satisfactorily. All professed translations in metre have hitherto, however literal or however free they might be, resulted either in something stiff, awkward, and disagreeable to read—an "ugly likeness," not to say a caricature, of the beautiful original—or in something, smooth indeed to read, but so powdered and periwigged *à la* Queen Anne, like Pope's, or so mock-Miltonic, or otherwise so thoroughly English in tone, as to rob the reader completely of the flavor of the original. On the other hand, a prose version rendering the Greek as near as may be word for word, but ignoring its poetic tone, and straining with painful contortions to transfer to English the vivid, graphic, and melodious long compound epithets of the Hellenic epos, also fails utterly to give an ordinary reader any idea of the poet. Till the long-looked-for, really Heaven-sent translator of Homer comes (for it is rash to assert that no satisfactory version can be made), the best way for a mere English reader to get an idea of the 'Iliad' and the 'Odyssey' will probably be through such a book as this, where the poems appear in the form of stories, told in easy, natural English, which any child could understand and enjoy. Work of this kind has, it is true, been don

already, but Mr. Church's is far more satisfactory than any other attempt of the sort. He transfers the Homeric narrative into good, plain, easy English, which is idiomatic, without introducing a tone foreign to the matter, following the corresponding passages faithfully, though not too literally, but, of course, passing over large portions of the poems for the sake of keeping within the limits of his design. The semi-biblical phraseology adopted in many places is wisely restrained from being too pronounced. Above all, the *tone* of the original is carefully preserved. The naïveté of the epic spirit is faithfully given, its childlike repetitions and leisurely breadth of description are sufficiently indicated, and while the standing epithets and long compound descriptive adjectives are most sensibly omitted, the Homeric similes are reproduced with excellent effect. The secret of the author's success lies, we think, to a great extent in the happy rendering of these similes, in the simplicity of his English, and, most of all, in his writing in the true spirit of the epic, the spirit of childlike, joyous story-telling.

The tales from the 'Odyssey' are somewhat less carefully done than those from the 'Iliad,' and the retention of a few more words or of a sentence in some places would have made the story clearer. The author evidently understands his text well, and we have not noticed any slips in scholarship. There are a few annoying misprints, especially, p. 42, "Lycaon" for "Pandarus, son of Lycaon." The illustrations are selected from Flaxman's designs and are colored, the figures being given in red on a black ground with an effect similar to that of the Greek, or, as the author calls them, the "Etruscan" vases. They differ, however, from the vases in the extensive use made of a yellow tint, employed by the Greeks on vases with red figures only sparingly. The same author is about to publish a book of 'Stories from Virgil.'

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, MAY 23, 1878.

The Week.

THE dead-lock in the House over the Potter resolution was not broken till Friday, when the Democrats succeeded in making a quorum and a majority together, and so carried their point. On Wednesday, Mr. Wood got the Senate resolution on final adjournment postponed for consideration till May 29, and the Potter resolution was then ineffectually voted for by his party. On Thursday, the result was the same, but the proceedings were varied by a proposal from Mr. Banks that the struggle should be suspended till Saturday, in order to attend to public business while the Democratic side was recruiting. Mr. Potter would not entertain the motion, nor would he allow Mr. Stephens, of Georgia, to be heard on behalf of Mr. Hale's obnoxious amendment. On Friday, Mr. Potter began to force a conclusion by shutting the doors and calling on the sergeant-at-arms to arrest delinquent members, and in this way finally the tale was completed, the only enlivening episode being the challenge of Mr. Goode's right to vote on the ground that he was paired with a Republican. Defeated in the House, the Republicans issued their protest to the country through their Congressional Committee, charging their adversaries with intent, "under the pretence of an investigation, to lay the foundation for the revolutionary expulsion of the President from his office." On Saturday there was an interesting debate on the Army Appropriation Bill, which was expounded by Mr. Hewitt and carefully analyzed and forcibly opposed by Mr. McCook, one of his colleagues from New York. The debate on Tuesday was significant only for the number of speakers who protested against the use of the army as a national police in times of public disorder. The Senate passed on Friday a bill providing an extra judge for the Iowa District, and on Monday took up the bill to appoint General Shields a Brigadier-General on the retired list. Mr. Sargent moved an amendment providing for the appointment of Ulysses S. Grant as General on the retired list, with full rank, pay, etc., and this obtained the support even of some of the Democrats, who were bent, as Mr. Edmunds well said—referring to their rejection of General Shields as doorkeeper of the House—on rectifying a party mistake. But the bill thus amended was defeated on Tuesday by 34 to 30.

The composition of the Investigating Committee is, on the whole, a fair one. The members are Messrs. Potter of New York, Morrison of Illinois, Hunton of Virginia, MacMahon of Ohio, Stenger of Pennsylvania, Cobb of Indiana, Blackburn of Kentucky, Cox of Ohio, Butler of Massachusetts, Reed of Maine, and Hiscock of New York. They are all, with the exception of Butler, men of high character, though some are bitter partisans; but it may be safely said that the country will regard Messrs. Potter's and Cox's presence on the Committee as a guarantee that there will be no jugglery or pettifogging, or that if there is any we shall know of it. The four Republican members are generally accepted in Washington as an excellent representation of the party, both as regards its honesty, acuteness, and rascality. An enquiry in which the tricky element in it was not represented would not give satisfaction, but with General Butler to appear for them even the Chandlers cannot complain.

Mr. Hayes is said to have at last evinced some signs of mental disturbance in the presence of the Democratic investigation, being much impressed with the rapidity with which the party has been driven into support of it, and thinking that this readiness "to wheel into line" may indicate the approach of some more serious trouble. But it seems very unlikely that if an attack on his title were really meditated this readiness would have been displayed, considering what we know of the views of the bulk of Democratic Congressmen. They have undoubtedly gone over in the belief that they will get "capital" out of the investigation for the fall elections. If there has been nothing wrong, is it not better, on the whole, that General Noyes, Mr. Sherman, General Garfield, Mr. Conkling, and the rest who are accused in the matter, or say they know something about it, should be examined thoroughly, and an end be put once for all to the gossip which has been so long flying about? It must be remembered that within the last six months a member of the Republican National Committee, and one of the most active managers of the Republican canvass, has declared that there was a bargain of some kind between Mr. Hayes's friends and the Returning Boards; that two Republican canvassers have made quasi-confessions of fraud; and that one "great Senator," also Republican, has announced his knowledge of something "infamous" on Mr. Hayes's part. It seems as if all these things take away the appearance of absolute wantonness from the Democratic move; they may not prevent its proving futile and foolish. Mr. Sherman has opened the contest by a letter to Mr. Potter, traversing every charge made against him, directly or indirectly, in the most unqualified terms.

A striking illustration of the slightly maniacal state of mind about the Democrats in which many Republicans keep themselves, and which has more to do with hindering reform both within and without the party than most people imagine, has just been afforded by the usually staid and ever faithful Boston *Advertiser* in treating the Potter investigation. It sees in this investigation a determination to oust Mr. Hayes and disband the army. This done, there is to be "a rising of the sovereign people" under three illustrious leaders, Grant, Sherman, and Sheridan, who are "to suppress the revolution against law and order," and in the course of this suppression, the result of which, the writer prudently remarks, "no one can foretell," there is to be a fight in "every State, city, and school district in the country." From this he says "anarchy might result." We should think so; anarchy at least. Now, this is the kind of talk about America and American government that one might expect from a European despot to one of his effeminate nobles when taking his evening foot-bath in the warm blood of one of his serfs; but if it was reported as coming from him, how we should all laugh at him and pity the poor noble. Is it not time for Republicans to stop telling the world that the stability of this Government depends on one party keeping in power, and that if the other party uses its constitutional right to do things the minority dislikes, red ruin will rage through our now smiling and exuberant prairies and blue hills, and the furniture in all our "elegant parlors" be broken up to roast the babies of the land? It looks sometimes in politics as if our leading alienists were not doing their duty.

The platform which the Republican Convention in Pennsylvania has just adopted is a good illustration of the difficulties which the party has to contend with in the national field, and why the illustrious Cameron of Wisconsin declares that what it aims at is "Evolution." The Pennsylvanians, as might be expected, declare their hostility to free-trade; utter the usual seesaw about the relations of labor and capital; call for Government "fostering" and "development" for all kinds of "commerce" and "home enterprise"; demand the public lands for the "industrious poor"; denounce Southern claims and discriminating rates of freight; express sympathy with white and black Southern Republicans, and endorse Governor Hartranft's administration. If we take the tariff plank out of the platform, there is, however, little left for a political party to plant itself on. Everybody wants capital and labor to be reconciled, commerce and industry to be developed, Southern Republicans to have their rights; but what is it exactly which the Government ought to do about these matters? To this question the party as such has no definite answer. Then the platform utterly ignores the two topics which are just now most seriously and properly occupy-

ing the public mind. It says nothing about the Government's relations to the currency, and nothing about the mode of electing the President. So that after reading it one gets no very clear idea of what the Republican party is.

Mr. Evarts has communicated to Congress the views of the Administration on the Canadian Fisheries Award. After reciting the facts which led to the appointment of the Commission, he draws attention to the circumstance that the Canadian Minister of Justice, Mr. Blake, declared in March, 1874, in a speech, that the award would have, under the terms of the Treaty of Washington, to be unanimous, and that the same view was taken in July of the same year by the London *Times*. Congress may, therefore, Mr. Evarts thinks, either waive or insist upon the objection of want of unanimity; but, in the absence of any Congressional declaration on the subject, the Executive will not consider it its duty to raise the point in any discussion with the British Government. But if Congress should, in making an appropriation, direct that the attention of the British Government should be called to the point, the payment of the sum might be made dependent on Great Britain's positively maintaining that unanimity was not necessary; but he would not advise our refusing to pay on this ground, in the absence of British concurrence. He shows the excessiveness of the award by a statement of the facts which have been already set forth in these columns. The sum and substance of them is that we are condemned to pay $5,500,000 for twelve years' use of a thing for which in perpetuity the American High Commissioners, in framing the Treaty of Washington, were only willing to offer $1,000,000, and which the evidence taken before the Fisheries Commission really showed not to have yielded more than $25,000 a year profit to the United States during the last five years. It is an easy deduction from this that the award cannot furnish a permanent measure of value, and that this consideration ought to be urged on the British Government as a very good reason for consenting to such a modification in the award as will make it the basis of a final settlement between the two countries.

We suggested some weeks ago in these columns that the holders of repudiated State bonds had one means of redress open to them still untried—the assumption of the claims by their own States, followed by suits in the Supreme Court. This plan has been partly carried into effect by the Legislature which has just adjourned at Albany. A bill has been passed by both Houses allowing holders of repudiated bonds to assign them to the State, and permitting suit to be brought in the name of the State, the expenses being borne in all cases by the owners of the securities. The bill only covers bonds held by citizens of New York, and leaves the assignment in the discretion of the Attorney-General. A vigorous opposition will probably be made to the signature of the bill by the Governor, but we trust he will not be affected by it. The only objections made in the Legislature to the measure were that it converted the State into a claim agency—an objection curiously illustrating the potency of mere words on the political imagination. There is, of course, a certain amount of odium clinging to the occupation of a claim agent, partly owing to the fact that many claim agents are dishonest, and there would be a certain amount of degradation in a State's going into the business of collecting claims for profit. But this is precisely what the bill does not contemplate. It no more makes the State a claim agent than the prosecution of the *Alabama* claims or the French claims or the Spanish claims for its citizens made the United States a claim agent. The bill should become a law, if only to teach repudiating communities that the people whom they have swindled mean to exhaust all their legal resources to protect themselves. When it has become a law there are a great number of legal questions involved which the Supreme Court is amply able to dispose of.

The seizure and investigation of certain distilleries and rectifying-houses in Cincinnati by revenue officers have led to a repetition of the request made some two weeks ago by the Secretary of the Treasury for the resignation of Collector Louis Weitzel. Mr. Weitzel, hastily assuming that the call for his resignation had some connection with alleged whiskey frauds in his district, refused to resign. Secretary Sherman disabused his mind of any such suspicion, and gave him a "character" of which any collector ought to be proud, but still insisted on the resignation. Mr. Weitzel then drew the unjust inference that if the Washington authorities did not take him for a knave they must take him for a fool, an imputation which he felt bound to resent even more strenuously. Accordingly, he reiterated his determination to hold on. The investigation to determine in which category, if either, Mr. Weitzel belongs is now in progress, and one of the discoveries is that the collector's official bond was made up and signed by five wealthy distillers and liquor-dealers. The particular charge brought against Cincinnati as a distilling centre is that of "liberal gauging," by which it is alleged that two to three dollars per barrel have been lost to the Government, according to the liberality of the gauger. This charge dates back to the whiskey war of 1875, at which time Revenue Agent Yaryan reported to Commissioner Pratt that the complaints of other cities against "the liberal gauge" of Cincinnati were, in his judgment, well founded, and that the Government must have lost in this way more than $100,000 per annum. He added his opinion that Collector Weitzel was responsible for this condition of affairs, and that it would not be corrected while he (Weitzel) remained in office. Anticipating this report, the collector induced his brother, Gen. Godfrey Weitzel, to write to President Grant that Collector Weitzel was "one of nature's noblemen, and as honest a man as ever the sun shone on." It followed, of course, that "liberal gauging" was not practised in Cincinnati to any harmful extent. So when Secretary Bristow forwarded Yaryan's report to the White House the President declared that he should pay no attention to it, being convinced that Collector Weitzel's record was stainless. The censorious Yaryan was shortly afterward removed from office, and what disgrace came upon Bristow for his connection with these proceedings is known to everybody.

Although $35,000,000 is the full amount of United States 4½ per cent. bonds which the Syndicate have taken from the Treasury on the $50,000,000 negotiation of April 11, nevertheless engagements have been made for the sale by the Syndicate of nearly $40,000,000 of these bonds, and the time when a formal subscription will be made for the untaken $15,000,000 depends wholly on the convenience, in the matter of settlement, of the Syndicate. It is safe, therefore, to assume that the Treasury has secured the additional $50,000,000 of gold coin which was deemed necessary before resumption, and several months in advance of the appointed time for resumption. The New York banks held during the week ending April 13 (the Syndicate contract having been signed on the 11th) an average of $35,486,900 specie; last week they held an average of only $23,030,200 specie. The legal-tender note average advanced during the same time from $28,666,100 to $41,020,100. The latter change has no significance so far as the bond sales are concerned, but does show why the money market has not been unfavorably affected by the withdrawal to the Treasury of so much gold from the reserve of the banks. Nearly three times as much gold as has been lost by the banks in the last five weeks will, however, be returned to them in the early future in the form of interest on the public debt; so that there is no reason for apprehending serious disturbance on account of the large bond subscriptions. In London there has been a buoyant market for English and Russian securities, on account of what is regarded as the more peaceful outlook. United States bonds also have been very strong, and the combined influence of the foreign members of the Syndicate has very decidedly changed the tone of the London market for our securities. It is hoped that this is more than a temporary change such as can be made by skilful manipulation backed by ample means. Silver has ruled at 53⅛*d.* to 53½*d.* to 53⅝*d.* per oz. At the close of the week the bullion value in New York of the new dollar was $0.9049 gold. The United States legal-

tender note for one dollar had a gold value at the close of the week of $0.9913.

The Fenians appear to be practising on the Canadians again, and are helped by the local papers along the border, who transmit "the scare" with fidelity, and report Fenian gatherings and movements of Fenians and appearances of "strange men" at a hundred points from the Atlantic to the Wilderness. The Canadian militia are consequently holding themselves in readiness, and "prominent Irishmen" are being interviewed by the reporters, and are observing a solemn and ominous silence. There is not the least reason for supposing that there is any movement on foot which will go beyond marauding, or which it would not be ridiculous to meet with troops; but there probably are movements in contemplation that will stimulate the flagging liberality of the servant-girls, and give a parcel of lazy rascals an opportunity for a drinking picnic free of expense in the neighborhood of the Canadian frontier. It is hard to suppose that the sense of shame has never existed among Irish patriots, but it is difficult to reconcile its existence with the continuance and activity of the Fenian organization. A fighting organization that never fights, and is maintained by the pennies of the very poor, and officered by persons with no visible means of support, is, surely, the most ridiculous and discreditable manifestation of love of country the world has yet seen. The most degraded and cowardly of the subject races have never yet got up anything like it.

The activity of the Russians in purchasing vessels in our waters for use against British commerce, in case of war, has begun to attract a great deal of attention in England. A curious criticism on the present condition of international law between the two countries is made by the *Pall Mall Gazette*. The objection which has been felt to the "three rules" on this side of the water has been that they were too stringent. But the *Pall Mall Gazette* thinks that they are not stringent enough, and complains that, owing to the fact that they do not come into operation until a state of war actually exists, there is nothing to prevent a nation like Russia, while peace lasts, from getting ready, in the waters of a friendly power, a whole fleet of cruisers which may be far at sea by the time that an actual declaration of war brings the "three rules" into operation. In other words, the *Pall Mall Gazette* would have neutral obligations in force always, and make them as effective to prevent the escape of *Alabamas* in time of peace as in time of war. But our neutrality acts are in force at one time as much as another, and the question is whether they do not already apply to the fitting-out of cruisers in our waters. Under them, to prevent the escape of an *Alabama*, the English Government must be able to show that the intention of Russia was to fit her out, not in general anticipation of war, but with a definite intention that she should be used against a particular power. Both Russia and England deny emphatically that they now intend to make war on each other, and the preparations on both sides would, no doubt, be made whether their professions were hypocritical or not.

The cotton strikes in England, in spite of the calm, rational tone of the written discussion between the mill-owners and the operatives, have been attended by very destructive riots, the burning of factories and wrecking of private houses, and the troops have had to be called out. The outbreak has undoubtedly been due to the exasperating refusal of the employers to submit to arbitration, which they justify by declaring that with their knowledge of the conditions of their business, in which no arbitrators could equal or surpass them, they are confident that an adverse decision would ruin them. The strike is a very peculiar one, as the men are willing to submit to a still greater reduction of wages than the masters propose, but they demand that it shall be accompanied by a serious change of policy. The masters say that the depression is due to the loss of certain markets owing to increased foreign competition, which must be met by a diminution in the cost of production. The men deny the effect of foreign competition, and say the depression is due simply to injudicious over-production, and are willing to live on half-wages for a while if the owners will only work half-time, so as to diminish the existing supply of goods. To which the owners reply that this is demanding a transfer of the control of the business to the operatives, and the conduct of it on principles which they (the owners) believe would prove disastrous, and they must, therefore, resist or perish.

The debate on Lord Hartington's resolution condemning the introduction of the Indian troops into Europe without the consent of Parliament is pending at this writing, the Ministry having met it by an amendment declaring that "as the control of Parliament over the military forces of the Crown is fully secured by the provisions of law, and by the power of voting the supplies, it is inexpedient to pass any resolution tending to weaken the hands of the Government at this juncture." The debate is reported as being very languid, owing, doubtless, to the feeling that, in spite of the strong interest the matter has excited, the discussion will have no practical result. But the gravity of the question is acknowledged on all sides. The conduct of the Government in keeping such a step secret, particularly when it promised to add nearly $5,000,000 to the military budget, is generally condemned or only feebly defended; it has alarmed some Liberals as a dextrous attempt towards that extension of the personal power in the Government in which Beaconsfield's main strength lies, and which has been advocated and foreshadowed in a recent remarkable article in the *Quarterly Review;* it promises to make a larger army than ever necessary in India, which, however, Indian finances cannot support, and it promises to put British supremacy in India more than ever before in the power of the native troops, and this at a moment when the Council has just passed a rigid censorship act for the purpose of restraining the treasonable utterances of the native press.

Still the Liberals do make headway. They have carried the borough of Reading by an increased majority, though, as might have been expected, they have been defeated heavily in the University of Oxford, where, however, the candidate did not take very strong anti-war ground. The country parsons who come up in considerable force for an exciting election are generally Conservative in their sympathies at the present crisis. Mr. Bright has delivered another of those marvellous speeches of his, in which almost every weapon of oratory may be found in high perfection, making the bitterest attack on the Ministers which the crisis has yet called forth. He was almost ferocious in his allusions to Lord Beaconsfield, recalling his forty years of indifference to every generous movement which has been made in English politics during that period, and closing with the remark that "he had not a drop of English blood in his veins." The Liberals cannot get over the feeling that the country is being used to realize the gorgeous dreams of a romantic Jew, who has no real sympathy with it.

Of the actual condition of the negotiations nothing more is known than last week. Count Shuvaloff has left St. Petersburg on his way back to London, stopping at Berlin long enough to give rise to the rumor that England and Russia had agreed on certain points, and on others were to refer their differences to the arbitration of the Emperor of Germany. At Constantinople there is nothing new beyond somewhat menacing movements of the Russian troops under Todleben around Constantinople, which make the Turks fear a *coup de main*, but which he says are simply designed to secure him a better position in case he has to defend himself. The relations of Russia with Rumania are not improved, the Czar, apparently, continuing inexorable about the slice of Bessarabia; but Servia is armed and ready for the fray, her head full of Slavism and the old Servian Empire. The Germans still take only a subordinate interest in the war, owing to the excitements of home politics. The Government proposes sternly repressive legislation against the Socialists, which it is supposed the Liberals will modify, and there is more or less uneasiness on the Ultramontane question, caused by rumors of the resignation of Dr. Falk, the author and administrator of the celebrated anti-papal laws,

"FRAUD" AND THE "BLOODY SHIRT."

THE performances of the last few days at Washington are only important as regards their probable or possible effect on the business interests of the country. That they have any political gravity nobody seriously believes. We have no doubt that any of the Democratic chiefs would smile, and expect you to smile, if he were to begin telling you in a private room about the evidence he expects to discover against Mr. Hayes and the "visiting statesmen"; and the Republican chiefs would smile, too, if asked in confidence whether they really believed that the Potter investigation was a "revolutionary movement" or the beginning of a "new rebellion." The manœuvring and counter-manœuvring, the voting and the refraining from voting, and the passionate objurgations on both sides, are really preparations for the fall canvass, and the aim of both is not to oust Mr. Hayes or bring Mr. Hayes to justice, nor yet to save our Government from "Mexicanization," so much as to stir up the slumbering voter and bring him early to the polls. If the honest and industrious men of both parties who are not actually engaged in working "the mechanism of government" are imposed upon by this sword-play, and their returning activity in business is checked, it will undoubtedly do great mischief; but there are several weighty reasons why they should not concern themselves about it to which we ask their attention.

It must be borne in mind that the Democratic party is no better off as regards reasons for existing than the Republican party—that is to say, the things which it once defended have ceased to be, and it has adopted and made its own most of the things it once attacked. It is rent by internal dissensions, and has no body of doctrine on any subject to which the bulk of its members adhere. The principal difference between it and the Republican party just now is that it contains a larger proportion of the baser and more ignorant element of the population, and is ready to go somewhat further than the Republican party in order to satisfy this element, either by legislation directed against capital or by attempts to depreciate the currency. But even in its more nefarious designs there is no consensus among its members; in other words, it has no policy. One thing it has which does more to keep it together than anything else, and with which it is more likely than with anything else to make an impression on the public mind, and that is the charge of fraud against the Republicans in the late election. It finds it can no more go into the canvass without this than the anti-Administration Republicans without "the bloody shirt." The proposed investigation is, therefore, simply a formal and energetic way of embellishing this charge and keeping it before the public mind. That it is a serious attack on Hayes's title, we are quite sure, nobody "inside politics" really believes. The Committee will fish for evidence during the summer, and accumulate great quantities of those confessions or proofs of rascality on the part of Southern officials with which the people are now so familiar, and they will probably be dealt out in quantities to suit the exigencies of the struggle; but probably no report can be made before next December, by which time the elections will be over and interest in the matter totally gone. That the next Congress, if there is a Democratic majority in both Houses, will refuse to recognize the present Administration, and initiate a period of great disorder and alarm, one year before the next Presidential campaign, may seem a telling thing for the newspapers to say, and probably will frighten a good many business men, but it will not be believed by many who pay any attention to the ways of Democratic politicians, reckless and unskilful as they have so often of late shown themselves to be. We do not believe they had the slightest idea of disturbing Mr. Hayes or disputing his title, though it may be that they have made a great tactical mistake in acting as if they meant to do so, or in giving their adversaries good ground for saying they were going to do so.

It must be borne in mind, too, that there is very little question that Tilden is the principal promoter of the investigation into the fraud. There can hardly be a doubt that it is owing to his efforts that the McLin and Dennis "confessions" have been extracted, and that it will be owing to his efforts that any damaging evidence about the election, if any exists, will hereafter be brought to light. He is shrewd, active, persistent, and untiring, and has plenty of money for expenses. Everybody who knows much of the matter recognizes his hand in all that is going on, but everybody knows that he would have no object in now ousting Hayes, or in setting up an opposition Presidency before the eyes of a scandalized and infuriated people during half a term. He is not so crude or modest in his ambition as that would indicate. What he is working for, and is intent on getting, is the next Democratic nomination, and the evidence he is trying to accumulate is not evidence which will give him the residue of Hayes's term of office, but which will make it appear that he was cheated out of the Presidency; that, in short, he is a great Democratic martyr and ought to have another chance. For this the investigation will serve excellently well, and it is for this it will be conducted. It will not do to calculate, as some of the Republican papers do, that his hopes in this direction are chimerical, and that the hatred of the Democratic politicians towards him is so intense that he will now be thrown overboard. We believe there is some reason for thinking that he has a stronger hold on the rank and file than he had three years ago, and that they really look on him as a victim who is entitled to compensation, and that he may be forced on the Convention, not, as last time, by the excellence of his own arrangements, but by popular pressure. Moreover, confident as he was last time of his election, he will probably be more confident next time, as the Returning Boards will be in the hands of his own friends, and we discover no trace on the Democratic side, at least, of any burning desire to amend the election procedure so as to prevent the recurrence of the scandals and abuses of 1875.

As to the merits of the proposal to investigate, one's opinion about it must, of course, depend a good deal on the end in view. If it be desired to discover what frauds were committed in the late election with the view of providing against their recurrence, and there is reasonable ground for believing that frauds *were* committed, investigation is not only allowable but desirable; but then investigation of this kind would have to be carried into all States in which fraud was suspected—into Oregon as well as into Florida and Louisiana. The *World* makes a distinction, which has a good deal of plausibility, between "operative" and "inoperative frauds"—or, in other words, between frauds which accomplished something and frauds which accomplished nothing, or between Mr. Hayes's, for instance, and Mr. Tilden's; it thinks the former a proper subject of enquiry and the latter not. The distinction is a good one, if your enquiry into an "operative fraud" aims at setting aside the result. In the present case, however, the Democrats deny that they mean to disturb Mr. Hayes's title; and if this be true, and their object be merely the exposure of wickedness, and the discredit of persons concerned in it, and the creation of guarantees against its repetition, the distinction is futile. All frauds are good material for doctrine and reproof, whether "operative" or not, and the means by which Mr. Tilden won Oregon can be made to contribute just as much to the purification of politics as the means by which Mr. Hayes won Florida and Louisiana. So that it is difficult to see, on the Democratic theory, any good ground for objecting to a general enquiry; but it is also difficult to see any danger to the nation in partial enquiry.

There would be little to regret in the imbroglio if it seemed likely to unite the Republicans on the real questions of the day, and induce them to formulate a new creed and set up as a really reform party, occupied with the material interests of the country, and the promoter of honest and rational legislation on them; if, in short, instead of clinging to the past, or trying to level its policy down so as to catch the support of whatever is most crazy and degraded in popular thought, it tried to do over again what it did when it was formed, by raising the popular political thought up to a higher plane. At present, however, the disposition of the party leaders seems to be, as the Congressional address to the voters indicates, to fall back on "the bloody shirt" whenever the Democrats make a mistake, and

engage us all once more in the battle of Gettysburg, and ask us to use our ballots or bayonets in resisting a "new rebellion." It depends on the independent voters of the country to decide when this seesaw of "fraud" and "bloody shirt" shall cease. As long as they can be roused by it, it will never cease. As long as the political game can be played on the theory that all politics consists in the division of offices, and that the use made of the offices is a secondary matter, and that any cry is good enough to divide them with, we shall not get much further than we have got in the last ten years towards a solution of the problems bequeathed to us by the war. The one duty of the honest and patriotic voter just now is not to be roused by the investigation, or scared by the "ringing address" of Messrs. Gorham and Hale. If everybody keeps cool, the warriors on both sides will shortly take off their tin armor and join in the merriment of the audience.

THE POLITICS OF THE PARIS EXPOSITION.

THE Paris Exposition, which has opened with great éclat, and has probably evoked more popular enthusiasm than any that has yet taken place, is remarkable also as having the character of a political demonstration. The mere project exerted a good deal of influence last winter in bringing to an end the reactionary attempt of the Fourtou Ministry; for the Republicans were able to alarm the Marshal by pointing out the certainty that it would fail in case he persisted in his hostility to the Radicals. An international fair would have been out of place in a country distracted by a political crisis, and the prospect of the breakdown of an enterprise in which he would be a leading figure was very humiliating both to the Marshal and his wife (who counts for a good deal in the inner councils of the Septennate), and was, on the whole, much more formidable than "latent Radicalism." Since his surrender and the return of Republican supremacy, the Legitimists and Bonapartists have made no secret of their hope and belief that the Republicans would not be able to conduct an Exposition and attract distinguished visitors to it, and that its shortcomings in their hands would both illustrate their incapacity and the distrust and dislike of their rule felt both at home and abroad. All preceding French Exhibitions have been the work of the Empire, and the Emperor was the leading figure in them, and to the Bonapartists in particular, therefore, the occasion, under present circumstances, is a very trying one. To the Republicans, on the other hand, its success has for similar reasons been of the last importance, because it will indicate that France is happy and contented, and enjoys the good-will of foreign states, and that neither king nor emperor is necessary to give Paris the festive splendor and the affluence of foreign custom which the population of all classes find so flattering and so profitable. The result has been that the people of the capital have thrown themselves into the fête of the opening with extraordinary ardor and enthusiasm. Their pride has been tickled, and the ceremonial side of Republican government, which has been always its weak one in France, has been glorified by an unusual conflux of foreign princes and noblemen, whose arrival has filled the Monarchists with rage and despair. One of their papers gloated over the rain and mud of the opening day, and another called attention to the fact that the Prussian flag was again floating in Paris, thanks to Republican rule. Their electoral misfortunes, too, have continued and increased. The Republicans have carried nearly all the seats declared vacant by the Assembly, and where they have not carried them have increased their vote in such a way as to show that they are sure of the future, and that France is steadily and irresistibly gravitating towards them. The Monarchist organs of the Right Centre, such as the *Soleil* and the *Revue de France*, acknowledge frankly that Monarchy has, for the present at least, lost the game, "that France has accepted the Republic," and that there is nothing now for sensible and farseeing Conservatives to do but to continue to take part in public affairs, not with the view of hindering the Government but of watching and restraining it, so as to prevent as much mischief as possible, and do as much good until the country comes back to "political truth," or, in other words, to the monarchical idea.

The triumph of the Republic being assured by the certainty that it will have a majority in both houses when the time comes for the revision of the Constitution in 1881, speculation has not unnaturally begun as to what the effect of undisputed possession of power will be on the Republican party itself. Hitherto it has been consolidated and strengthened by the necessities of the struggle with the Monarchists, in which it has been engaged ever since the downfall of the Empire. The first of these necessities was abstinence from everything, whether in speech or legislation, that would alarm the property-holders and give the Executive an excuse for a *coup d'état*, and it is said to be M. Gambetta's keen perception of this fact which accounts for the great change that has taken place in his demeanor since the days of his dictatorship. From a fiery and very denunciatory tribune, not to say demagogue, he has gradually calmed down into a sober, sedate, and very self-restrained politician of the English school, keeping himself a good deal in the background, and sedulously eschewing everything that bears the appearance of a love of change or of dissatisfaction with what the French call their "institutions"—that is, a large army, a paid clergy, and a highly centralized administration, and the system of taxation which has come down from the Revolution, the two leading features of which are a fixed valuation of the land and the absence of an income-tax. What has excited more surprise, however, than his change of policy is the success he has had in retaining his leadership even of the extreme Radicals, in spite of his change of policy. He has killed all opposition even among the Paris Radicals, who are the most extreme of all, and had them so well drilled when the crisis of May 16 came that they bore the extraordinary provocations of the Fourtou Ministry for six months with a patience and good temper which their warmest admirers have never claimed for them, and absolutely suppressed all expression of the old Socialistic ideas, which though greatly scotched can hardly be supposed to be completely extinct. Being asked to account for this remarkable display of political sense, M. Gambetta is reported to have ascribed it to the great "finesse" of the French working class. One result of it—and it may be called the most impressive political result that has been achieved in France since 1830—is that the peasantry have lost their fear of the great cities, and have been actually won over to the Republic, as the late elections all show.

This remark of M. Gambetta's about the "finesse" of the city voters has suggested the question whether, when the necessity of reticence and prudence has passed away, the Radicals will not again reappear in their real character, and seek to force the Conservative wing of the party into that "progressive legislation" which the bulk of the French people so much dread, and which has heretofore made the Republic such a bugbear, and whether M. Gambetta will be able to retain his position without either making serious concessions to this tendency or advocating a foreign policy in marked contrast to the modest and prudent attitude towards foreign powers which France has for the past seven years so sedulously maintained? When the Republicans have no longer the Monarchists to fight, and when the question of the form of the Government, having ceased to be a practical question, has disappeared from French politics, it is hardly possible that the party will be able to retain its present unity. It will certainly divide, and the people are beginning to ask, with a shade of anxiety, on what difference of opinion will the division be based. The prospect, however, even taking the darkest view of it, cannot be considered alarming. The Republican party, owing to the accession of the peasantry, to the very great advances made by the peasantry in education, and to the extraordinary degree to which France is now influenced by foreign opinion, can never again be what it was in times past, when Paris was its principal seat, and its great advantage lay in the fact that it could threaten the Government with violence. Paris will probably never again decide what form of Government the country shall have, and even the worst type of Republican demagogues will have to consider the prejudices of the country people (which he has never had to do before), if he means to succeed.

THE LONDON EXHIBITIONS—THE GROSVENOR GALLERY.

[FROM AN OCCASIONAL CORRESPONDENT.]

LONDON, May 8, 1878.

THE second summer exhibition of the Grosvenor Gallery, which opened a week ago, is pronounced quite as good as the first, if not rather better. This fact is worth noting, for there had been plenty of people ready to declare that this novel enterprise was all very well for once, but that it could not keep itself up. It is really not at all apparent why the Grosvenor Gallery should find the struggle for existence so arduous, and the supposition rests upon a vague idea, diffused to an amusing degree, that it had undertaken to be excessively "peculiar." What form its peculiarities are liable to assume most people would find it hard to say; but they have, at least, a strong impression that this exhibition will somehow not be as other exhibitions are. They go there with the expectation of finding something very strange and abnormal; and it is certain that as a general thing they must be grievously disappointed. The last time I entered I heard a lady confessing to this sentiment in rather an amusing manner; she was passing out, with a gentleman, as I came in. "I am rather disappointed, you know; I expected the arrangement of the pictures would be more unusual." I wondered in what fashion this good lady had supposed the productions of Mr. Burne-Jones and Mr. Watts would be arranged—hung upside down, or with their faces to the wall? There is, it would seem, but one manner of arranging pictures at an exhibition, and to this time-honored system the Grosvenor has rigidly adhered. As for the pictures themselves, some of them are very good, and reflect substantial credit upon British art. From this point of view the exhibition, as a whole, is much more glorious than the show at the Royal Academy, which has but just opened, and of which I will speak on another occasion. If on the one hand it is much smaller, on the other it is not disfigured by the presence of any member of that contingent of the old-fashioned Academicians who, at Burlington House, offer so painful and humiliating a reminder of the depths of vulgarity to which English art had sunk thirty or forty years ago. The painters represented at the Grosvenor this year are almost the same names that figured in last summer's catalogue; the artist most conspicuously absent is, perhaps, Mr. Holman Hunt. This year, as last, Mr. Burne-Jones is easily the first, and his several works are far away the most interesting and remarkable things in the exhibition. To the visitors in quest of "peculiarity" they are, as usual, a particularly opportune spectacle.

Mr. Burne-Jones's contribution consists of two large pictures—"Laus Veneris" and "Le Chant d'Amour"—and eight smaller ones, several of which were painted some years ago. I have space to speak only of the large things, which are certainly, as yet, the painter's strongest works. "Laus Veneris" represents a wonderful royal lady in a flame-colored robe, seated among her maidens, who are singing to her the praise of love, and accompanying themselves on quaint musical instruments. A long, low open window behind the maidens reveals a company of gentlemen in white armor, on white horses, who, as they pass, peer curiously and wistfully into the splendid room. The lady is leaning back wearily, with one arm thrown up and passing over her head, whose dense tresses are all unfolded, while she has lifted off her terrible great crown and placed it before her in her gorgeous lap. She has the face and aspect of a person who has had what the French call an "intimate" acquaintance with life; her companions, on the other hand, though pale, sickly, and wan, in the manner of all Mr. Burne-Jones's young people, have a more innocent and vacant expression, and seem to have derived their languor chiefly from contact and sympathy. "Le Chant d'Amour" is a group of three figures, seated, in rather an unexpected manner, upon the top of a garden wall. The middle one is a young woman in a white satin dress, kneeling upon a blue cushion before a small organ, over whose keys her white fingers move. On the right, behind the organ, a young angel, of uncertain sex, plies the instrument with wind from a pair of bellows; on the left sits a melancholy youth in armor, with a dark brown face, leaning on his hand, with his legs folded beside him, listening to the melody produced by his two companions. These two pictures are open to the same sort of criticism that was freely bestowed upon the artist last year. It will be a matter of course to say that the subjects are unreal, the type of figure monotonous and unpleasant, the treatment artificial, the intention obscure. There is much to be said about Mr. Burne-Jones every way; but the first thing to be said, it seems to me, is that no English painter of our day has a tithe of his "distinction." After that there is more to say than I have space for. If his figures are too much of the same family, no English painter of our day has mastered a single type so completely and made it an image of so many different things. In color, the two pictures of which I have spoken are a great achievement; they have extraordinary beauty. They are extremely different, and only a master could offer us such contrasts. The "Laus Veneris" is pitched in a high key—a key given by the wondrous flame-colored robe of the heroine fretted with little circular figures in relief. The colors are all brilliant, the shadows thin, the whole impression that of bright surfaces in a strong light. "Le Chant d'Amour," on the contrary, looks at first like some mellow Giorgione or some richly-glowing Titian. The tone is full of depth and brownness, the shadows are warm, the splendor subdued. As a brilliant success in the way of color it is hard to know which picture to place first; each of them, at any rate, bears in this respect the great stamp—the stamp of the master for whom the play of color is a freedom, an invention, a source of thought and delight. In the way of design the strongest point in these two works is the attitudes of the two principal figures—the grand weariness and, at the same time, absorption of posture of the mediæval Venus, and the beautiful, rapt dejection of the mysterious young warrior. It must be admitted that the young warrior, with his swimming eyes, has a certain perplexing femineity of expression; but Mr. Burne-Jones does not pretend to paint very manly figures, and we should hardly know where to look for a more delicate rendering of a love-sick swain. The fault I should be inclined to charge upon Mr. Burne-Jones's figures is that they are too flat, that they exist too exclusively in surface. Extremely studied and finished in outline, they often strike one as vague in modelling—wanting in relief and in the power to detach themselves. They are, however, so wonderfully elegant that I should not insist upon that. The compositions of which they form part have the great and rare merit that they are *pictures*. They are conceptions, representations; they have a great *ensemble*.

There are some other excellent things at the Grosvenor, though I should greatly hesitate to name among them the numerous contributions of Mr. G. F. Watts. Mr. Watts has been for thirty years one of the first—perhaps, indeed, the very first—of English portrait-painters; but in the evening of his days he has taken to allegory, and it must be declared that in this pursuit his zeal has decidedly outrun his discretion. His big, mystical "Love and Death," last year, had indeed a great deal of nobleness, and might, all things considered, be pronounced a success. But this season Mr. Watts is really too big and too mystical; he appears to me, in vulgar parlance, quite off the scent. There is a good deal of fine color and of what may be called the intention of imagination in his two large canvases, "Time and Death" and "Mischief," but there is still more of a certain dense confusion and of an indefinable something which reminds the spectator that nothing is so precious as good taste, or, in its absence, so much missed.

Two American painters are substantially represented. I may seem to stretch a point, indeed, in speaking of Mr. James Whistler as an American painter, for it is not fair to attach to Mr. Whistler any label that serves for any one else. He is quite sole of his kind. He covers a large space of wall with an array of his usual "harmonies" and "variations," "arrangements" and "nocturnes." "I don't know," was the answer of a friend to whom I had uttered some restrictive criticism of these performances; "I think they are very pleasant things to have about." This seemed to me an excellent formula. Mr. Whistler's productions are pleasant things to have about, so long as one regards them as simple objects—as incidents of furniture or decoration. The spectator's quarrel with them begins when he feels it to be expected of him to regard them as pictures. And, even as "objects," it is hard to feel strongly about them; for Mr. Whistler paints in a manner to make it difficult to attach a high value to individual pieces. His manner is very much that of the French "impressionists," and, like them, he suggests the rejoinder that a picture is not an impression but an expression—just as a poem or a piece of music is. Mr. George H. Boughton proceeds in a very different manner, and his results are always charming. More exactly than any one else he preserves the balance between landscape and figures; with him it is always difficult to say whether the group or the background constitutes the subject. This is pretty sure to be one of two things—a study of the costume of the early years of the present century, or a study of the English rustic ("navvy" or ploughboy) and his brawny sweetheart. At the Academy, this year, Mr. Boughton shows us the big bonnets and pelisses, the scanty skirts and long mittens, of the year 1810; he understands these things in perfection and paints them charmingly. At the Grosvenor he

exhibits, beside an excellent landscape with a single figure, a rustic pastoral with a large element of landscape—a couple of huge-armed swains in corduroys, at the edge of a stone-quarry, contending with the hammer (they are trying to crack a big block) for the favor of a thick-necked and thick-wristed maiden who sits watching them like the queen of beauty at a tournament. In all Mr. Boughton's work, and especially in his partiality for a certain bright soberness of color, there is something very refined and discreet.

Mr. Millais is present at the Grosvenor in two contributions—one of the sort that is spoken of at present as representing him at his best; the other looking very much like the work of a vulgar and infelicitous imitator. The better of these two pictures is a portrait, entitled "Twins"—two young girls of eighteen or twenty stiffly posed and drawn, but very freely painted, and looking out of the canvas as Mr. Millais can so often teach his figures to look. It is kinder not to speak of the other example of this strangely unequal painter—a painter whose imperfectly great powers always suggest to me the legend of the spiteful fairy at the christening feast. The name of Mr. Millais's spiteful fairy is vulgarity; but, fortunately (it must be added), the good fairies are *au complet*. The trio of clever foreigners—MM. Tissot, Alma Tadema, and Heilbuth—are in force; and I must find space to mention two young Englishmen (or, as I believe, Scotchmen) who have this year "revealed" themselves—Mr. Gregory, with a really superb portrait of a gentleman, and Mr. Cecil Lawson, with two very large and ambitious, but very original and interesting, landscapes.

ANTI-RUSSIAN SENTIMENTS IN FRANCE.

PARIS, May 2, 1878.

THE Exposition of 1878 was opened yesterday officially, with all the pomp and circumstance of such ceremonies. As an exhibition it is still in the most embryonic state; it will not be perfect, I hear, before a month. At a distance its huge towers appear like the minarets of a gigantic mosque; but I must confess that I have only seen it yet at a distance. Paris was very merry yesterday, notwithstanding the showers which from time to time cooled its enthusiasm. Paris was contented with itself, and made phrases about the great feast of peace and progress and the wonderful revival of France, and put flags in its windows, and illuminated its monuments, and cheered the foreign soldiers who have been sent to the Exhibition as guardians, and who lounged in their uniforms on the boulevards. Boys with Venetian lanterns went in troops, and sang songs of a republican character. Long lines of gas marked the outlines of the Madeleine, of the Opéra, of the Triumphal Arch. The sky above the town was red with the glare of so many thousands of lights, and then, one by one, each monument was darkened by the turning of a cock, and the shouting died by degrees, and the gloom of the solemn night began.

This festive day was in reality like a ray of sun between two showers, for never was the future of Europe so dark as it appears now to a thinking mind. It is a curious fact that thus far the only objects of admiration in the Exhibition have been soldiers—your American soldiers, the Spanish, the Danish, the English soldiers. We are comparing uniforms. The most notable work of art in the great Exhibition, when it is complete, will undoubtedly be the tomb of a general. Dubois will show us his monument of Lamoricière, exactly as it will appear in the walls of the cathedral of Nantes. I rejoice in the hope of seeing this wonderful triumph of French sculpture. You are probably by this time familiar in America with the two figures of "Charity" and "Military Courage." We shall see the two others with them—"Hope" and "Faith"—and Lamoricière on his death-bed, in his military uniform, guarded by these admirable statues. It will be worth a journey to see the tomb of Lamoricière in the Champs de Mars, but why should I at once think of it in connection with what pretends to be an industrial exhibition? It is probably because war is now in the minds of all. Europe is full of rumors; we have ceased to hope in peace. It must be apparent to all that England is determined to open the gates of the Temple of Janus. She is probably but waiting for the Indian troops to arrive at Port Saïd, which can only be in a fortnight. Meanwhile time must be gained, and people can continue for a while to speak of German mediation, of diplomatic inventions and combinations of all sorts. An English friend, speaking to me yesterday of the arrival of the Indian troops on the European battle-ground, told me that this exodus of the Indian army was to him the most ominous sign of the times. "How can we now avoid war? When you invite a man to dinner, you must give him something to eat." The old India men are not overjoyed at this; they ask themselves what may happen if the natives of India find out that they are a match for European troops.

It is not for me here to speak of the wisdom of these measures; I will only note their effect on the French mind. Till within a few weeks public opinion in France was in a state of complete, of absolute neutrality on the Eastern question. This condition of things was partly the work of the Duc Decazes, who had been the Minister of Foreign Affairs for several years, and who had cultivated good relations with all the European Powers indifferently. It was also the expression of the good sense of the country, which felt that the determination to remain at peace precluded any strong expression of opinion—that neutrality in deeds must be accompanied by neutrality in words. We were neither Turk nor Russian nor English in sentiment; if there was a little, a vague preference, it was, I must confess, on the side of Russia. Even at the time of the Crimean war France felt no hatred for Russia; our officers of high rank returned from the Crimea with sentiments of admiration and of sympathy for the Russian army. At the time of our great misfortunes the support which was given indirectly to Germany by the Czar did not much irritate the French. We were, indeed, abandoned by all Europe, and if France had the right to expect any sympathy it was not from the nations against which she had made war, it was from those which had been our friends and allies. Napoleon III. had made the Crimean war for dynastic purposes, but he had nevertheless frustrated the plans of Russia; he had during the Indian mutiny offered to the English troops the passage from Calais to Marseilles; during the American rebellion he had tied his policy to the policy of England, and abandoned for a while the traditions of France with regard to the United States. Finally, he had nearly ruined French manufactures by a sudden change in the whole tariff, and by a free-trade policy suggested by Cobden and the Manchester school. England was not obliged to pay to the French Republic of 1870 all her debts to Napoleon III., but, on the other hand, she had no right to screen herself behind the famous Benedetti treaty in order to explain and justify her complete indifference to the territorial losses of France. This indifference was, at the time, very painful to the French people. We did not expect England to go to war for us, as she was unprepared, but she could have said something about the treaties of Vienna when our frontier was altered. The treaties made after Waterloo were surely as important to her as the Treaty of Paris made after the fall of Sebastopol. The French people imagined that England had really and for ever renounced interference in the affairs of Europe, but since the accession of Lord Beaconsfield to power a great change has been made: England has assumed a new attitude, and, in fact, she is now assuming the position of defender of the treaties, though she quietly saw every treaty torn to pieces twenty years ago.

The French public could not be much interested in this change of policy on the part of England, so long as it was openly proclaimed that England would never stir for anything except English interests. But while this is still the language of those who desire to work a change in that part of the English people which is afraid of war, and cannot yet be induced to approve a warlike policy, there is now a notion abroad, which has found its expression in many places, that England is not preparing to fight for selfish English interests; that she is the champion of European law, of international law, of the sacred rights of the European community; that she is preparing to do for the Continent what she has often done—to give heart to the weak and oppressed, and to resist the tyrants—"debellare superbos." A few writers of great merit have endeavored to excite public opinion in France in favor of England, and they have been aided by the desires of the leaders of the Republican party. The chief enemy, the arch-enemy, if I may say so, of Russia in France is the author of "The Two Chancellors," the author of so many articles in the *Revue des Deux Mondes* on the Danish War, the ex-Aulic-Councillor of Vienna, the ex-Deputy to the Gallician Diet, the friend of Baron Beust, who now directs and inspires the foreign policy of an important Parisian paper. I will not pronounce his name, as his articles are not signed; but who could fail to recognize his mark, his old habit of citing Shakspere, his charming anecdotes, his great knowledge of the diplomatic personnel of Europe? The policy of this eminent writer is very plain: he means to work at a coalition of France, England, Austria, and, if possible, of Italy, against Russia and Germany. His articles have been much read, and have undoubtedly produced much effect. They have fallen in the mill-pond of our home policy and have stirred its waters.

The Republicans, after the 16th May, went to the polls with the word of peace in their mouths; they accused the Conservatives of hidden de-

sires, of clerical, anti-Italian, and Papal wars, an accusation which they did not themselves believe, but "all is fair in love or war." The peasants, when they gave their votes for the Republicans, thought they were voting for peace, just as they did when they voted for the last plébiscite before 1870. The Republicans, taken *en bloc*, certainly are for peace, but some of their leaders, and the most important of all, the man who has in his hands the whole power of the country, as he holds the legislative majority at his disposal—this man is not one of those minds which are easily contented and satisfied with a quiet and inglorious prosperity. He has, like M. Thiers, gone from country to country; he is restless, he has everywhere emissaries and correspondents. Well, it has been remarked that the *République Française*, which is under the constant and direct inspiration of M. Gambetta, and which had from its foundation kept a very reserved tone on all questions of foreign policy, suddenly changed its style and began to echo the bitter and sarcastic attacks of the *Journal des Débats*. The war against Russia has begun in words, the *mot d'ordre* has been sent to all the local Republican papers; they all now, as one man, have adopted a *politique polonaise;* they abuse the Northern Bear and Russian ambition; they represent the Russians as tied for ever to the policy of Bismarck, as accomplices in his great work against civilization, liberty, parliamentary institutions. England is the country of "civil and religious liberty"; communistic papers speak with raptures of its "noble aristocracy." The "noble" Prince of Wales is the lion of the day here, not only in the sporting world but in the Republican *salons*—for there are Republican *salons*. This is perhaps the time to ask the famous question: "Qui trompe-t-on ici?"—What does all this mean? Public opinion is arming against Russia and in favor of England. But will the deeds follow the words? It all depends on Austria. Our great Slavophobists will tell you that, of course, France alone cannot rush against the triple alliance; that she would at once have war at home, while the English ironclads would make what we call "des ronds dans l'eau"; but if Austria is detached from the alliance of the Emperor, if she makes an alliance with England, then will it not be the duty of France to seize this opportunity?

To which it may be answered that Austria will probably not detach herself from the alliance, that Count Andrássy will have it in his power to give many millions of new subjects to his Emperor without drawing the sword; only we may be so far entangled in some plan against Russia and Germany that it will be difficult for us to fall back; we may make a new Benedetti treaty, and if we do . . . But do not let us borrow trouble.

Correspondence.

MYTH-MAKING.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In *Fraser's Magazine*, April, 1866, an article on the late Henry Thoreau appeared, in which was related an instance of his intimacy with nature, namely, his occasionally taking a fish out of Concord River with his hand. "If," it is there said, "the fish had also dropped a penny from its mouth, it could not have been a more miraculous proceeding to us." On the same page is quoted from Thoreau's works an explanation of the feat. The fish is the bream (*Pomotis vulgaris*), which has a way of defending its ova when a hand approaches, and may be so caught.

Now, there is a book written by one "H. A. Page" on Thoreau which adduces that naturalist to illustrate a rationalistic theory of miracles. As this production has been reprinted in America it may be well enough to remark how it deals with the incident of the fish. The author quotes the story from *Fraser*, word for word, down to the explanation; that is entirely suppressed; instead of it we have the surmise that "the secret, as we guess, was not a communicable one under any conditions," and "a full explanation would probably have been more hard for Thoreau than the feat itself." The allusion to the penny is italicized. The authority from which the story is taken is not mentioned—not even the magazine being named. "H. A. Page" is a pseudonym. Thus the radical and naturalist, his friend who wrote the article, and the editor (Froude) who published it, are all impressed for the work of building up a new miracle by a writer under a fictitious name.

And this is the way mythology is made!

Moncure D. Conway.

London, May 2, 1878.

Notes.

The Rose-Belford Publishing Co., Toronto, announce as in preparation a work entitled 'Canada, under the Administration of Lord Dufferin,' of which Mr. George Stewart, jr., of St. John, N. B., is the editor. It will have for its frontispiece a steel portrait of Lord Dufferin, and the publishers will also bring out a lithographic portrait of His Excellency in the style of the well-known *Atlantic Monthly* series, and obtainable only by subscribers to the book.——Robert Clarke & Co. have promptly issued a neat brochure on the great Cincinnati organ—the largest in the country—whose completion, with the ample Music Hall which it adorns, has just been celebrated with the aid of Theodore Thomas. The public spirit which secured these valuable possessions to the city was seconded in a remarkable manner in the decoration of the case of the organ, of which the carving was largely the unpaid work of ladies, both married and single, trained in Cincinnati's schools of art. This brochure gives a number of the designs for the panels.——The eighth annual report of the Metropolitan Museum of Art shows how much has been gained by acquiring the second Cesnola collection; explains the failure to buy the Castellani collection; and calls the attention of the friends of the Museum to the fact that on removal to the new building in Central Park (in the course of next year) the revenues of the institution from admissions will wholly cease, and its support become somewhat precarious.——A short bibliography of works, English and foreign, relating to ceramic manufactures is given in the London *Bookseller* for May 3, in the hope that provincial booksellers may be stimulated to add pottery to their more legitimate wares.——Mr. Fred. W. Foster has just begun in *Notes and Queries* a bibliography of archery. He reserves the works relating to the Robin Hood and William Tell group of mytho-historical tales for separate lists. He mentions with approval Mr. Maurice Thompson's articles on the subject in *Scribner's* and *Harper's*.——Henry Holt & Co. will print an American edition of Mrs. Thomas Brassey's entertaining 'Voyage of the *Sunbeam*.'——'Recollections of Two Distinguished Personages' (Countess Guiccioli and Count de Waldeck), by Mary R. D. Smith, is announced by J. B. Lippincott & Co.——We find the following curious advertisement in a St. Louis paper: "To-night: Lecture and free discussion on the principles of the Soc. Labor Party, at Washington Hall, Third and Elm sts. Everybody is invited. N.B. Allusions to nationalities or indecent language are forbidden."——Dr. Daniel Sanders's little 'Wörterbuch der Hauptschwierigkeiten der deutschen Sprache,' which we favorably noticed some years ago, is now entering upon its eleventh edition, which is to be more than twice the size of the first.——R. Oldenbourg, Munich, has just issued Vol. i. of a new work in two volumes on the United States by Dr. Friedrich Ratzel, Professor of Geography at the School of Technology in that city ('Die Vereinigten Staaten von Nord-Amerika: ihr Land, und Volk, ihre Natur und Cultur'). It is illustrated by twelve wood-cuts and several colored maps. If the expectations held out by the prospectus are fulfilled, we shall have a work as valuable as it is unique on either side of the Atlantic.——Salmin Brothers, Padua, have undertaken to publish a 'Memoir of Maurizio Quadrio,' the Italian patriot and exile, and desire the immediate loan of letters or any documents relating to him. The work will be edited by Emilio Quadrio, and will be elegantly printed in an Elzevir edition.——We did grave injustice last week to the author of 'Les Fourchambault,' M. Émile Augier, in remembering to forget that he long ago won his chair in the Academy.——The regents of the Smithsonian Institution have unanimously elected Professor Spencer F. Baird, heretofore the assistant-secretary, to be the successor of the late Professor Henry. Professor Baird's remarkable executive ability is well known.

—A paper which records the recent coaching excursion to Philadelphia gives to *Lippincott's* for June the stamp of the daily newspaper, which keeps its forms open for the latest despatches. Its title is "The Four-in-hand, and Glances at the Literature of Coaching"; and the writer, Jennie J. Young. The illustrations are both of antiquarian and of present interest, and include views of several of the teams of the Coaching Club, after photographs, and portraits of the president and of Col. Delancey Kane. Mr. Edward King's second paper on Rumania conveys a good deal of information about the customs of the people, their mode of living, and their curious language. The scanty population of that portion of Bessarabia sought to be annexed by Russia "is distinctly Rumanian. The men are rather more manly in bearing than their brethren of other sections: they have broad foreheads, frank eyes, long coarse hair, dense black mustaches, well-turned limbs, and generally

carry weapons. But they live in hideous little cabins unfit for the habitations of cattle, banked with mud, and furnished inside with the rudest articles of prime necessity. . . . The women are dull, submissive, and rarely pretty." *Lippincott's* opens with a well-written, and for tourists useful, article on the Riviera ; and we may also mention a tragic little history, quite Southern, of one branch of the Masons of Virginia.

—The June *Scribner's* is conspicuous, even in its own series, for the beauty of the illustrations. Those designed by Mr. W. L. Sheppard, with his usual mastery of Southern scenery and character, to illustrate coon-hunting, are engraved with an effectiveness and a *chic* that rival the best work of the *Tour du Monde*. Still, the most remarkable proofs of dexterity in engraving are undoubtedly to be found in some of the wood-cuts after Cruikshank, whether from an etched or a xylographic original. The well-known Grimaldi vignette, for instance, which stands at the head of Mr. Russell Sturgis's article on the great caricaturist, and the full-page "Triumph of Cupid," on p. 172, and "The Booby," engraved by a lady, on p. 176, leave nothing to be desired in point of delicate fidelity to the original. Mr. Sturgis regards with less favor the designs reproduced by photographic process, of which there are several ; but, while only the connoisseur can readily discover their defects, one need have but a slight acquaintance with the art of wood-engraving to appreciate the wonderful success which has attended the more dangerous task of fac-simile by engraving on wood after copper. Mr. Sturgis does what can be done in the compass of a few pages for the busy lifetime of a veteran artist. He defines the several periods of Cruiksnank's long activity, enumerates the principal directions in which his prolific talent was employed, and the books and editions in which his best work is to be found, and bestows a passing judgment on his character as a man and his rank as an artist. What will excite most attention is his showing that Cruikshank, as a caricaturist, was ready "to be employed by either side." But, if this should be resented by the artist's admirers, they cannot but be mollified by Mr. Sturgis's excuse, which, indeed, harmonizes with the nature of a humorist : "It is probable that he never held very positive political opinions, and was swayed by philanthropic feelings alone. It is probable that he saw things fit to ridicule in both sides of every question—in both the armies in any contest." Mr. Sturgis's selection of examples must have caused him great embarrassment. He was allowed twenty-three, where a hundred could have been profitably used. Among these he contrives to introduce no less than five portraits of his subject.

—The controversy in which we lately took part, apropos of the question of sending specimens of American wood-engraving to the Paris Exposition, is revived in *Scribner's* by Mr. W. J. Linton. His text is the *Evening Post's* dictum that "Wood-engravers, properly speaking, are not artists, nor do artists, as a rule, recognize them as such." Mr. Linton's rejoinder has the rhetorical defect of a want of clearness of style. What he really maintains is that any wood-engraver who (1) engraves upon the wood directly—without at all, or fully, drawing on the block the design in advance ; or who (2) can design as well as engrave ; or who (3) translates brush-work into line-work—whether from the painter's canvas or the draughtsman's scumbled drawing on the block, is an artist. Mr. Linton himself does all these things, and does them well, and is incontestably an artist. On the other hand, the admirable assistants of Dürer and Holbein, who cut in fac-simile the master's designs, were very good mechanics but not artists. This distinction is clear, but its acceptance is not unattended with difficulties. Take, for instance, the illustrations in this very number of *Scribner's*. Does it require more artistic sympathy to produce the "coon-hunt" scene on p. 217 than "The Triumph of Love" on p. 172 ? Perhaps it does. One is an interpretation, the other a line-for-line imitation ; but, however they may be ranked as works of art, we find it hard to admit that the latter is exactly on a par with the photographic fac-simile. When Mr. Ruskin sets the student copying a corner of Dürer's wood-cuts or Turner's etchings, he recommends a not wholly mechanical process, or there would be no art-training in it ; and the student who best succeeds has best comprehended the value of each line, and so most nearly caught the spirit of his exemplar. Let any one compare the picture of Bewick's starving ewe in Jackson and Chatto's 'History of Wood-engraving' with the cut in Bewick's 'Quadrupeds,' and he will guess the difference between fac-similes and fac-similes. Mr. Linton, by the way, we think underrates Bewick's thoroughness in putting his own designs on the block, though he was doubtless capable of "drawing the bird before him with the graver." And if he was "not known as a painter," he has left many exquisite studies in water-color.

—As orthodox readers of the *Atlantic*, we turned first to Mr. Bishop's "Detmold," and having found the conclusion at once answering our expectation and gratifying our sense of poetic justice, we are free to say that we hope the story may be republished in book-form. The author deserves this by way of encouragement as well as of admonition. Thoreau's "June Days" are, perhaps, hardly as suggestive reading as were the two previous months from his diary ; but he gives an interesting account of camping out on Monadnock, and does not overlook "the newspaper and egg-shell left by visitors" on the summit. Mr. Henry Cabot Lodge contributes a vigorous sketch of the career of Timothy Pickering, more especially that part of it suppressed by the late Dr. Upham, and brought to light in Prof. Henry Adams's 'Documents relating to New England Federalism,' of which this article is ostensibly a review. Pickering was eighty-two when invited to meet President John Quincy Adams privately at dinner. He was too frank to accept without asserting his unchanged views of Mr. Adams, and too manly to shun meeting him ; so he writes a letter to the host in which he calls Adams a slanderer and a President by apostasy (not by "fraud" *and* "apostasy," as in these corrupter days), and concludes, "I accept with pleasure your invitation to dinner." Mr. A. G. Sedgwick discusses the "Unforeseen Results of the *Alabama* Dispute," of which the most novel and even startling is the dilemma that if Congress, in distributing the Geneva award, recognizes the so-called "exculpated cruisers" claims, and the war-premium claims, it will bind us to the inconvenient doctrine that "a neutral is bound to pay damages which arise from her acts, however remote." There can be little doubt that this view is as sound as it is novel. Mr. T. S. Perry has, perhaps, undertaken a rather thankless task in summarizing M. Doudan's essay on "The Revolutions in Taste." Nevertheless, those who have read with eagerness the reviews of this remarkable person's letters, in lieu of the letters themselves, may well feel obliged to Mr. Perry for his account of the essay, even if it should not dispose them to procure it and read it in the original.

—How long it has been the fashion for one newspaper to call another "our contemporary," or why a newspaper should be a "contemporary" any more than an individual man, we are unable to say. If the term be a correct use of language, it would also seem to be proper for a newspaper to refer to one which has preceded it in point of time as its "prior," or to those which are to come after it as its "posteriors," and to talk, when in a genial mood, of our "venerable priors" and "our energetic posteriors." But the fact is that for an unknown period "contemporary" has been what may be called the editor's polite professional word, like the lawyer's "learned gentleman" or the legislator's "gentleman from Cattaraugus," of designating another newspaper. When the two editors were on friendly terms it has not been uncommon to say "able contemporary" or "brilliant contemporary," though we cannot recall any case in which these epithets were accorded to a journal published in the immediate neighborhood or cultivating the same field. The recipients of these have almost always been so far off that compliments to them would not be likely to be injurious to the eulogist's own business, or likely to be construed injuriously as an admission of professional superiority. The use of the term "contemporary," too, probably has always been defensible on the same ground as the corresponding parliamentary circumlocution, viz, that it gave the person referred to the air of an abstraction, and thus kept down the pugnacity which the contemplation of him as a man might rouse in the heat of political strife. It must be confessed, however, that in the press the device has only been partially successful, and it has been no uncommon thing for a "contemporary" to be described in most opprobrious language, resulting in some parts of the country in the appearance in the streets of two "contemporaries" clad in seedy black and well armed, bent on mutual slaughter.

—What is attracting attention to the term just now is the fact that a variety hitherto but little known—indeed we may say in this city totally unknown—the "esteemed contemporary," has made its appearance in New York. The *World* has several "esteemed contemporaries" ; the *Sun* has two or three ; so has the *Post*. The *Times* has only one, but the *Tribune* as yet has none. Twenty years ago this would have been considered a sign of weakness, and have considerably interfered with the rolling of "the ball of discussion," as the art was then practised. At that time there was, we believe, no newspaper office in the city in which a contemporary could have been honestly esteemed, owing to the firmly-rooted belief in his folly and depravity. Any day in which he was not blundering grossly in the very elements of knowledge he was engaged in the promotion of some scheme of iniquity, and there was no self-respect-

ful way of liking or admiring him. Now, however, probably owing to the greatly diminished prominence and importance of the editor's personality, it is found possible for journalistic rivals to carry on very animated debates in words of honeyed courtesy. Your contemporary may be constantly making mistakes and taking most mischievous views of grave questions, but he still remains "esteemed." As far as one can make out, too, the term is not ironical, like the "beloved contemporaries" of the terrible Jennings—a term which, in his mouth, was a synonym for unconscionable ruffians and liars, whom he was going to blackguard severely. It does not, we are quite sure, mean real love or admiration, but it means a desire for peace and sober discussion which has been long unknown in "journalistic circles" in this city, and the reign of which would be wider if the balance-sheets of the *Tribune* could be made satisfactory to the *Times* and *Sun*. It is this more than anything else which prevents the *Tribune* at present from being even a "contemporary," much more an "esteemed contemporary," to either of these papers. The *World*, also, as far as human eyes can see, will never become a "contemporary" to the *Times*, or anything like it, owing to causes "far brought from out the storied past," the elucidation of which, so rapidly does time fly, will probably need before long the best historical talent our country can produce. But it ought to be observed, at the same time, that journalism is above all pursuits that in which the unexpected is likely, and in which the most sudden revulsions of feeling occur. In fact the journalist proper, in his relations to his professional brethren, seems incapable of calm and steady respect, or even indifference. He usually passes from "the rage of the vulture" to "the love of the turtle," and either extols to the skies or damns to the lowest pit of imbecility and rascality. That persistent urbanity does not work well in the profession, and in fact indicates a lack of staying power, would seem to be deducible from the fate of the *Evening Mail*, which has just died, and was probably, during its brief existence, the most civil-spoken paper in the world. It had a kind word for everybody, and was full of admiration for the talents and enterprise of all the other papers. A better paper for a young man just beginning his education, and needing to cultivate his powers of reverence, probably never existed. Its fall raises the question whether too great politeness and suavity is not injurious to a newspaper—whether, in short, admiration of its "contemporaries" does not suggest secret weakness or want of that self-confidence which is to the journalist what courage is to the soldier.

—A consoling theory about torpedoes has recently made its appearance in the English papers, to the effect that a harbor may be cleared of these obstructions to an attacking fleet by

"exploding large charges of powder, gun cotton, or other explosive, sunk to some distance below the surface of the water, in order that the shock produced, transmitted through the surrounding fluid, may stave in or otherwise injure any of the enemy's submarine mines which may be arranged in the vicinity. A certain area being thus cleared of any hostile torpedoes, this space may be continually enlarged by dropping and exploding other countermines, each one in advance of the other, until finally the whole passage is cleared. Unless, however, the exact position of the defensive torpedoes has been determined beforehand, it is evident that a very large quantity of explosive material will have to be expended, since, the radius of rupture of a counter-mine being comparatively small, several charges may be exploded at points where they will do no damage."

Careful and repeated experiments by the Engineer Corps in this country show that this is an illusion. Putting aside the fact that water is a non-elastic body and will not "transmit shocks" sufficient to produce an explosion, we may mention that General Abbott, who is in charge of the torpedo station at Willett's Point, has demonstrated that you cannot explode a torpedo by another torpedo, even out of the water. We were present a few days ago at some of his experiments, which left no manner of doubt on the subject. He placed a thirteen-inch shell charged with dynamite on the ground, and put in actual contact with it a dynamite cartridge the explosion of which cracked the shell in every direction without disturbing its contents. He then exploded another dynamite cartridge in contact with it, which blew the shell to pieces, but without any effect on the charge beyond scattering it about on the ground.

—To meet the difficulty of finding out where the enemy's torpedoes are, the authors of the "shock" theory say they are to be discovered

"by 'sweeping' the area in which it may be suspected they have been placed. This operation is performed by dragging through the water a rope which is weighted so as to keep it at a certain depth below the surface, and the ends of which are attached to two boats which are rowed or steam forward together at a given distance apart. The mines of the enemy having been discovered by this means can then be readily destroyed by countermining."

They do not seem to be aware that the electrical apparatus of the torpedo system is now so perfected that touching the torpedo with a "rope," or anything else, will discharge guns on shore which would sweep with grape and canister the lines on which the torpedoes are laid. In other words, stationary torpedoes now give notice of any danger to themselves, without exploding, on the mere condition that they shall be in some manner disturbed. In fact, the only thing that prevents the harbor torpedo in its present state from being a perfect defence is the necessity of protecting the operators on shore with heavily fortified works. These must be strong enough of themselves to resist the attacking fleet; as otherwise a landing party would take possession of the instruments and cut the wires.

—A valuable monograph by Mr. John B. Pearson, Fellow of Emanuel College, Cambridge, discusses 'The Theories of Usury adopted in Europe during the Period 1100–1400 A.D.' It is largely made up of a statement of the doctrine of the Bible and of mediæval writers—especially in the decretals of the popes and the writings of Thomas Aquinas—upon the subject; and these are amply illustrated by references and citations. The third Appendix, for instance, contains six pages of quotations from mediæval writers. It is made very clear that *usury* at this period did not have the meaning it has now, but meant any demand of money for the use of money. With our modern ideas it is hard to comprehend the prohibition; and, indeed, by the close of the period under discussion the casuists of the church had enough to do to justify the absolute prohibition of the practice in all cases with its permissibility in some cases. Nevertheless the Old Testament prohibition, from which it is ultimately derived, is not so very hard to understand when one places one's self, as Mr. Pearson does (p. 7), in the point of view of that early society. From this "we see at once the reason for lending to the poorer of their brethren; while lending to the rich at all is not contemplated, nor yet anything like employment of capital in our sense of the word; nor thirdly, as I think, the notion of an indolent borrower, who borrows to expend on his own convenience and comfort." The manner in which the practice of lending on interest forced itself into recognition in the later Middle Ages, although stated clearly enough, is not well worked out in detail; and, indeed, legal relations and terms are far from being satisfactorily defined. In regard to the *emphyteusis*, for example (p. 50), strangely enough there is no mention of any connection with the tenure of land.

MASSON'S MILTON.*

IN these two volumes Mr. Masson's narrative drags its slow length from the execution of Charles I. to the Restoration, a period including many transactions that still need elucidation, and promising to display to best advantage the peculiar method which the author has deemed it necessary to adopt in constructing his work. For during these eleven years Milton was not only brought into most direct personal connection with the stirring events of his time, but far more than at any other period he may be taken as the representative of its political and ecclesiastical tendencies. Here, therefore, more than at any earlier stage of his undertaking, we may expect to find Mr. Masson justified for embedding his proper theme in such a minute and exhaustive survey of contemporary history. His success or failure here will decide the verdict respecting his entire work.

Beginning with the foundation of the Commonwealth, Mr. Masson enters at length into the difficulties which beset it at the outset, arising in part from lack of agreement among the leaders, and in part from the threefold opposition of Presbyterians, Royalists, and Levellers. The campaigns of Cromwell in Ireland and Scotland are described, and the relations of the Commonwealth with foreign powers very fully explained. The growing antagonism between Parliament and the army, which culminated at length in the forcible dissolution of the Rump, is carefully traced. The conservative reaction, which resulted in the establishment of the First Protectorate, the differences respecting toleration, the Petition and Advice, the Second Protectorate, the French alliance, the policy of Cromwell with respect to education and religion, the ignominious rule of Richard, and the miserable succession of plots and counterplots which only served to hasten a foregone conclusion, are all described with a fulness of detail found in few histories of the period. It would be unjust to

* 'The Life of John Milton, narrated in connection with the Political, Ecclesiastical, and Literary History of His Time. By David Masson, M.A., LL.D.' Vols. IV. V. New York: Macmillan & Co. 187[illegible].

deny that Mr. Masson has shown great diligence in exploring sources of information, and that he has succeeded in collecting many interesting facts. He is at his best in dealing with the most difficult part of his task—the relations of the various religious sects. Here he is uniformly fair and thorough. Yet we cannot regard his general treatment of the history of the Commonwealth as very successful. His skill lies much more in collecting material than in using it, and he leaves on the mind no distinct impression of an epoch full of high strain and of brilliant incident. His facts hang loosely together without generalization, and the value of his original conclusions seems by no means commensurate with the unwearied pains he has taken. While he has called attention to some incidents that had been overlooked, he has done little on the whole to modify prevailing opinions. Most of the great actors in the drama are presented neither in a very novel nor in a very striking light. On what has been perhaps the most debated passage of Cromwell's career, the dissolution of the Rump, Mr. Masson has nothing new to communicate, and contents himself with reciting the familiar story. Even the foreign policy of the Protector, once so extravagantly praised, but which has recently been called in question as an error into which he was betrayed by his essentially conservative and unspeculative temper, receives from Mr. Masson no special notice. He accepts the theory that Cromwell's elevation to some kind of sovereign power was a necessity of the time, as the only escape from the wild civil and religious idealism which had been the visible drift of the Barebones parliament, but he alleges no new reasons in favor of a view which the eloquence of Mr. Carlyle has already made so familiar. A noticeable feature, however, of this part of Mr. Masson's work is his emphatic assertion of the essentially conservative tendency of the Protectorate.

So far as relates to the author's proper subject, the life of Milton, these volumes include the publication of his tract on the 'Tenure of Kings and Magistrates,' his 'Eikonoklastes,' his two 'Defences of the English People,' the 'Treatise of Civil Power,' the 'Considerations on Hirelings,' and the 'Ready and Easy Way to establish a Free Commonwealth.' During these years Milton was also in the employ of the Council of State, as Secretary for Foreign Tongues, and in this capacity wrote the 'Letters of State,' which for style, if not for substance, must be reckoned among his works. Mr. Masson brings for the first time to light the somewhat surprising fact that the author of the most passionate plea ever put forth in behalf of unlicensed printing himself served for some time in the capacity of censor of the press. To this same period belong the sonnets, several of which are simply political tracts in verse. All these writings Mr. Masson has elucidated with much care, and all students of Milton will owe him a debt for his painstaking investigations. His labors are especially useful in helping us to understand the contemporary judgment respecting Milton. He is also successful in exhibiting the personal relations of Milton with the different governments which he was called to serve. At the outset the poet was an ardent republican, defending in the first tract that he published after the execution of the king the most extreme doctrine of popular sovereignty. He was the friend and admirer of Vane, and, like Vane, advocated the most entire separation of church and state. Yet he supported Cromwell against the Rump, though, as Mr. Masson asserts, with reservations. Yet the contrast between the elaborate eulogy of Vane in the famous sonnet addressed to him, and the studious omission of that statesman from the republican leaders so eloquently praised in the Second Defence, would seem to indicate that Milton leaned pretty strongly to the theory of a "single person." Mr. Masson labors hard to vindicate Milton's consistency, but we suspect that the real explanation lay in the fact that Milton's speculative political opinions were never the result of any strict logical method. He was far from being a republican in the modern sense. In fact, his opinions would excite the disgust of some who have given him the most unqualified praise. Thus, while stoutly claiming for every people the right to change their form of government at will, he just as strongly asserts that nature gives to every wise man rule over the less wise, and that whoever takes away rule from stupid persons acts wholly in agreement with nature—a maxim well calculated to make an American "statesman" stand aghast. It is a most characteristic remark when he says of Cæsar, that "though he introduced kingly government into a free state in a rather violent manner, he was perhaps the worthiest of being king." He had no high opinion of majority rule. The liberty which he adjured Cromwell to respect was far from being the constitutional liberty for which Eliot and Pym had contended. As little did he care for the enlightened scheme of electoral reform which the capacious understanding of Ireton devised. When it was certain that the great majority of the nation was against him, he coolly denied that the greater number, "for the pleasure of their baseness," should compel the less.

As an exposition of Milton's political opinions this part of Mr. Masson's work has a real value, and so far it helps us to understand a difficult period. We find on every page evidence of intimate acquaintance with the facts and dates of Milton's history. The most trivial circumstances are carefully noted, such as the attendance of Milton upon the sittings of the Council of State, and the probable reasons for the reduction of his salary. But with all this diligent accumulation of details, Mr. Masson still fails of making evident what the whole construction of his work assumes—that Milton was in any sense a central figure in the picture. We nowhere detect that close and organic connection between Milton's career and contemporary events which was Mr. Masson's original pretext for inflicting on his readers this prodigious compilation. Not only does he not succeed in showing that Milton was a leading actor in the great drama; he does not even make it clear that as a writer he exerted any controlling influence. The changes that so swiftly came over the complexion of affairs were brought about without his co-operation. In no sense whatever, according to the view which Mr. Masson presents, can Milton be reckoned among the statesmen of the Commonwealth. As an official, his position was throughout a very subordinate one. He was a vigorous and eloquent partisan writer, and was without doubt regarded as the most conspicuous representative of English republicanism. Mr. Masson does not in the least exaggerate his significance in this respect. Yet his treatment of political questions was rhetorical rather than logical, and he was more successful in discomfiting an adversary than in establishing any important principle. Posterity has drawn from his pages no permanent lessons of political wisdom; nor do we think that his reputation is likely to gain from Mr. Masson's minute recital of the details of his personal controversies. It is not the side of Milton's character that we prefer to contemplate. The author of 'Comus' and of 'Paradise Lost' must always inspire us with reverence, but the bitter opponent of Salmasius is not an attractive figure; and the unscrupulous assailant of Morus, pursuing his adversary with a pitiless vituperation which even Mr. Masson is forced to acknowledge "becomes perfectly painful," affects us with a feeling of positive disgust. We are at a loss to conceive why Mr. Masson should deem it necessary to dwell at such length on the least creditable episode of Milton's life. Surely the miserable scandal about poor Bontia need not have been revived with such fulness of detail.

Milton the man fares no better in Mr. Masson's hands than Milton the Secretary for Foreign Tongues. Here, again, we are overwhelmed with trivial details of domestic history, but we miss the touch that alone endows the dead with life. We are invited to follow him from his house in High Holborn, "looking backwards into Lincoln's-Inn-Fields," to his temporary residence in Charing Cross; and we are assured by Mr. Masson, with great probability, that "in the early half of the year 1649" he may have been seen walking between Whitehall and Spring Gardens with one or another of the leading personages of the time. We have an elaborate description of the house which he afterwards occupied in Petty France, which, fortunately for Mr. Masson, remained standing until our own day, and which in its last estate he represents as "oldish, but with signs of modern doing up." But the real life that Milton led amid these outward surroundings Mr. Masson does not set very vividly before us. Conjecture is made to take the place of any definite facts. Respecting the great calamity that began to cast its shadow over this part of Milton's career, Mr. Masson can only say that "we shall not be wrong in assuming" and that "we have to imagine" some very probable circumstances. But this is not the style of writing that lends biography its distinct charm. We confess to a feeling of extreme disappointment at finding in so voluminous a work so little that helps us to understand what manner of man in his private life Milton really was. During his residence in Petty France, as one of his nephews tells us, "he was frequently visited by persons of quality" and by "learned foreigners of note"; but no one of this choice company seems to have bethought himself of making any memoranda of his conversations with one of the supreme characters of history, and we are left to imagine what may have passed at these interviews. In fact, almost the only knowledge of Milton during this period that is of much real value in understanding his character is that furnished by his sonnets. Besides this there is little save the occasional personal allusions in his private correspondence. Most of what Mr. Masson has succeeded in adding to this has not helped the picture. It is a striking evidence of his want of constructive skill that while he evidently cherishes the most hearty admiration for Milton's character, and has been unwearied in his

pains to portray it, he has on the whole rather chilled our admiration for his hero.

In a work constructed on the plan of these volumes we naturally look for a somewhat full and appreciative estimate of the leading men with whom Milton was brought in contact. Of these none drew from him such hearty meed of praise as the younger Vane, and with the opinions of none were his own in more entire accord. Yet Vane receives only incidental mention in Mr. Masson's pages. Mr. Masson's notion of what biography involves inevitably suggests Carlyle, but we miss in these volumes the masterly portraits which, in the 'Life of Friedrich,' atone for so many faults. Monk, the least attractive of all the men who were conspicuous during these eleven eventful years, is, singularly enough, the one who receives the most elaborate treatment. Simply as the biographer of Milton, no obligation rested on Mr. Masson of leading us through a portrait gallery of republican statesmen; but with his avowed purpose of making the life of Milton a study of contemporary history, he certainly owed his readers this service. When we have worked through his endless digressions we have a right to complain if he has not fulfilled his original agreement. In one instance, however, the author has earned the thanks of his transatlantic readers. All familiar with his earlier volumes will remember the cordial appreciation with which he always refers to Roger Williams. During the period of which he now treats, the founder of Rhode Island made his second visit to England, coming into familiar contact with Milton and Vane, and Mr. Masson is prompt to assign him an important part in the struggle for unlimited religious liberty. He is inclined to trace the Voluntary movement largely to Williams's influence, and rightly regards him as the editor of the "Four Proposals" put forth in favor of absolute toleration. Mr. Masson's estimate of Williams is in striking contrast with the studied depreciation of some American writers. We are, however, at a loss to conjecture on what ground he asserts that the pamphlet 'Ill News from New England' has been ascribed to Williams.

It is not pleasant to find fault with a work to which so much honest labor has been devoted, but we are forced to the conclusion that Mr. Masson's method is faulty, and that his skill as a literary artist is by no means equal to the task he has undertaken.

HINDU LITERATURE.*

As time rolls on, it must become more and more difficult to gain the ear of the general reader when the question is of orientals, either such as they have been or such as they now are. It will be a long while, we suspect, before our first impressions of the people of the East cease to be derived from the 'Arabian Nights.' And the form of these tales which is still almost exclusively in favor owes, confessedly, a great part of its charm to adulteration. The French *rifacimento* of the 'Arabian Nights,' of which the ordinary English version is only a reproduction, is the outcome of mangling, and interpolating, and splicing, and all with an exceedingly free hand. Nor, in order to make the tales palatable to Frenchmen, were the liberties which are taken in it felt to be unnecessary. Hence it has come to pass that the Arabs of our youthful apprehension are, in many respects, wonderfully like Parisians of the old school. That they are not uninteresting creatures, we acknowledge. For all this, they are far from being genuine Arabs; and as we grow older, and come to learn what genuine Arabs are like, and find that, their picturesqueness of aspect and surroundings apart, they have a much larger element of the repulsive than of the attractive about them, it is not altogether singular that we should turn from our later acquaintances with something of the dissatisfaction justly awakened only by detected counterfeits. Again, and also in consequence of our juvenile ideas, it is hard not to image all orientals to ourselves as homogeneous. Study, if one chooses to give one's self to it, will, of course, correct this misconception, with others kindred to it. Only very few, however, make oriental studies their election; and, to say truth, there is little demonstrable inducement to them. Travellers in the East who make books out of it are, for the most part, satisfied with the mere surfaces of things, and rarely succeed, nowadays, in doing better than ring changes on commonplaces of which everybody is weary. And their successors will hardly do otherwise than as they have done. As to scholars, those who have gone to the heart of the matter, why they, with all their love, should fail to excite anything like a wide interest in their subject is, we think, a question of easy solution. Nothing of orientals but the mere exterior is capable of being popularized. At all events, the more closely we scrutinize them, the keener is our disappointment at coming upon scarcely anything which we did not know before, and in a shape more acceptable to cultivated reason.

In well-nigh the whole of their thoughts and ways orientals are essentially childish. Alike as to what we find in them to admire, and as to what we find to dislike, they remind us in the main, even when we contemplate them in their most developed condition, of precocious children, and of girls rather than of boys. But besides this and other peculiarities, they are conspicuous, not to speak of their profound dissimulation, for a trait by reason of which they are hardly distinguishable from the humbler order of barbarians. We refer to their all but habitual misappreciation of the credible and of the incredible. They have their type, in fact, in Dr. Johnson, with his disbelief in waterspouts and his belief in goblins; or in the mythical old lady who accepted the story that Pharaoh's chariot-wheels had lately been recovered from the bottom of the Red Sea, but felt herself insulted when gravely told of flying fish. Science proper of their own they have never possessed, some elementary mathematics and astronomy excepted. Their essays in history are generally such as can only move contempt; and their poetry, in anything approaching a faithful and unembellished rendering, is, with rare reservations, barely better than tenth-rate. Their favorite pursuit and speculation is, as might be anticipated, theology. Among the sons of Adam they are not exceptional in that the less they know of it the more they have to say of it. Few matters are so familiar and self-evident as not to have been communicated to them from the skies. Their gods, made strictly after the fashion of men, and those not at all the most exemplary of men, have not only been most liberal in displaying themselves and their direct intervention up and down the earth, but now that they have retired from transacting business visibly, have bequeathed so ample a legacy of their will and precepts, and such full particulars of their exploits, that obedience and recollection might seem to be all that devolved to the devout in the way of duty. With this understanding of duty, however, the devout have not rested satisfied. In the faculty of much speaking they have thrown their gods themselves into the shade. If the foundation of their theology, premises asserted to be of divine origin, is extensive, the superincumbent structure of deductions and moralizations falls but little short of the illimitable. We here have especially the Hindus in our contemplation; and considering that these religionists regard all human knowledge, from the science of Brahma to the culinary art and dancing inclusive, as founded on specific revelations, and considering that during many centuries vast numbers of them gave themselves wholly to study and bookmaking, it can occasion no surprise to be told that their literature, particularly in its speculative and commentatorial departments, is by much the most voluminous which has been handed down from any people of antiquity.

Of this enormous aggregate only a small part has been printed, or is likely ever to be printed. Thousands of volumes of it, too, as they have never been read by any person of a Christian nation, so they will continue to the end to be by such unread. Yet not only will their resolution into dust involve no loss, but it may be questioned whether, save in the interests of philology, we should have been robbed of anything seriously regrettable if their honored fellows had experienced the fate which awaits themselves. Lord Macaulay has said in one of his Indian minutes: "I have conversed both here and at home with men distinguished by their proficiency in the eastern tongues. I am quite ready to take the oriental learning at the valuation of the orientalists themselves. I have never found one among them who could deny that a single shelf of a good European library was worth the whole native literature of India and Arabia."

However, no less than Arabic and Persian scholars, Sanskritists have, from one cause and another, become a numerous brotherhood, and as industrious as numerous; and their diligence, instead of abating, increases. Naturally enough, there are those among them who, from various motives, desire that the results of their researches should be imparted to the world at large. Professor Monier Williams is one of these; and his 'Indian Wisdom,' whether its effect be to stimulate curiosity or to satiate it, will, at any rate, not be censured for its meagreness. Some of the abstruser topics of Hindu literature he has touched on but lightly. That it would not have been more prudent simply to name them is a surmise which must obtrude itself on the initiated. At least, it would have been well if he had been briefer on philosophy, his copiousness touching which bears no proportion to his intelligibility. The truth is, that the real import of the Hindu philosophical systems is a thing of which we have as yet

* 'Indian Wisdom, etc. By Monier Williams, M.A., Boden Professor of Sanskrit in the University of Oxford.' London: Wm. H. Allen & Co.

only a few isolated ideas, and those painfully dubious. In the meantime, it is, almost certainly, but justice to the ancient philosophers of India to protest distinctly that they cannot in the nature of things have been the incomprehensible jargonists which they approve themselves in ordinary representations. In Hindu poetry, in particular, Professor Williams is much at home; and he has done the subject full and intelligent justice. His account of Hindu jurisprudence is also meritoriously executed, at least as regards the oldest and most valuable of the legal institutes. Nor is praise to be denied to the conscientious manner in which he has compiled, from multifarious sources, chiefly German, a circumstantial description of the Vedas, their appendages, and their supplements.

'Indian Wisdom' is, then, a work which, taken for all in all, we can warmly recommend to those for whom it is intended. Still, there is much in it for which we can find no conceivable justification, and which we advise its author to eliminate when he comes to a second edition. We mean its thousand and one references to Christianity, with design to evince the advance, in point of reasonableness, of the religion of the Bible over that professedly drawn from the Hindu scriptures. By nothing of this sort, as Professor Williams deals with it, will any Hindu who can read English be moved to reject one iota of his ancestral superstition. Nor are Christians, we hope, transplanted Pharisees, taking pleasure in unceasing reminders of their title to self-complacency because they are not as other men are. Moreover, in these days when carefulness in composition is so common, we have a right to look for something superior to the newspapery stamp of English which the learned professor seems to think good enough for his readers. As there are occasions when we admit a dressing-gown and slippers to be quite in place, and other occasions when we expect a dress-coat and its conventional accompaniments, similarly, however we may be patient of negligence in a familiar letter, or in a journalistic leader scribbled against time, we reckon on something considerably better in a grave book written leisurely and for duration. The errors, mostly unimportant, which we have noticed in Professor Williams's pages, in the course of a careful perusal of them, we have no room to detail. At page 97 he credits to the wrong authority the application of the epithet *hylotheistic* to the Sânkhya philosophy. Again, he is mistaken in his assertion, at page 259, that the corruption of the Rig-veda-text adduced for the burning of widows has been attributed to Raghunandana. These, very trifles, are specimens of what it would be frivolous in us to accumulate.

SARCEY'S THÉÂTRE-FRANÇAIS.*

WE should imagine that M. Francisque Sarcey received his first introduction to most American readers when Mr. Henry James, jr., took the earlier issues of this series of biographies as the text of his interesting article on the Théâtre-Français contributed a year ago to the *Galaxy* and recently reprinted in his new volume of essays. In fact, although M. Sarcey has for twenty years been growing in authority as a writer, he has not until now put forth a volume calling for other than casual consideration. A graduate of the great Normal School, which he entered fifth in the class of which M. Taine and M. Edmond About were first and third, he taught until 1858, when he abandoned teaching for journalism, under the guidance of his firm friend, M. About. He has published half-a-dozen volumes, including a novel; he writes almost daily articles on contemporary politics, and he is a frequent lecturer—if so light a thing as a French *conférence* can fairly be called a lecture. But it is as a critic of the acted drama that he has made his mark. He began to criticise the stage twenty years ago, and for now twelve years he has contributed the weekly dramatic *feuilleton* to the *Temps*. Here his "authority" has steadily grown, until he has become by far the most influential critic of plays and players in Paris. And those who best know the large part the stage holds in French life and literature can judge best how important a position M. Sarcey fills thus worthily, and how fine a combination of qualities he needs must have to attain it and to keep it. As a critic M. Sarcey is honest, earnest, acute, and, above all, logical. As a writer, in mere point of style, he is generally solid, and even heavy. But when he wrote the successive chapters of the book before us he seems to have been especially inspired; his style is lighter and livelier, and at times almost epigrammatic—in short, more like a Frenchman's and less like a professor's.

'Comédiens et Comédiennes' is to consist of several series of critical biographies of the leading dramatic artists of Paris. It is the first series only, devoted to the Théâtre-Français, and containing lives of more than twenty of its actors and actresses, which is now completed; and it is not too much to say that in this volume M. Sarcey has given to students of the stage not only one of the most readable and amusing of the many readable and amusing books about the theatre, but one of the most valuable works upon the dramatic art which we have in any language. In the twenty-four or twenty-eight pages which he devotes to each of the leading actors he briefly sketches the biography, giving the salient facts, and gliding hastily over mere gossip; then he carefully analyzes the merits of the performer, pointing out his natural advantages or defects, showing how he has availed himself of the one or conquered the other, laying bare his artistic method, and incidentally and all the time throwing light on the difficult and little understood principles of the art of acting. One rises from the reading of this series of M. Sarcey's, as from Mr. Lewes's collection of criticisms, with far clearer ideas of the art than before. Mr. Lewes (and the contrast between his work and M. Sarcey's is interesting and instructive) criticises individual actors of unusual prominence—Kean and Rachel, Lemaître and Macready—"stars," to use the idiom of the stage. M. Sarcey here takes up in turn the members of a company of picked performers, playing continually together, working freely under the accumulated traditions of more than two centuries, and containing artists of unusual ability, but still essentially a "stock company." The distinction between "stars" and "stock" is that which marks exactly the difference between the stage of England and the stage of France, as it does between Mr. Lewes's book and M. Sarcey's.

The first of the eighteen pamphlets bound together in the book before us is devoted to the theatre itself, the "Maison de Molière," perhaps the noblest monument ever erected to the memory of a poet. Then follow in irregular order critical biographies of MM. Regnier and Bressant and of Mme. Arnould-Plessy, who have all retired and taken final leave of the stage since M. Sarcey began to issue his pamphlet lives some two years and a half ago. Then in turn he considers Mlles. Sarah Bernhardt (the worthy successor of Rachel), Favart, Croizette, and Brohan, and MM. Got, Coquelin, Delaunay, Febvre, surely the finest phalanx of comedians ever bound together in the same theatre; Maubant and Mounet-Sully, the tragedian, M. Émile Augier's despairing appeal to whom ("Monsieur, if you only had a little less genius and a little more talent!") is here duly recorded. Other criticisms there are also of performers as yet less known. Last year, in noticing M. Legouvé's little book on the art of reading we made mention of the importance he attached to *diction*, a word which has no exact English equivalent, "delivery" being perhaps the closest synonym. M. Sarcey recurs again and again to *diction;* it is a quality indispensable at the Comédie-Française, where many if not most of the plays are in verse, abounding in sonorous lines. This skill in delivery is either a natural gift, as in the case of Mlle. Sarah Bernhardt, or it is only acquired in the Conservatory, whence most of the actors of the Théâtre-Français have graduated. It is not so much needed at the other theatres, and when an actor from them comes to the Français he often finds out his deficiencies for the first time. M. Febvre made this discovery, and has been striving hard for ten years, in the maturity of his career as an actor, to gain an accomplishment possessed by the stripling graduates of the Conservatory. As we are without any such institution here, the rare actors and actresses we have who can freely handle blank-verse must have got their precious gift by nature.

The profit which even those most gifted by nature may derive from the severities of criticism, just or unjust, is well shown by two of M. Sarcey's anecdotes. One is of M. Got, perhaps the strongest and (to carry out the author's suggestion) the most philosophic of French comedians. On his first appearence he acted very badly; two days later he read a very severe criticism of his performance, immediately after which he met the writer of it, one Charles Maurice, a journalist now forgotten, but then known for his biting wit and base venality. He asked the actor why he had not called on him. M. Got, discouraged and reckless, replied that he did not know his address. "Why not come to the office of the paper—for I have a paper?" asked Maurice. "The fact is, monsieur," replied M. Got, "I am poor, and I have no money to pay the *claque!*" For this the journalist never forgave the actor, but he was a most useful enemy. "He had," said M. Got to M. Sarcey, "a marvellous skill in finding the weak points of an actor and an incomparable malignity in setting them forth. I corrected myself of many faults through his criticisms—which cost me nothing. It was clear profit." In the second case the critic was M. Sarcey himself, and the criticised was Madame Arnould-Plessy, the most polished and consummate of all actresses of comedy. She chose one day to play *Agrippina* in Racine's tragedy, "Britannicus." "I shall not

* 'Comédiens et Comédiennes: La Comédie-Française. Notices par F. Sarcey.' Portraits d'Artistes gravés à l'eauforte par Léon Gaucherel. Paris: Librairie des Bibliophiles. New York: F. W. Christern. 1877.

say," wrote M. Sarcey in his next Monday's *feuilleton*, "that Madame Plessy is mediocre. With her intelligence, with her natural gifts, with her immense authority over the public, she could not in any way be mediocre. She is therefore not mediocrely bad. She is bad to an inexpressible degree." He then proceeded to prove his assertion. A few days later, finding Madame Plessy at a friend's house, he concealed himself as best he could, but she came straight to him, holding out her hand while she smiled like a heroine of Marivaux. "You are right," she said, "you might have told the truth more amiably, but it was the truth. My friends and I were wrong, and I shall not again risk myself in a tragic part. I thank you." And with a grand curtsey she left him stupefied, for never in his twenty years' experience as a critic had he ever had such an experience.

Of the eighteen etchings by M. Léon Gaucherel it is possible to speak in terms of high praise. One of them is a view of the Maison de Molière itself, and serves as a heading to the introductory chapter; it is an effective and even a poetic rendering of the building which houses so many precious memories and traditions. The seventeen other etchings are full-length portraits in character of the leading performers. In some few cases the characters are not well chosen; M. Febvre, for instance, and Mlle. Reichemberg are depicted in the parts in "L'Ami Fritz," a play of merely fortuitous success, not likely to last. In general, however, those selected are worthy of pictorial record; Mmes. Plessy and Brohan are represented in 'La Critique de l'École des Femmes' of Molière, and M. Delaunay in 'Le Menteur' of Corneille. M. Gaucherel has contributed etchings of the same size as these to the little *Almanach des Spectacles* which we have had occasion to commend; his portrait of Mlle. Sarah Bernhardt in the *Almanach* of two years ago is perhaps even more characteristic than it is here. 'Comédiens et Comédiennes' is an exquisite specimen of printing, well worthy of the reputation of M. Jouaust's press. Unfortunately there is neither index nor continuous paging, each of the eighteen parts being independently numbered.

Voyage of the Paper Canoe: A Geographical Journey of 2,500 miles, from Quebec to the Gulf of Mexico, during the years 1874–5. By Nathaniel H. Bishop, author of 'One Thousand Miles' Walk across South America,' and corresponding member of the Boston Society of Natural History, and of the New York Academy of Sciences. (Boston: Lee & Shepard. 1878.)—The latter half of the nineteenth century, besides many other interesting peculiarities which distinguish it from other half centuries, is remarkable for the number and variety of persons whom it has produced ready to go through any amount of arduous labor, privation, and discipline in order to perform feats requiring extraordinary endurance or skill. It is an age more prolific in men who can walk a thousand miles in a thousand hours; ride three hundred and five miles in fifteen hours, with fifty horses only; break nine hundred and eighty-seven glass balls out of a possible thousand at fifty paces; waltz eighteen hours without stopping, or perform other apparently impossible and useless feats, than any of the preceding ages. We may see the germs, perhaps, of this remarkable development in the first fifty years of the century; but the immaturity of that period could not be better shown than by the great *éclat* won by Byron in swimming the Hellespont—a performance now considered by gentlemen who devote themselves to swimming little more remarkable than wading across a trout stream. Swimming the English Channel is the least nowadays that a man can do to be talked about; and it seems hardly beyond belief that by the process of natural selection which is always going on in these matters, swimmers may, before long, make their appearance who will be able to get across the Mediterranean, if not the Atlantic, eating, drinking, and sleeping by the way. It was announced the other day that a prominent "walkist" had made an agreement to walk, in two years, a distance equal to the circumference of the earth, and there is little reason to doubt that some one else could be found to undertake a distance equal to the diameter of the sun in a correspondingly short period. Most of the feats to which we have referred are the work of professionals, and are therefore regarded by the mass of mankind with unenvious wonder, like the performances of a circus. They have discovered that the modern means of publicity are so great that by calling one's self a "professor" and being one's own manager, a larger audience and income may be obtained than by vulgarly merging one's identity in that of a "company" or a "troupe," or joining what Barnum calls an "Academy of object-teaching." There are, however, another class of persons who are also given over to feats of the same sort, but who are simple amateurs. They do not walk, swim, ride, shoot, waltz, or row for a livelihood, but for the pleasure of the thing. Partly for what Mr. Ruskin would deem the base and degraded pleasure of enjoying the poor satisfaction of having done something that no one has ever done before, and partly from what seems to us a very laudable desire to test their own powers of endurance and skill, they undertake feats which no amateurs of previous generations have ever attempted. To the world at large it certainly seems of very little utility that a man should have pulled in a canoe from Quebec to the Gulf of Mexico. But, in the first place, the use in cases of this sort is primarily self-regarding; and to say that a feat which tests, and therefore strengthens, the courage or skill of the person who sets himself the task is useless because it is useless to other persons, is quite beside the point. Moreover, who can say how far in the long run experiments of this sort may benefit the human race, for whose interests we are all so unselfishly striving and longing? In the inscrutable dispensations of Providence collective humanity might profit even by such canoeing as this.

To the class of amateur performances of which we have been speaking the cruise of Captain and Mrs. Crapo in their whaleboat might at first sight appear to belong, but after seeing them and their boat on exhibition at Gilmore's Garden in this city we have fears lest their European trip may have been undertaken not altogether without an eye to the main chance. With regard to the voyage of the paper canoe, however, described in Mr. Bishop's volume, there can be no doubt; the trip appears to have been undertaken solely for the purpose of accomplishing a difficult feat. The trip was not, as might be imagined, made on the high seas, but almost entirely on inland waters; for, strange as it may seem to those not familiar with the American coast, there is almost a continuous line of islands, or what are islands at high water, stretching from New York to Florida, while across that peninsula to the Gulf there is a nearly continuous line of water communication. Behind these islands it is easy enough for a small, light boat like a paper canoe to find all the water that she needs. His book is the log of his voyage along this singular highway, with a good deal of description of one sort and another of the country through which his route lay. To a canoeist his log is interesting, but the rest of the book can hardly be called so. Probably no canoe-trip in the world could be selected which would be so long, pass through a country so devoid of interest, and expose the voyager to so much peril of the least romantic kind—from snakes and malaria. Regarded as a feat, the trip may be considered a great success. We have little doubt that Mr. Bishop will remain during life the only canoeist who has ever accomplished it. It appears from the book that it is only one of a number of "geographical journeys" made by this energetic voyager.

One interesting piece of information the author gives with regard to the timber-thieves of the South, whom Congress has recently intervened to protect. It appears that in a certain region in Florida one of the most prominent of the citizens was a stalwart timber-thief, who "operated" on a large scale, and grew so rich that he gained the respect and esteem of all his friends and neighbors. His fame spread far and wide, and came to the ears of the Government, and by and by the United States sent an agent down to look into his case. The agent was surprised to find the citizen very anxious to pay the Government the due amount of "stumpage." He explained that he had mistaken the boundary line between the Government lands and his own adjoining property, and admitted that it was difficult to calculate the exact number of acres over which his depredations had extended. The agent thought it was about a thousand, but the penitent timber-thief assured him that that was too little, and finally forced the agent, who was astonished at such evidences of good faith, to take payment for four or five thousand acres. The agent went back to Washington, and the eminent citizen went on with his depredations. Seeing that he had not ceased to cut timber, his neighbors gathered about him and enquired the reason. He thereupon explained to them that he had only before cut one thousand acres, but that he held a receipt from the Government for five thousand, at a very low price, and since no power under heaven could now stop him, he proposed to cut the remaining four thousand.

A Manual of the Anatomy of Invertebrated Animals. By Thomas H. Huxley, LL.D., F.R.S. (New York: D. Appleton & Co. 1878.)—For some time it has been impossible to recommend without a sense of guilt any English book as giving a compendious account of the invertebrate animals. Gegenbaur's 'Elements of Comparative Anatomy' had not been rendered into English, though there was a good French translation

of the edition of 1870 by Carl Vogt. It has been a time when it was especially hard to write a text-book. Morphological knowledge has been advancing very fast during the last twenty years under the influence of the views of development which diffused themselves so rapidly on the appearance of Mr. Darwin's 'Origin of Species' in 1859. This advance has been due, naturally, to the direct logical outcome of these views in remoulding the form in which facts already ascertained were to be preserved and presented, in changing the estimates of the comparative value of facts, and in giving rise to general philosophical views on biological questions of all sorts, but also and especially it has been due to the happier direction which was thus given to observation, to the greater activity thus aroused among biologists of all kinds, and to the great accessions of students which it brought into their ranks. The *result* of the rapid growth has been that while the need of new text-books was much increased it was necessary to the success of such a text-book that it should be brought up to the times from an acquaintance with a vast amount of periodical zoölogical literature, and that the reputation of the author should be such as to give it a sale and make it pay for itself before it became antiquated.

This book of Huxley's leaves little now to be desired. It is not at all inferior to the similar work of Gegenbaur. It begins with a general presentation of the more important views of life and living things, and this, like the rest of the book, is marked by a wise caution. Among the more important features we note with pleasure the adoption of the Metazoa as a natural group. The pile of taxonomical refuse known as Vermes is broken up and distributed, though the exact form of the distribution needs confirmation, for this is one of the most difficult problems in general zoölogical classification. Balanoglossus, the Tunicates, and the Vertebrates are united into one group as Pharyngopneusta. At least it is fairly to be inferred from what is said in the text that the Vertebrates are to be included, though the statement is not directly made, apparently for the reason that the work is upon the Invertebrates alone. The Polyzoa, Brachiopoda, and Mollusca are placed under the head of Malacozoa. These are things on which we are glad to have the sanction of Prof. Huxley's authority. The duress of the Cuvierian four sub-kingdoms is almost a thing of the past.

Of course the book is one of detail, and there is nothing left but to congratulate ourselves on the timely appearance of this new contribution of Prof. Huxley's to the diffusion of knowledge, and so to its advancement.

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, MAY 30, 1878.

The Week.

IN spite of the assurance which several Republican organs have given us that the Democratic investigation "leads logically to revolution," and that "revolution" will lead to fighting, one side under Grant, Sherman, and Sheridan, and the other side under Tom, Dick, and Harry, we see no sign of preparation for this appalling struggle, which, according to one authority, is to rage in every State, town, and school district in the country. Business continues on the whole to improve, the price of stocks is steady, and we have heard of no one removing his helpless family to a place of safety. This apathy under the circumstances is very strange. As the conflict must come, however, sooner or later—that is, probably, about the time the last Florida or Louisiana scoundrel has "confessed" to the committee—we would make one suggestion for the consideration of thoughtful patriots, and that is that the people of the same town or school district should arrange to do their own fighting, so as to prevent the irruption of irresponsible outsiders. By a little judicious arrangement, for instance, they might fight on rainy days and at leisure moments, so as to prevent its interfering with the summer's farm-work, or causing any bloodshed or destruction of property. How much fighting will be needed to "save society" from the Democrats we do not know, but should think three months of active, even if harmless, warfare ought to make this country all it ought to be, and satisfy even Chandler and Blaine.

The insincerity which characterizes much of the proceedings connected with the Democratic investigation was brought out strikingly in the action of both parties on the Carter Harrison resolution on Wednesday week. Mr. Harrison, in order to meet the popular disapproval of any assault on the President's title, introduced a resolution providing that the Potter Committee should investigate the alleged frauds in Oregon and South Carolina if the majority thought proper, and declaring that the title of the present incumbents to the offices of President and Vice-President was definitively and indefeasibly settled by the last Congress. The question being put whether the resolution was a question of privilege, the Democrats were, in accordance with their precedent on the Potter resolution, bound to vote in the affirmative, which, had the resolution been ultimately adopted, would have committed them to nothing but the confirmation of the President's title. But only sixty-one Democrats, including all the members of the Potter Committee except one, voted in favor of the resolution, to fifty-one against it. Inasmuch as the Republicans maintain that the designs of the Democrats are "revolutionary," and that what they are really aiming at is the expulsion of Mr. Hayes from office, by here joining the majority of the Democrats they might have placed on record a solemn confirmation of his title by a vote of the majority of the House. Instead of this, however, they resolved, after consultation, to abstain from voting, and the resolution was lost for want of a quorum. Ten Republicans, however, voted for it.

There is nothing definite as to the programme of the Investigating Committee, though all sorts of stories are afloat about it. It will have to map out its work carefully if it is to have any dish worth serving before Congress adjourns. One "important witness," who appears to be a dreadful scamp, has turned up in the person of one Anderson, the supervisor of registration in the parish of East Feliciana, who proposes to reveal the story of Republicans keeping their voters away from the polls, and then cooking up affidavits of intimidation. He is going to tell all he knows and "bring Mr. Sherman down off his high horse." Another rascal of the same stamp is one Pyles, a former clerk of the Louisiana Returning Board, who was afterwards rewarded with an office, but, losing it in some way, proposes to make revelations also. We presume others of the same kind will turn up. It would not be surprising if even the well born Madison Wells had a change of heart and made a clean breast of it.

Mr. Clarkson Potter has written a letter to a friend defending and explaining his action in the investigation matter. After denying that Mr. Alexander H. Stephens was "howled down" in his attempt to oppose the resolution, he goes on to show that as everything done by the committee, or in consequence of the committee's report, will be legally done there will be no disturbance or "Mexicanization." He then gives a historical sketch, tinged with bitterness, of the formation of the Electoral Commission, the decision of which he acknowledges to be binding; declares that if Congress does anything more than enquire it will be because the country will require it to do more; pronounces the object of the enquiry to be "to ascertain facts, so that if frauds be established a repetition of such frauds may be prevented, and if not, to clear up the belief through the country that there were such frauds." Thus far all is pretty plain sailing, but when he comes to answer the question why the Republican feeling that the Democratic bulldozing had been as effective as the Republican cheating does not also need to be satisfied by investigation, he maintains that it makes a great deal of difference whose ox is gored, for, says he, "the Republicans ought to understand that the condition of things by which the negroes were prevented from voting was fraudulently prepared by the Republicans." But why should the Democratic assertion about bulldozing be accepted any more than the Republican assertion about cheating? The same observation may, *mutatis mutandis*, be made on his allegation that the army was allowed to interfere with the elections.

Mr. Stephens has replied to Mr. Potter in a warm and telling letter, which will undoubtedly have considerable effect on the public mind, showing that the Potter resolution took him completely by surprise; that he wrote to Mr. Potter and Mr. Candler protesting against the attempt to make the enquiry one-sided, and against the opposition to Mr. Hale's motion to make it general; ridicules Mr. Potter's theory that the Hale resolution was not "germane," as if all electoral frauds committed or attempted at the same election were not germane; and winds up with a strong protest against the whole enterprise, as likely "to disturb the peace, quiet, and harmony of the country," and "to end either in a contemptible farce or a horrible tragedy." There are no materials whatever for a tragedy in it, but the farce is very probable.

That the Potter move continues to make some impression at the White House is shown by the publication of a sort of proclamation to the people of the South by Mr. Key, the Postmaster-General, which assumes it as proved that if the Democrats have a majority in both Houses of the next Congress "they intend to oust Mr. Hayes and inaugurate Mr. Tilden." But he maintains, as the question of title was irrevocably settled by the last Congress, the next one would have no more right to oust Mr. Hayes than Mr. Hayes to send a file of soldiers to unseat a Democrat whom he did not consider lawfully elected. The leaders in this enterprise, he says, rely on the "solid South" to help them to carry it out; but he asks the South, which the Northern Democrats have so often betrayed, whether it can afford to participate in any such scheme, and warns it to send up men to the next Congress who will "prevent the Mexicanization of our institutions," and show that the confidence which Mr. Hayes won by his withdrawal of the troops has not been withdrawn. The usual rumors are afloat that Mr. Hayes

is so frightened by the aspect of affairs that he has sent for the Republican leaders, and bid them take as many offices as they please, if they will only stand by him in defence of his own, and that he will soon dismiss the odious Schurz and the renegade Key, and put "stalwart" men in their places—all of which is, we believe, as true as usual. The fall canvass in the meantime promises to be a lively one, one side being bent on "revolution" and the other on the concealment of fraud, with civil war in the background, and a judicious mixture, Mr. Thurlow Weed says, of Communistic riots of a horrid character. Gail Hamilton will have a high command, and Mr. Blaine will probably "straddle" the whole field before the summer is over, one leg cased in embroidered breeches, with a big silver spur, and the other in plain black "pants," with a prunella boot. Probably the funniest figure in the struggle will be Mr. Tilden, when they are inaugurating him by force as a Mexican pretender.

The Senate has passed, by a vote of forty-one to eighteen, the bill prohibiting the further withdrawal of the greenbacks, and directing the Treasury to reissue them. Mr. Bayard made a vain attempt to have them deprived of their legal-tender character except in payment of Government dues, and Mr. Morrill solemnly warned the Senate of the gravity of the step it was taking, but nothing had any effect. The bill was passed exactly as it came from the House, being, it is understood, a kind of compromise between the contractionists and anti-contractionists, which, as affording Mr. Blaine a chance to "straddle" another important question, secured his vote for it also. The gravity of the measure it is almost impossible to overestimate. No piece of legislation since the first issue of the greenbacks has approached it in importance. That issue it was which planted in America the crazy notions about the province of government which have finally ripened into the lawless Communism which is now alarming the country. This second issue—for it is a second issue—makes the provision of paper money a permanent duty of the Government, and gives the Government the right to fix the volume of the currency; and we now venture to predict that the proper amount of this currency will hereafter be an issue in every political canvass, and that the honest, intelligent portion of the community will have to fight hard every year, to their enormous loss and detriment, to prevent the disorganization of industry and trade by violent and sudden changes in the value of all existing contracts; and under the incentive which the control of Congress over the matter will furnish to demagogues we shall feel the effects of our huge ignorant vote in ways few people now dream of.

The Senate has confirmed Packard's nomination as Consul at Liverpool, and he goes abroad with a certificate of character from both parties. It has also passed a bill to add another judge to the Second Judicial Circuit (which includes this State, Vermont, and Connecticut), and will doubtless give the same relief to the Illinois district, in spite of opposition from some of the Democrats, who prefer to wait till 1881 for a Democratic Executive. The House has been mostly engaged in mangling Mr. Hewitt's Army Appropriation Bill. As it emerged from Committee of the Whole it was unrecognizable by its author, and his maximum of 20,000 had been put back to 25,000. But on Monday that important action was, unhappily, reversed, owing to absences on the Republican side, and reconsideration was prevented by a very gross piece of impertinence and discourtesy on the part of the Speaker. Mr. Garfield, foreseeing the result, changed his vote that he might have the parliamentary right to move a reconsideration. On attempting to do so, however, Mr. Randall refused to recognize him, and recognized Mr. Hewitt instead, excusing himself, when called to account for this behavior, on the ground that Mr. Garfield's last vote was "insincere." But Mr. Randall has more than once, during this session, shown the bad influence of his ambition on the discharge of his duty to the House and to the country. Mr. Knott succeeded in getting adopted a mischievous amendment prohibiting, under penalties of fine and imprisonment, the employment of any part of the army as a posse comitatus or otherwise under the pretext, or for the purpose, of executing the laws, except in such cases and under such circumstances as such employment of troops may be authorized by Congress. The illicit distillers, the Mexican border marauders, and the July rioters will be much obliged for this favor. By another amendment, conceived in hostility to Mr. Schurz's administration, the Indian Bureau is transferred to the War Department. The bill in this shape was passed by a vote of 130 to 115 on Tuesday.

The Pennsylvania Democratic Convention met in Philadelphia on Wednesday, the 22d, and owed its chief interest to the struggle to control it of the partisans of Senator Wallace and Speaker Randall, respectively. There was a good deal of disorder at the beginning of the session, and much virtuous indignation, rowdily vented, over the attempt of the Wallace ring to "fix things" to suit themselves. In the end, as usual, the ring prevailed in all essential particulars, and the Speaker returned to his place in Congress with the uncomfortable feeling of having been outgeneralled. According to the resolutions, the Pennsylvania Democrat holds that the Republican party is responsible for all the present financial and industrial distress; that the greenbacks should be reissued as fast as received, and circulate at par with gold and silver; that commerce and manufactures should be encouraged by a protective tariff; that the public lands should be kept for settlers; that the public debt should be held at home; and that the electoral frauds ought to be investigated, but the President's title not disturbed, since any attack upon it would be "dangerous to our institutions and fruitless in its results." Except the perfunctory abuse of the Republican party and qualified approval of the Potter investigation, there is nothing in this platform to distinguish it from the one adopted by the Republicans the week before; for the currency plank above quoted is what the Republicans would in all probability have put forward as their own if they had not thought it more politic to say nothing about the matter. The great State of Pennsylvania, therefore, has no explanation to give of the existence of two distinct political organizations whose views of permanent public policy are as like as two peas.

What first distinguishes the Vermont Republican Convention's resolutions is their extreme brevity, seeing that they are but four in number, and the longest not a dozen lines in length. They cover but three points: (1) the President's motives and the general course of his administration, which are heartily approved and declared not to justify division in the Republican ranks; (2) the Potter investigation, which is pronounced "unfair, uncalled-for, and revolutionary"; and (3) the condition of the Southern mind, which is deplored so far as it is opposed to the bestowal of equal rights and privileges on all citizens, and "cordially recognized" so far as it stands firm for the Union and the perpetuity of good government. This would seem an extraordinary manifesto in any State which was not, like Vermont, overwhelmingly in the hands of the party making it. It teaches nothing, does not look ahead and forestall coming issues, nor take advanced ground or even positive ground with a view to shaping the conduct of the party.

The sales of United States 4½ per cent. bonds by the Syndicate to the investing public were concluded early in the week, many of the bonds having been sold ahead. At the close of the week, however, the Syndicate had not taken the last $15,000,000 from the Treasury, so that the negotiation as between the Treasury and the Syndicate is yet formally unclosed. The reason why the last instalment has not been taken is on account of the gold market, which neither party wishes to disturb more than is absolutely necessary. As it is, gold has become scarce in the market, and the scarcity has advanced the price to 101⅛ to 101¼. As the Treasury has the power to make gold deposits with the banks, the scarcity is regarded as a temporary matter. The closing out, so far as the buying public are concerned, of the $50,000,000 4½ per cent. bonds, has stimulated a general demand for all classes of investments. Enough

United States 4 per cents have been sold to warrant the notification of holders of $5,000,000 more 6 per cent. bonds that they will be redeemed ninety days hence. For railroad bonds and first-class dividend stocks the investment demand during the week has been unexampled, at least for many months; and even speculation at the Stock Exchange has been enlivened and strengthened. The large transfers of gold from the banks to the Treasury have not affected the money market, which has been unhealthily easy, with demand loans ruling at 2 to 3 per cent. All the foreign markets have been strong on the consent of Russia to enter a congress for the consideration of the San Stefano Treaty; and British consols have advanced to 97⅛ to 97¼, the highest price for many months. Silver in London continues depressed at 53½*d.* per ounce. In New York the bullion value of the new silver dollar at the close of the week was $0.9010; the gold value of the United States legal-tender note for one dollar, $0.9888.

One of the reasons the Silver Sages gave for the low price of silver three months ago is that the Treasury was "unfriendly" to it. The Treasury has now opened its arms to the dear metal, and held on the 30th of April nearly $17,000,000 of it in one form or another in comfortable, dry vaults; nevertheless, the ungrateful little wretch continues to sell itself for little over 53 pence per ounce, or less than it went for when the glorious Silver Bill was passed. The Secretary is adding to the amount at the rate of about $3,000,000 a month, so that we shall soon be pretty well supplied, not with the metal, which will stay in the cosey vaults, but with paper certificates, which after a while will make excellent legal tenders, being worth nearly ten per cent. less than gold or greenbacks. We pointed out to the Sages the other day, in view of this rapidly threatening state of things, the fact that neither France nor any other great Power was likely to join us in the great silver movement, and asked whether they were ready with any solution of the difficulty. The Cincinnati *Commercial* has none to offer, but observes that the mono-metallists said France was not a bi-metallic country; and yet they say now that she is going to become mono-metallic. What they said was that France, having suspended specie payments at the transition period, was neither one nor the other, but when she resumed would probably adopt the single standard, and this is how the case stands at this moment. In the meantime we are threatened with a single standard of silver, and an abundance of paper payable in silver, and the severance once more of our monetary connection with the foreign commercial world; and the maniacal authors and instigators of this mischief simply smile and change the subject.

The late Mr. A. T. Stewart began in his lifetime an enterprise which excited a good deal of interest, in the shape of a hotel in which "working-women" could have all the necessaries and many of the luxuries at a low rate. His representatives, Mrs. Stewart and Judge Hilton, finished it after his death, and offered rooms in it for six dollars a week, with the use of "elegant parlors" and a library, to such working-women as chose to go without sewing-machines, pictures, birds, beasts, and fishes in their rooms, and to see no company except in the public parlor, and go to bed promptly at eleven. It was evident from the outset that the number of working-women who could pay six dollars a week for board and lodging was small, and that the number who could pay it and would submit to the rules was smaller still, and accordingly only 50 boarders ever presented themselves, though there was accommodation for 1,000, and accordingly after a month's trial the experiment has been abandoned, and the house converted into an ordinary hotel. One of the reasons given by the proprietors, and indeed the principal one, for their failure, is that it has been discovered that women will not live in a hotel where they are cut off completely from the society of male friends. This is a most important fact, and we must say that if the hotel were burnt down to-morrow the $3,000,000 which it cost would have been well spent in finding out this striking feminine peculiarity. We would ask those who say that it is no great discovery after all, Why was it not made sooner? Woman's liking for the company of Man in her leisure hours has, in all human probability, existed now since the first recorded Olympiad, or about 750 B.C., and yet it has been, it appears, successfully concealed—so successfully that as shrewd a man as Judge Hilton opened a hotel on the assumption of its non-existence. On lighting on the great truth, however, instead of keeping it to himself and trying to make money by using it in his business, as a quack would have done, he has generously communicated it to all mankind, and turned the building into something else.

The Shuvaloff mission seems, in some way not yet fully explained, to have resulted in an arrangement for the meeting of a congress. Russia appears to have made concessions on points which were undoubtedly magnified in the San Stefano Treaty for the purpose of furnishing the basis of a compromise, such as the size of the new Bulgarian principality and the amount of the indemnity. The difficulty about the submission of the whole treaty to the congress, which was the war-horse of the British Ministry, has, it is said, been got over by Germany's agreeing to call a congress to consider the three last treaties relating to the East—those of 1856, 1871, and that of San Stefano—and see whether they need modification. If this be really the solution that has been reached, it looks as if we had been on the point of seeing one or two hundred thousand men killed for a very small matter.

The Government and the National Liberals have come to an open breach in the German Parliament over the bill for the suppression of the Socialists, introduced by the former, and the first clause of which was defeated on Saturday by an overwhelming majority, after which the measure was withdrawn. The Liberals object to the increase of police powers over the press and public meetings which the enactment of the bill would involve, and they are supported, though for different purposes, by Ultramontanes and Particularists, and malcontents of all shades. The majority against the bill was so great that it was rumored that the Government intended it to be defeated with the view of using the check as an excuse for the dissolution of Parliament, but this the Ministers have denied. They have also been accused of having winked at the Socialist movement with the view of discrediting the middle classes, among whom the bulk of the Liberal sentiment lies. All attempts to come to terms with the new Pope have thus far failed, as he refuses to recognize the Falk laws in any manner or form. His health is, however, so feeble that it is not probable he will contribute anything towards the solution of the problems left by his predecessor.

In England the labor troubles in the North furnish the most prominent topic. A vote has been taken among the operatives on the question of accepting a compromise proposed by one of the manufacturers, but it was overwhelmingly rejected, and the manufacturers did not take the trouble to consider it. The rioting is at an end, but has left behind very bitter feelings. The operatives in one town—Oldham—have agreed to the employers' proposed reduction. The death of Earl Russell, the news of which has come too late to receive more than a mention, is, so far as it has any political effect, likely to prove a help to the Liberals, as bringing once more to people's minds the wonderful changes which the party brought about in England since the death of George III., and in all of which the deceased earl bore a part more or less prominent. The repeal of the Corporation and Test Acts, of which the Nonconformists celebrated the fiftieth anniversary the other day, the Emancipation of the Catholics and the abolition of slavery, the reform of municipal government and parliamentary representation, and the repeal of the corn laws, have virtually created a new England, the great and splendid England which we see to-day; and the transformation was the work of the party of which Lord Russell, during a long life, was one of the distinguished chiefs, and which now at his death is resisting an attempt to revive the bulldog policy of the last century, and put down reason by singing songs over a glass of grog.

CONGRESS ON THE ARMY.

THE debates over the Army Bill in Congress have been interesting rather for the picture they present of Congressional feeling about the army than for any effect they are likely to have on the army itself. The attempt to reduce the force ought to, and probably will fail, for reasons of overwhelming weight. The 25,000 regulars now in the service of the Government are charged with the defence of a frontier 12,207 miles long, against 278,000 occasionally hostile Indians, to say nothing of the Mexican frontier, on the other side of which lies a barbarous and ill-governed and predatory population; and with the protection of $204,601,681 worth of Government property, not including the public buildings, archives, and collections at Washington. What is most remarkable in the debates is the eager interest of the House in a question which apparently has no interest at all, or very little, for the country at large. There is no sign anywhere of a strong public desire that the army should be diminished or even reorganized. In fact, the only strong opinion expressed about the army during the past year has been the opinion of those who were alarmed by the riots last summer, that it ought to be enlarged. On the part of the majority of the people of both parties, there is, as far as one can see, considerable, and even too great, indifference to the subject.

The hostility to the army, and the preoccupation about it, in fact, seem to be confined to the class in and out of Congress known as "politicians," and this hostility is partly instinctive and partly due to the notion that "capital" may be made out of it. Any disciplined military organization is hateful to a politician, because of the restraints it puts on individual freedom. The punctilio, the order, the close attention to details, the exact obedience, and the arbitrary exercise of power with which it has to be conducted, are the things of all in human society which he can least put up with. The military officer, too, is a most offensive person to him, and could not be made inoffensive in any way that would not destroy him as a military officer. A person who interferes with or rails at men about their clothes, their hair, or their beard, who makes them salute him when they meet him, who assumes the superiority of his own knowledge and of his own way of doing things, and who expresses his wishes in the form of commands, offends a politician in the very recesses of his being. He outrages all his notions of propriety, and contravenes all his theories of proper human relations. West Point, as a place in which young men are taught, at the public expense, to exercise arbitrary authority and to think they know certain things better than other people, has also always tried him sorely, and he only submits to its existence under the overwhelming pressure of public opinion. This instinctive dislike may, indeed, be said to cover the whole instructed and specialist class, such as professors and scientific men, when they venture out of their libraries and utter judgments or attempt to exert influence on public questions. The pretensions of the whole body of them are to him monstrous and intolerable; but it is only those who are paid by the Government, and whom therefore he can get at, that thus rouse his fury. For the others he satisfies himself by expressing a mild contempt, like that uttered by Mr. Angus Cameron, of Wisconsin, the other day, for Mr. Emerson and Mr. Longfellow, because they were not able of themselves to prevent their works from being pirated, which he looked on as a sign of imbecility.

The belief that "capital" may be made by denouncing the army is due to a combination of circumstances which are probably only temporary in their operation. The use of the army in the South for so many years after the war, in work which practically amounted to aiding in keeping the Republican party in power, would, it was easy to see, be certain to make it an object of attack to the Democrats whenever they got a majority in Congress; nothing but Mr. Hayes's prompt withdrawal of the troops from the Southern States has prevented the recent onslaught from being fiercer and much more successful than it has been. The use made of it in suppressing the riot, and the demand made for its services as a protection against riots hereafter, have revived and given a new and more plausible form to the hostility to it bred by the Southern question. From the theory which has been extensively preached—that the distress now prevalent among the laboring classes is due to the fraud and treachery of capitalists, and, indeed, to the greed of all owners of property—the deduction is easy that the exercise of some sort of physical pressure on capitalists in order to make them satisfy the demands of labor is allowable. Indeed, once a strike ceases to be a simple difference of opinion about the price of a commodity, it becomes an attempt to assert a right, the loss of which means the loss of a man's subsistence and of that of his family, and in defence of which any excesses are excusable. Accordingly, we find several Congressional orators virtually treating pillage and arson as legitimate incidents of a strike, and the use of the army to prevent them as an outrageous interference with the poor man's legitimate means of self-protection; and all their arguments against the use of the army to prevent them, would apply with equal force to the use of the militia or the police. The chief argument was indeed very simple, viz., that under a popular government, where every man has access to the ballot, criminal riots—that is, riots attended with wanton or unjustifiable damage to person or property, *cannot* occur—these things being confined exclusively to monarchies and aristocracies. You may say that, whatever the theory may be, the fact is they have occurred; but to this the reply is that what you took for a riot, and what seemed to you wanton damage to person and property, was really a rough mode of adjusting the rate of wages. In other words, if the theory that riots do not occur under a democratic government does not fit the facts, so much the worse for the facts.

Mr. Hewitt pushed this mode of reasoning a little further. He said that there is now no Communism in this country, but if you have a large standing army it will produce Communism. Look at France, he said. There had been Communism there, and there was a standing army of 450,000 men at the same time; therefore it was the army that produced the Communism; for as soon as the Republic was established, and every man got the ballot, it left France and went to Germany, where it is now raging. Mr. Hewitt did not mention the fact that the French workingman has had the ballot since 1851, nor did he allude to the little circumstance that Germany has had large standing armies for half a century, or the other little circumstance that Communism in migrating from France to Germany went from one country of universal suffrage to another. Now, when a man of Mr. Hewitt's power argues in this way what can we expect from ranters like Mr. Kimmel, who began a gigantic ratiocinative attack on standing armies by quoting Tacitus, and worked his way down through the Middle Ages to our own time, covered with foam and dust, and knocking the mercenary soldier "higher than a kite" at every step. The great objection to the army seemed to be that it was "standing" and that the soldier obeyed his officers blindly; but these objections only seemed to apply to an army of 25,000 men or upwards. An army of 20,000 or 10,000 would not, it would appear, constitute a danger to our liberties or bring Communism among us; so that the danger lies not so much in the character as in the size of the force, and so delicate is the relation between the dimensions of the army and the security of our liberty that an increase or diminution to the extent of 5,000 men would turn the scale. All the debates, in so far as they ran not on the economy but on the expediency of having any army at all, were purely debating-club exercises.

The question of maintaining a standing army in this country is simply a business question. We have only to ask ourselves whether this or occasional levies of militia is the more efficient and cheaper method of doing certain administrative work. The old dread of a standing army took its rise in the fact that it was raised without the people's consent, and commanded by persons over whom they had no control, and was so large that it could strike fatal blows before the means of resisting it could be organized. None

of these objections would apply to an army of 50,000 or even 200,000 here, just as they do not apply to an army of 150,000 in England. All modern police is a standing army, and has to be, because the police of modern society is a work of great delicacy and magnitude, and whether the policeman shall be armed with a club and revolver or a rifle and bayonet, is a question of detail. So, also, whether the national police shall consist of a constantly organized force of hired men, or a force of citizens called away every now and then from their affairs, like the sheriff's posse, and shall number 10,000 or 50,000, are questions of detail. The assertion that under our Government there is a great principle involved in them, and that American institutions would be put in peril if 50,000 men were scattered in garrisons over the whole continent, is a striking illustration of the soundness of the growing opinion that we have too much Congress, and that the necessity which members find of filling up the time with some kind of noise disorders their sense of proportion, and smothers the plain practical sense which most of them bring from home.

THE FRAUD INVESTIGATION.

MR. CLARKSON POTTER has written a letter in explanation of the Democratic programme in making the investigation, which will probably furnish many good Republicans with food for reflection. He shows that the great objection to the adoption of the Hale resolution making the enquiry general was that it would have so retarded the process that no report could be made before the present Congress adjourned—a statement which we think sufficiently confirms our suggestion last week, that the great object of the investigation is the provision of "capital" for the fall canvass. If the ousting of Mr. Hayes was in contemplation it would make no difference whether the report was made to this Congress or not. It would be just as effective, and in fact more so, if made to the next Congress. But, indeed, Mr. Potter expressly repudiates the idea that it is an attack on Mr. Hayes's title. He acknowledges that the Commission gave him a good title, as long as it is not impugned by some legal remedy, and whether there exists any legal remedy he does not say; but in all this he does not go beyond the terms of the act creating the Commission, for this expressly reserved any right of appeal to the courts which either candidate might possess. So that in form there is certainly nothing "revolutionary" in the proceeding. It is perfectly constitutional for the majority of the House to enquire whether frauds were committed in any State at a Presidential election; the majority of the Republican House entered on such an enquiry in 1868. It will be perfectly constitutional, too, for anybody who thinks the investigation furnishes proof of fraud to make an attempt to assail Mr. Hayes's title before a court of law, and it will rest with the judges to pass on his motion. There will, in short, at no stage of the programme as now traced out be any room for fighting, or for the intervention of a "savior of society," either in the person of General Grant or anybody else. But it will rest with the people at the polls in the coming election to say whether they approve of these performances of Mr. Potter and his friends or not. If they do not—and we feel sure they do not—Mr. Potter and his friends will have to let the President and his title alone, and will suffer for their attack on it; if they do approve of it, it is not the investigation which will be revolutionary, but an attempt to resist it.

Mr. Potter's account of the way in which the Democrats lost the election is instructive and in parts amusing. It contains many assumptions which one might readily upset, but when he says that the sum and substance of it was that "the Democrats held the cards and the Republicans bluffed them," he describes somewhat neatly the whole affair. During the count two sets of exceedingly able and by no means scrupulous managers were pitted against each other, the Republicans possessing, however, the advantage of having the electoral machinery of the disputed States in the hands of their own friends and having the Administration on their side. Consequently the attempts of the Democrats to meet fraud with fraud by purchasing their one needed vote in Oregon were clumsy and unfortunate, and it was characteristic and comic that when both parties began to enquire into each other's operations after Congress met, Chandler and Tilden were heartily glad to drop the whole matter by common consent. Where Chandler was mistaken was in supposing that Tilden would dismiss the electoral contest from his mind and prepare to pass the evening of his days in a private station. The fact was that Tilden probably began on the very day he retired from the struggle with Hayes to seek for compensation in the struggle of 1880. He has achieved a certain success thus far, owing to an unlooked-for combination of circumstances. That the Republican managers were able to play their game without losing their hold on the conscience of the better element of their own party at the North was due to the ease with which, owing to the Ku-klux traditions of the South, they persuaded the people that the Southern Republican canvassers—the Wellses, Andersons, McLins, Dennises, and the like—were ardent patriots and philanthropists who were risking their lives in defence of the Union and the negroes. The failure of the Administration to satisfy these men—a failure due largely to its very goodness—has set them to "confessing" their own frauds, thus furnishing the Democrats both with an incentive and an excuse for investigating. Since we last wrote on this subject another of them, Anderson, the Supervisor of Registration in East Feliciana, who appears to be a consummate scoundrel, has been avowing knowledge of prodigious frauds at the last election. Probably he lies, like McLin and Dennis, but the effect of the revelation that it was rascals of this sort who did the figuring for the returns to which Mr. Hayes owed his election, is not pleasant.

Even these disclosures, however, disagreeable and shameful as they are, would probably have produced little effect if Mr. Hayes had retained his hold on the Republican party. That this would be a difficult task was plain from the outset, because both his nomination and the platform on which he was nominated were an open repudiation of the influences which had dominated in the party management under General Grant. To the enemies thus arrayed against him in the beginning others were added by his Southern policy, which of course those who fought Tilden on the "bloody shirt" issue could hardly swallow, and which roused the whole carpet-bag interest into fury. There was only one way of meeting this, and that was a thoroughgoing appeal to the sympathies and judgment of the reform element in the party; but this he failed to make, by a series of omissions and mistakes which it is now needless to recall. It is not surprising, therefore, under these circumstances, that a large proportion of the Republicans who are openly opposing the investigation at Washington are secretly hoping for its success, and would not be sorry if it did end in dispossessing Mr. Hayes. This is so notorious now that it is not any longer denied, and it sheds a curious light on the shouts of "new rebellion" and "revolution"! In the meantime, the appropriation bills are not passed; some Government employés are living, like those of Spain, on discounted certificates; the country is kept in a state of disquietude, and the mind of the riotous element in the population is turned away from honest industry by attacks on the army, and by continued attempts at inflation. That there will be any improvement in the situation as long as the honest and patriotic men of both parties refuse to seek salvation in any other way than through the existing party organizations, we see no prospect. The best Republicans are to this hour wasting their virtue and wrenching their consciences in trying to believe that the two Chandlers and the "visiting statesmen" were engaged in pious missionary work in Florida and Louisiana; and the best Democrats are trying manfully to persuade themselves that "inoperative frauds" do not count, and that they can save their own souls by showing that some one else is an awful sinner. If we go on as we are now, each candidate at the election of 1880 will be run on the other's badness—a phenomenon which we came very near witnessing in 1876. The plan of campaign which both parties have traced for the present year points strongly in that direction.

THE UNEMPLOYED RICH.

THERE is probably no condition of English social life stronger than that which associates gentility with idleness, or, at all events, with the absence of any fixed duties. We remember reading some years ago in an English manual of etiquette, intended for persons in good society, a solemn warning against walking fast in the street, on the ground that it would lead people to take you for a "business man"—that is, for a man with work to do or engagements to keep. It is not very long, too, since a witness in an English court turned savagely on the counsel who was examining him because he asked him "what his business was," telling him "he had no business, that he was a gentleman." It goes hard with a boy at the more aristocratic English public schools to acknowledge that his father does anything to make money, as hard as it went once with an American boy whom we knew to confess to his fellows that his father did nothing. In a "symposium" which appeared in the *Nineteenth Century* the other day on the comparative value of the opinions of the upper classes and the working classes respectively, one of the contributors pointed out that the upper classes were not likely to have sound political opinions because they did nothing to qualify themselves to form any, being engaged mainly in "amusing themselves and each other"—or, in other words, having no serious occupation. And there is no question that the class whose members devote themselves to amusing themselves and each other is now very large in England and grows larger. The vast mass of accumulated wealth which the country owns enables a very large body of persons to live on the interest of the money without care or anxiety or exertion, and to pass their days in inventing pleasures and enjoying them and getting other persons similarly situated to share them. They amuse themselves in the city with society, in the country with field sports, abroad with travel from place to place. The men are thoroughly acquainted with the things which make for amusement—horses, dogs, sporting firearms, the habits and habitat of game, yachts and yachting, the rules of betting, the conditions of good eating, the peculiarities of good wine, the history and characteristics of the most prominent persons and families in the world of pleasure. The women, too, are becoming, more and more, pale reflections of the men. They share in their sports so far as they can, and when they cannot do so they watch the men at theirs as the next best thing, so that a rather brusque and plainspoken *camaraderie* has, it is said, taken the place in the relations of the sexes of the old deference and assumption of women's mingled helplessness and ignorance.

The class is, however, strange as it may seem, of comparatively recent growth. Down to the beginning of the present century in England the wealthy class was essentially an officeholding and, therefore, a working class. It was almost altogether a land-holding class. The head of it was a landed proprietor with duties which kept him pretty steadily occupied. He had the administration of his estates on his hands; he was a magistrate; he was a member of either of the Houses of Parliament, or, in other words, had regular duties which made his amusements seem legitimate relaxation. The younger male members entered the army or navy, or the church, or went to the bar, or to the Colonies in some official position. So that the work of government may fairly be said to have been done by the upper class, which very nearly resembled in this respect the Prussian aristocracy of to-day.

But since the beginning of this century the growth of commerce and manufactures has created an immense body of wealth, and thrown it into the hands of persons who literally can find nothing to do. The work of politics has, since the passage of the Reform Bill, been in a considerable degree taken away from the aristocracy properly so-called, and the offices in the civil and military service and in India have been thrown open to general competition, and offer a career within the reach of any competent person, whether he has "connections" or not. The makers of great fortunes in trade bequeath them to young people who "go in" for yachting, hunting, coaching, pigeon-shooting, and make these things the business of their lives. The boys look forward to being masters of hounds as their highest ambition, and the girls to marrying masters of hounds and having all the other good things which go with this position. The growth of this class has been stimulated in England by the facility with which matrimonial alliances are contracted between blood and money, a facility which does not exist in Germany; and in France the law of distribution makes the transmission of great fortunes even to one generation difficult. Moreover, the rich French, not being fond of out-door amusements, attract much less attention than the rich English. They do not hunt, or yacht, or coach, or shoot pigeons to any great extent. They prefer the indoor luxuries—good cookery, rich furniture, bric-à-brac, and household ornaments. They take their exercise, when they take any exercise, in a salle d'armes, and are more expert with the small sword than with any other weapon. Their horsemanship is essentially the horsemanship of parade, and needs a promenade and plenty of spectators to be really enjoyed. The "chasse" in France is in reality a promenade, and owes much of its pleasure to the costumes. So that it cannot be said that the pleasures of the rich in that country are conspicuous, and they are mostly confined to the capital. In the United States, in two or three of the great cities, there has been within the last twenty years a perceptible beginning of the growth of a wealthy class of much the same kind as that in England, and owing to very similar causes—the transmission of great fortunes to men who can find outside of the business of money-making no attractive field for their energies. They are shut out by a variety of causes from a share in the work of government, and they take to amusement, and find that amusement, as pursued nowadays, is really a business needing considerable capital and some power of organization, and fully capable of filling up the time. The growth of this class has attracted but little attention here, because its members are apt to spend a great deal of their time in Europe, where the materials for their pursuits exist in greater plenty, and they have more congenial society. But they have become in all countries a sufficiently conspicuous phenomenon to form an element in the "labor problem" by stimulating the delusions about capital and capitalists which form the basis both of theoretical communism and of simple working-class discontent.

After one has exploded all the fallacies with which the socialist's head is filled about the functions of the capitalist, and has shown the important part he plays in finding work for labor to do, one is met more and more by the question, What is the use of the rich who do nothing but amuse themselves, who serve the community in no way whatever; who neither fight, nor administer, nor teach, nor produce, nor do anything but draw on the products of the general labor, and make ducks and drakes of it—that is, spend it in gratifying the whims, caprices, and longings of men and women who make self-indulgence the main object of their lives; or, in other words, practise none of the virtues which we preach to the workingman, and are exposed to but few of his temptations? They unquestionably constitute the weak point in the régime of liberty, and are on that account worth serious study. The philanthropists have long tried to deal with them by exhortations to "do good" and "live for others," but it cannot be said that this mode of solving the problem has met or is likely to meet with any great success. In the first place, a rush of the unemployed rich into charitable work would be anything but a public blessing; in fact, there is no reason to suppose that any more good would come of it, or any less evil, than came of the almsgiving of the mediæval monasteries. Philanthropy needs in our day, in order not to be mischievous, to have a good deal of the hard and cold and incredulous counting-house spirit infused into it, and needs, like commerce, to get the worth of its money—that is, it is well settled that it is mischievous to be charitable to anybody who will make no return in the shape of efforts of his own to improve his own condition; and to secure this needs the system, and the persistence, which the merchant puts into the business of buying and selling. So, also, the conduct of a charitable institution does not differ essentially from the conduct of a mercantile institution. It needs the same prudence, method, and attention to details, and it is, therefore, not in the least surprising that nearly all the charitable work of the world is done by serious people who have plenty of work of their own besides. The fact furnishes a ready explanation, too, of the oft-repeated paradox, that it is the busy who usually have time to attend to other concerns than their own. Asking men of pleasure, therefore, to charge themselves with the care of the unfortunate of the world is much like asking them to go into business—or, in other words, to do violence to all their tastes and to form totally new habits. Now and then these appeals are successful, but for the most part the idle rich prefer to relieve distress with a bank-check to relieving it in any other way, and the very same causes which prevent their opening a store prevent their taking charge of a hospital or almshouse. It has to be taken into account that, as a general rule, the habit of work has to be acquired in working for some loved and desired result. The men who render the best unpaid service to the public are men who have been broken to harness in laboring for the rewards by which human nature is most influenced—wealth, or fame, or power; and a man who has never tasted the sweets of this kind of toil does not take readily to toil which holds out no promise of them whatever.

The place in which men of fortune and leisure could be most readily

turned to account is the public service, if the public service brought, as it does in some countries, social consideration ; for its pecuniary returns could not tempt them. In the absence of this, the spectacle of their idleness must be treated as one of the severer tests of the régime of freedom. The busy people must put up with them, for the simple reason —which ought to be explained to every child in school—that there is no legal way of getting rid of them which would not do untold harm for the smallest perceptible good. We should have to begin by meddling with every hard-working man's disposal of the fruits of his toil or sagacity. We should have to insist either that it should never exceed a certain amount, or that he should spend it all in his lifetime, or that he should have no testamentary power over it after his death. Any country which undertook this would either ensure the emigration of its most enterprising men or the transfer of the bulk of its floating capital to places where people were allowed to do as they pleased with their money, or would take away from the energetic and thrifty the most powerful incentive to industry and self-restraint. But even if it succeeded in getting the money-making class to submit to the new regulations, it would have to provide a board of censors to check people's misuse of their funds, and this board, to work properly, would have to be made up of angels. No men such as the world now produces have ever been found competent to direct other people in the use they should make of their talents and opportunities, and any attempt in this direction usually ends in spoliation pure and simple. The inference that, because a man who does nothing but amuse himself is an unworthy citizen, everybody who labors is entitled to act as his spiritual director, is far from being borne out by the facts. The melancholy truth is that out of every thousand who criticise the unemployed rich there is not over one who would not imitate them if he could, or who does not labor daily through sheer necessity, and whose soul's health is not promoted by being prevented both by law and usage from interfering with them. So that probably the very wisest thing for the community to do about them is what this community does, viz., put effective legal difficulties in the way of the prolonged retention of great fortunes in a few hands, and heap honor and respect on the men who, though placed without any endeavor on their own part in possession of all that money can give, still keep alive within them in its noblest form the love of laborious days.

Correspondence.

DUTY OF THE RICH AND EDUCATED CLASSES.

To the Editor of The Nation :

Sir : Your able editorial on the "Sources of Communism" (*Nation*, May 16) omits from the enumeration, as it seems to me, one cause which deserves recognition among those brought forward by you. You speak of "that great fact of sociology—perhaps the greatest of all—that the earth, do what we will with it, will probably never afford much more than a subsistence to the great mass of mankind—that is, plain food and plain clothing. The race, by ceaseless toil and endeavor, throws some of its members up above want or anxiety about daily bread, and gives a few leisure to keep its records and add to the stores of its knowledge, but they are only a handful after all."

Now, if you are right in this statement, as I believe, this "great fact" should be best known to and understood by that "handful" who, thrown up "above want or anxiety about daily bread," have leisure to secure the education indispensable to a right comprehension of social problems. Practically, is it this "handful" which furnishes to any considerable extent those who "keep the world's records and add to the stores of its knowledge"? How many men or women who have risen to eminence in art, science, or literature have done so unencumbered by pecuniary anxiety, and unstimulated by pecuniary need? Two great writers of our time, George Eliot and George Sand, wrote in the beginning simply to make money, and their genius might have been lost to us if they had been above the pressure of want and anxiety. It would be easy to multiply instances ; in fact, the instances seem to me few and far between in which serious work has been done in any department, except statesmanship and philanthropy, by those whom fortune has placed above the need of maintaining themselves by their own exertions.

However this may be, there can be no question that the "ceaseless toil and endeavor" of the race throws up not only those whose leisure is reasonably employed in the service of society, but a class of ladies and gentlemen who claim immunity from this great law of labor which weighs so sternly and immutably upon humanity at large, and whose right to a life—not of selected occupation, but of idle and aimless luxury—is recognized by society. Another class thrown up to the surface consists of the Jay Goulds, the Vanderbilts, the Jim Fisks—the clever, successful, unscrupulous wielders of power over their fellow-men—and these, as conspicuous employers of labor, are constantly present to the imagination of the workingman, which has only a remote and shadowy conception of the more useful working members of the privileged class—the Theodore Roosevelts and others. Is not the presence of these two classes—the idle and the unscrupulous—in the front rank of society a perpetual and not unnatural source of irritation to the workingman, who feels the inequality without education and foresight to enable him to realize the difficulty of redress, the dangers of anarchy, and the importance for right social progress of that provisional maintenance of the *status quo* which we call government? And is it not the part of the educated classes to recognize this law of labor as binding upon them also, and to see to it that they render to society such service as can be most effectually rendered by men and women of education, and relieved from the immediate pressure of "want or anxiety about daily bread"?

A. P. H.

May 20, 1878.

AMERICAN WOMEN ABROAD.

To the Editor of The Nation :

Sir : In the letter of your Paris correspondent in the *Nation* of April 18, I find my countrywomen arraigned on two capital charges, from which "no amount of conscious rectitude" can avail to deliver them. The charges are : venturing abroad alone, and living in a foreign capital "with no visible means of support." The jury is composed of a class of Frenchmen "who are accustomed to draw certain inferences from certain appearances." No doubt ready material for such a jury could be found among the gentlemen of the Paris "Jockey Club," who are accustomed to observe feminine "appearances," and who would feel no scruple at proving "certain inferences" correct. Let me recall the indictment in full :

"One meets single ladies who have come to study for prima donnas or for 'general culture' with no visible means of support ; married ladies without their husbands (many American families, like their mercantile houses, having branches on this side) ; widows of the class called *vedova pericolante* in Italy, sometimes alone, sometimes with a daughter pretty, dressy, not bashful, *qui s'habille et babille ;* and young girls travelling together without chaperonage or duennage, *sans peur* and all, of course, *sans reproche ;* but no amount of conscious rectitude will get them the respect of people who are accustomed to draw certain inferences from certain appearances."

I find it hard to believe that the writer *intended* the indelicate innuendo which these closing words direct to all American ladies who travel or live in Europe without some recognized guardian or protector; but in chasing after the burlesque his pen ran a little close upon the limit which separates satire from slander. By generalizing exceptional behavior, which Americans are no less prompt than foreigners to condemn, he has cast an unworthy suspicion upon multitudes of American women in Europe ; and by endorsing the prejudiced and unscrupulous gossip of a class as the tone of society, he has given a picture of society in Paris which may well disquiet in America those who have female relatives or friends in the French capital.

No doubt, years ago, European society was scandalized by the irruption of American manners upon the Continent, and especially by the free and independent ways of American women. A society in which the tutelage of woman is a lingering remnant of old-time servility, and a surveillance of suspicion begets deception and infidelity, would naturally misconstrue the unconscious freedom of the American girl, prompted by her "conscious rectitude." But those days of misconception and prejudice are passing away. Of course there are in Europe American women whose ways are still a puzzle to society, whether foreign or American; and there are some who discredit their sex by their effrontery, and are more of a nuisance than a puzzle. For obvious reasons these will be found chiefly in Paris. But here in Germany it is well understood in the best circles that the personal independence to which the American girl is trained puts her above the suspicion of evil and protects her from insult. This habit even commands the respect of society. Such a woman comes to study music or art. She goes quietly about her business, lives decently, pays her bills punctually, and yet she has "no visible means of support." May I venture here to lift the veil? Perhaps her means are the savings of years of toil; perhaps a loan, for which she has insured her life, or which a friend has advanced upon faith in her talents ; perhaps a small purse delicately pro-

vided by a circle of friends who prefer to be unknown; perhaps she is seeking in art a refuge from domestic griefs that cannot be spoken, and a means of supporting children whose father is faithless or incompetent; perhaps she is living upon her father's purse with a worthy purpose to qualify herself for usefulness and independence; perhaps she is seeking by self-sacrifice to repair the losses of her father's fortune. But just what are her means of support is no concern of mine: my presumption should be that she is deserving of respect. If she is misjudged by "people who are accustomed to draw certain inferences from certain appearances," such are not the people whose "respect" she requires; nor is theirs a habit of mind which entitles them to her respect. I am happy to testify that in this German capital such women do "get the respect" of the best people—of those who judge "by appearances" that such industry, modesty, fidelity, talent, zeal, womanliness, indicate a lady worthy of confidence, whether her means of support be visible or invisible, from things present or things to come. And I am proud to feel that it is the honorable office of an American gentleman to do what he can to shield these countrywomen from infelicitous circumstances or adverse criticism, and to cheer and encourage them in their work.

As to young ladies who have already taken a place in society at home, why should they not travel abroad as freely as young men, whether for study, pleasure, or "general culture"? Can any one surmise or suggest a reason against this which does not imply dishonor in the objector? Certainly ladies *can* thus travel in Germany with entire safety and propriety, without "chaperonage or duennage." Nor are these so much needed in society as some imagine. Years of observation have led me to say to my countrywomen: If you aspire to "high society," the presumption is that you will never gain access to it, and you may make yourself ridiculous by the attempt. If you wish to move in really good society, you can enter this just as you would at home, and just as any foreigner must do in New York, by being well introduced and by conforming to the rules of etiquette. But if your object is not society but study and improvement, go quietly about your own affairs, live modestly and naturally, as you would at home; by and by you will discover that you are not only respected but admired; society will court you, for the best people have too much sense and experience to exact of foreigners a servile conformity to their habits and ideas, and you can afford to despise the self-convicted critics "who are accustomed to draw certain inferences from certain appearances."

J. P. T.

BERLIN, May 6, 1878

Notes.

FROM F. Gutekunst, Philadelphia, we have received a speaking likeness of the late Professor Henry, imperial size, executed in the admirable style which always distinguishes the work of this photographer. ——The American Association for the Advancement of Science will begin the sessions of its twenty-seventh meeting at St. Louis on August 21. Prof. O. C. Marsh will preside. Chancellor W. G. Eliot is Chairman, and Prof. John K. Rees Secretary, of the local Committee. Mr. F. W. Putnam, the Permanent Secretary, may be addressed at Salem till August 14. ——The Worshipful Company of Fan-Makers are to hold a competitive exhibition in the hall of one of the City Livery Companies in London some time in June. The exhibition will be divided into five classes: Ancient and Modern European Fans, Exotic Fans, Modern Fans of British Manufacture, and Miscellaneous Fans. Manufacturers, amateurs, collectors, and dealers are invited to contribute. Either sticks or mounts may be exhibited singly. Prices may be affixed and all fans will be insured during the exhibition. The prizes will consist of gold, silver, and bronze medals, bearing the arms of the Fan-Makers' Company and a suitable inscription. They will also include the freedom of the company and an engraved diploma. The Hon. Secretary is Mr. James Curtis, 12 Old Jewry Chambers, E. C.——Still another Summer School, of which the variety is now very considerable, is announced to open July 15, for five weeks, at Vineyard Grove, Martha's Vineyard. Literature, art, science, and the modern languages, and even phonography, are included in the Institute's course. Information may be obtained of Col. Homer B. Sprague, Hotel Berwick, Boston.——The European maps of Zell's 'Descriptive Hand-Atlas of the World' have been bound separately, together with their several indexes, with a flexible cover, and now form a convenient roll known as the 'Tourist's Atlas of Europe' (Philadelphia: T. Ellwood Zell, Davis & Co.) The same house are the American agents of W. H. Smith & Son's (London) War Map, showing the new boundaries in Eastern Europe and Asia in accordance with the Treaty of San Stefano. The compass of this map, from Bordeaux to the Caspian and from Moscow to Crete and Tunis, ensures its usefulness during the approaching complications whether of Congress or of war.——Mr. Lawrence B. Thomas, 54 McCulloh Street, Baltimore, sends us a curiosity of literature: 'Autograph Poems: I. The Martyrs,' consisting of eight four-line stanzas filling two pages of note-paper, and a frontispiece by no means badly drawn after S. J. Pinwell. Text and illustration are executed by the papyrograph process, and the printer has been employed only for the outer title. The binding of these three leaves and two detached covers is effected by a silk lacing through eyelets. This is only the beginning of Mr. Thomas's undertaking to be his own publisher. Typographers and librarians will do well to take notice of so alarming an example.——We have received Part 1 (for May) of the illustrated *Magazine of Art* (Cassell, Petter & Galpin). It will amuse and perhaps instruct by its pictures, but it promises little to the reader who seeks in it clear doctrine about art or valuable criticism.——Much pains have been taken with the illustrations of Dr. John Savage's 'Picturesque Ireland,' of which the first part comes to us from Thomas Kelly, of this city. A map of Ireland, an illuminated and an engraved title still further enhance the attractiveness of this well-printed work. The text seems readable.

—We have before us No. 2 of the French-English *American Correspondence*, published in this city at 4 Warren Street, and also the prospectus of the "Athenæum Bureau of Literature." The *American Correspondence* resembles the European circulars which it imitates in being printed on thin paper and in its general news summary, which has two rubrics: Washington and New York. It "is intended to present, in a practical and synthetical manner, the political, financial, and commercial interests of the United States to the attention of Europe and Central and South America; and, in the way of reciprocity, to advise Americans on questions which may be to them of immediate and paramount interest in the general affairs of other countries." The timeliness of the enterprise appears to be based on somewhat speculative considerations, as that "Foreign nations, convinced of a bright political future for America as the consequence of the tranquillity prevailing at Washington [in the White House?], are also confident in the moral and financial responsibility of the people and corporations of the land." The "Athenæum Bureau" has its "Home Office" at 233 Broadway, and is conducted by Willett J. Hyatt, Manager, and H. R. Waite, Ph.D., and Wm. C. Conant, Editorial Directors. It "aims to afford authors, not only professionals but also amateurs and beginners, a long-felt want, namely: a medium through which they may secure the market value of their productions, without incurring the expense or annoyance of becoming their own auctioneers." This is not all, however, for it undertakes to place the MSS. of amateurs and young authors "to the best advantage, irrespective of pecuniary compensation [to said amateurs]." We suspect this will be the heaviest part of the business of the Bureau. In dealing with foreign authors the Bureau expects to furnish them "the practical immunity and security of an international copyright law with the United States" in the following manner:

"A foreign author placing a copy of his MS. with the Bureau, before submitting it to his home publisher, may, upon special arrangement with the Bureau to that effect, sell the American right to publish, upon terms equally as favorable to himself as could be secured were he a citizen of this country. This secures the author's right to fix his own price upon his own work, to exact a royalty upon every copy sold in the United States, and to publish under copyright in his own country."

This has a pleasant sound, but whether such contracts are made directly (and there is nothing to hinder them now) or through the good offices of the Bureau, the "pirate" seems to remain the master of the situation.

—A class not affected by hard times is appealed to in the announcement by Smith, Elder & Co. of a sumptuous illustrated edition of Thackeray's works in twenty-four volumes, imperial 8vo. The publication will be at the rate of two volumes a month, beginning October 1, and only a thousand sets will be printed for sale. Subscriptions must be made through booksellers. All the illustrations will be printed on real China paper, and mounted either on plate-paper or with the letter-press. Quite otherwise is it with the complete edition of Tennyson's works just published by C. Kegan Paul & Co., which is confined to one volume, crown 8vo, of 700 pages, and sells for six shillings. The same publishers are about to issue 'An Inland Voyage,' by R. Louis Stevenson, the author of many acceptable tales and essays in the *Cornhill*, who here tells of canoeing in the canals and rivers of Flanders and Northern France; and they have also, says the *Academy*, brought out a new and revised

edition of General Halleck's 'International Law,' with the addition of an index, notes and cases, and the text of official documents of various countries. The following announcements we take from the last *Bookseller*: 'Carthage and the Carthaginians,' in two volumes, with maps and plans, by R. Bosworth Smith; 'Journal of a Tour in Morocco,' by Sir J. D. Hooker and John Ball; the first two volumes of a 'History of England, from the Conclusion of the Great War in 1815,' by Spencer Walpole; a translation of Moritz Thausing's 'New Life of Albert Dürer'; 'A Descriptive Catalogue of the Etching Work of Rembrandt,' by Rev. Charles Henry Middleton; lectures by the late Sir G. Gilbert Scott on 'The Rise and Development of Mediæval Architecture'; a 'History of Egypt, from the Earliest Period,' derived from monuments and inscriptions, by Dr. Brugsch, of Göttingen; and 'A Glossary of Peculiar Anglo-Indian Colloquial Words and Phrases, Etymological, Historical, and Geographical,' by Col. Henry Yule. The *Athenæum* states that the Council of the Camden Society holds out a prospect of the early publication of the General Index of the first series of the Society's publications; and that Mr. Henry Stevens has finished his catalogue of American books in the British Museum up to 1857 (only a portion, we suppose, of the total 75,000 which Mr. Stevens mentions elsewhere incidentally in the same paper). This last is an enterprise which co-operative card-cataloguing ought to make superfluous hereafter.

—Mr. Stevens gives in the *Athenæum* of May 11 a lucid account of the embarrassment caused to the International Postal Union by the attempt in this country to bring the book-post under the surveillance of the customs authorities. In the absence of any treaty the foreign sender could have no redress for this application of municipal law; but having entered into a common agreement with other nations to receive and deliver free, without further charges, the usual categories of mail matter, the issue between a treaty and a statute comes up anew for us. No doubt we must allow in the end that the principle we insisted on when demanding the extradition of Winslow holds good here, namely, that the treaty takes precedence of the statute. Mr. Stevens says, "It is historically certain that hitherto, whenever a Federal law has been found in conflict with a treaty, Congress has never yet failed to provide a remedy, in all cases leaving the treaty to stand"; and he thinks that the United States will in the present instance adhere to the Postal Union in spite of the pressure of the "republishers"—the parties most interested in keeping out of the mails books less than twenty years old. "They might be reminded," he forcibly adds, "that those mail packages are no more fraud on the revenue than their own reprints. The Government derives no customs revenue from the reprints, and it is believed that most of the books by mail would not be sent at all if the mails were closed." The book-post, moreover, is a source of profit to the Government and to the ocean carriers; and finally there is the absurdity of a Government based, as ours professes to be, on general intelligence, checking the free exchange of books on a pretext which no European government has deigned to use, although similar grounds for it exist. Meantime, packages of books are being constantly returned to England, marked "liable to duty," though the rule is very irregularly and arbitrarily enforced. We know of a case in which seventeen copies out of twenty-five of the same book, despatched in the same mail, reached their destination in this country, while the remainder were turned back as being dutiable. Even newspaper packages have been rejected.

—The timely article in *Harper's* for June is Mr. Lossing's "Battle of Monmouth Court-house," copiously illustrated; for that battle, which ought to have been a brilliant victory for the American arms and shortened the struggle with the mother country, was fought at the end of June, 1778. General Charles Lee's responsibility for the fiasco is unsparingly denounced by Mr. Lossing, but he does "not care to repeat" Washington's passionate words to his faithless subordinate on that memorably hot Sunday. There is also a seasonableness about Mr. S. G. W. Benjamin's "Along the South Shore" (*i.e.*, of Massachusetts Bay), a chapter, we believe, of a work soon to be published concerning the whole of a variously charming coast. What with Mr. Benjamin and Mr. Drake and Mr. Nordhoff and Curtis and Thoreau, and numerous magazine monographs, and the poets Longfellow and Whittier, the Atlantic seaboard from Eastport to Cape May now reckons a literature which would fill a small library if brought together, and, if fitly edited, would be a monument of enduring value. The ceramic art finds in this number a votary, Mr. Wirt Sikes, whose theme is Dutch faience, plentifully illustrated with designs. Sculpture, on the other hand, is the subject of some practical discourse (at second-hand) from Mr. J. Q. A. Ward, of whom a very spirited likeness deserves notice, if only because woodcut portraiture is so imperfectly cultivated in this country. Prof. Newcomb's "Manufactured Comet" is a singular narrative of fraud in a field where one would least expect it. The article on "Russian Literature" is well meant, but one cannot go very far in it trustingly after being told at the outset that "the groundwork of the Russian speech and character is Greek." Such spellings as Derschawin and Kostrow suggest that the writer followed a German authority; but this idea is negatived by the constant reclamations against German influence on Russia, though Catharine is praised without a hint of her nationality. This bias and the frequent use of French phrases indicate a French authority; but then we come upon the Italian orthography in Gincovschi, and our doubts begin again. We lack space to point out the writer's errors of fact and judgment, which are only too abundant.

—The proprietors of *Blackwood*, issuing a new series of tales from that periodical, in neatly-printed little shilling volumes, have opened the list with that clever little story which a few months since was the occasion of a good deal of amusement and conjecture—"The Tender Recollections of Irene Macgillicuddy"—and which has been reprinted here by the Harpers in their "Half-Hour Series." Conjecture, as we say, was lively as to the authorship of this slightly audacious *jeu d'esprit*, and at last, after indulging in a good many fanciful guesses, has attributed the thing, without contradiction, we believe, to Mr. Laurence Oliphant. It is worth noticing as an attempt, which has evidently made a hit, to portray from a foreign point of view the manners of New York. Such attempts had already, in two or three cases, been made, but the authors had not that intimate acquaintance with the subject on which telling satire needs to rest. The author of 'Irene Macgillicuddy,' on the other hand, is evidently versed to a considerable degree in the mysteries of Fifth Avenue. He might, we think, have made a good deal more skilful use of his knowledge; but it is interesting to notice what it is that has struck him as the leading characteristics of the society which chiefly congregates in that expensive quarter. The freedom and the "smartness" of the young ladies, and the part played by married men of a certain age in bringing them out, guiding their first steps in society, presiding at their début in the "German," entertaining them at evening repasts at Delmonico's—these points had been already more or less successfully touched upon. But the great feature of New York fashion, as represented in the little satire in *Blackwood*, is the eagerness and energy displayed by marriageable maidens in what is vulgarly called "hooking" a member of the English aristocracy. The desire to connect itself by matrimony with the British nobility would seem to be, in the author's eyes, the leading characteristic of the New York "great world." A corresponding desire on the part of the British aristocracy not to become so connected, appears to complete the picture. It is interesting to know how we strike the intelligent foreign observer; so much may be said, without examining the details of the picture. It has been affirmed hitherto that it is next to impossible to write novels about American society on account of the absence of "types." But it appears that there is an element in our population that has attained to the typic dignity—the class of young ladies whose chief object in life is to capture an English "swell." "Irene Macgillicuddy" is rather disappointing; it falls off sadly during the last half, and there is something rather arbitrary, rather *manqué*, as the French say, in the manner in which the author has finally disposed of his heroine. His story suggests this reflection, however, that it is possible, after all, to write tales of "American society." We are reminded that there *are* types—that there is a good deal of local color—that there is a considerable field for satire. Only, why should it be left to the cold and unsympathetic stranger to deal with these things? Why does not native talent take them up—anticipate the sneers of foreign irony, take the wind from its sails and show us, with the force of real familiarity, both the good and the evil that are to be found in Fifth Avenue and on Murray Hill? Are we then so dependent upon foreign labor that it must be left to the English to write even our "society stories"?

—Of Lord Beaconsfield's swelling phrase, the "diapason of our policy," "Jingo" remarks in *Punch* that "a music-hall metaphor is the very thing to describe a music-hall policy." In the same issue, April 27, this diapason is "described with all reserve" in a couple of stanzas borrowed without acknowledgment and altered (in disregard of all reserved rights) from Longfellow's "Arsenal at Springfield." *Punch* is doing honorable and unusual service in holding back the British Lion at this critical juncture, and any poet might be glad to be quoted by him in furtherance of

so good a cause. But it is hard to see why the old jester did not find the original as apt to his purpose as this shockingly ungrammatical parody, in which we have italicized the substitutions :

> "The tumult of *sacked town* and burning village,
> The *rush and roar that* prayer for mercy drowns,
> The soldiers *revel rout, 'mid blood and* pillage,
> The wail of *starving folk in leaguered* towns—
>
> "The bursting shell, *the houses rent* asunder,
> The *galling rifle-fire*, the clashing blade—
> And, ever and anon, in tones of thunder,
> The Diapason of the cannonade!"

—The Atlantic cable has never since it was laid been used for an odder purpose than telegraphing Mr. Anthony J. Froude's opinion that "the will of God has no longer a place, even by courtesy, in the statutes" of modern nations, that even "the bishops do not believe what they profess," but that the message of science "is not the last or the highest," and that there will be by and by a new religion adapted to the wants of society. Mr. Froude's opinions on this subject are as valuable as his opinions about Flogging Fitzgerald and Henry the Eighth, and for these the ordinary mails were held to be an adequate medium of transmission.

—The fourth volume of the *Italia* (Leipzig, 1877) is fully on a level with the previous numbers which have been noticed in the *Nation* from time to time. The object of this periodical, our readers will remember, is to make the Germans better acquainted with Italian affairs, and no one who peruses the present volume will deny that this object is honestly and frankly carried out. The lighter articles, if so we may term them, are : "The Musical Conditions of Italy," by Hans Dütschke ; "Modern Italian Lyrical Poets," by Günther von Freiburg ; and metrical translations. The first article depicts a gloomy state of things ; there is no music in Italy but opera music, which, being written to please the popular taste, is on a very low plane. The number of operas produced is appalling, and the mode of performance and behavior of the audience are severely criticised by the writer. The memory of the great Italian composers of the last two centuries is forgotten because the people have lost their taste for all music that does not, like the opera, please the eye as well as the ear. In the second article the writer, after a review of the lyrical poets before 1860, especially Giusti and Leopardi (the former very unjustly, according to the writer, compared to Alfred de Musset, and the latter to Byron), examines the new school, which includes the names of Prati, Mamiami, Aleardi, Dall' Ongaro, Revere, Zendrini, Zanella, and Carducci. The last is the rising star, and according to German critics is one of the best poets since Heine. A translation of his famous ode to Satan, by Julius Schanz, was printed in the second volume of the *Italia*, where some translations of Zendrini's lyrics have also appeared. The metrical translations in the present number comprise the combat with the Orca, from the eighth canto of Ariosto's 'Orlando,' translated by O. Gildemeister, and an Italian version of Klaus Groth's *plattdeutsch* poem "Sunday Morning," by Teza, who also translates equally well four extracts from Heine's "Nordsee."

—The heavier articles, in the order of their insertion, are the following : "What Foreigners do not notice in Italy," by P. Villari, who reviews briefly, but incisively, the social, political, literary, and religious questions of the day, and touches the root of all difficulties when he says that in Germany the religious and literary revolution preceded the political; in Italy the reverse is the case. "The Cession of the Villa Medici in Rome to France," by F. Hüffer, is an instance of French rapacity in the days when the Venus de' Medici was fruitlessly shipped to Sicily to keep her from falling into the hands of the first Napoleon, who wished, it is said, to marry her to the Apollo Belvedere, who had already found his way to Paris with other objects of Italian art. "The Gymnasium System in Italy," by R. Bonghi, former Minister of Public Instruction, gives a detailed account of the Italian schools leading to the universities, their organization, selection of professors, examinations, plan of study, etc. The chief evil in the system seems to be a want of uniformity in the whole kingdom ; but also the religious stand of the Government has resulted in the competition of the schools under the charge of religious bodies with those of the state, in which the former are successful, at least so far as numbers are concerned. "The Italian Judiciary," by O. Luchini, shows that the system, like so much else in Italy, is the result of temporary and hasty organization, and consequently incomplete and defective. "The Italian Finances," by T. P. Maurogónato, should be read in connection with Fontanelli's article in the first volume on the circulation of paper money in Italy. It is interesting to see how a country which a few years ago had an annual deficit of nearly a hundred million dollars, to-day maintains an equilibrium in her balance. It is, however, accomplished by means of a ruinous system of taxation. The reader will be astounded to learn that the Budget for 1877 called for over two hundred and seventy millions of dollars. The writer shows in detail how this immense sum is raised, and for what it is disbursed, and suggests some much-needed reforms. "The Religious Question in Italy" contains an examination of the various attempts that have been made within and without the church to reconcile it with the state, and shows how they have all necessarily failed. The writer gives an interesting account of the National Church movement (corresponding to the Old Catholics of Germany), which has not yet accomplished much, and of the Waldensian Church, which has, and is doing more every year. Enough has been said to show the unusually solid and valuable character of the present number of the *Italia*, the publishers of which announce that a new volume will hereafter appear every autumn.

THE NEW REPUBLIC.*

In order to attempt any criticism of Mr. Mallock's book it is necessary to give a slight résumé at the outset of its very clever and original plan of construction. It consists, then, of a series of conversations carried on by a number of ladies and gentlemen who meet toward the end of a dusty July to pass a quiet Sunday in the sea-side country-house of Mr. Otho Lawrence. This retreat is described as the work of Lawrence's uncle, a man of wealth and good birth, a skeptic, a cynic, and a loose liver, who has left to his nephew his beautiful villa and two volumes of reflections on various subjects, some of which will not bear loud reading. In the middle of the estate is the tomb of this singular man, left by his express directions to be carefully neglected by his heir, the rusty gate and weather-stained portico being designed to give a posthumous evidence of the justness of his evil theories as to the impermanence of human affection and gratitude. The nephew has inherited to a certain degree his uncle's skepticism, but not his cynicism. He is in the condition of mind which the author by implication attributes to the great body of the Protestant world, that of unquiet doubt, of a longing for something that is not found, but constantly yearned after. Otho Lawrence is fond of speculation, and having got a number of friends to his house, determines that their time shall be improved by a rational discussion of those topics which "society" habitually avoids, and which are yet of the deepest concern to every member of it.

His friends are no ordinary visitors. We have seen a "key" giving the real names of the *dramatis personæ ;* but there are only a few of them who are well known on this side of the water. There is the celebrated Dr. Jenkinson, representing the Broad Church ; Mr. Storks of the Royal Society, "great on the physical basis of life and the imaginative basis of God" (Mr. Tyndall) ; Mr. Luke, "the great critic and apostle of culture" (Matthew Arnold) ; Mr. Rose, the pre-Raphaelite (Swinburne or Rosetti), who always speaks in an undertone, and whose "two topics are self-indulgence and art" ; Mr. Saunders from Oxford, "supposed to be very clever and advanced" ; and Mr. Herbert, the only man in these days for whom Otho Lawrence feels a real reverence, almost the only one of the teachers of this generation who, to him, seems to speak "with the least breath of inspiration" (Ruskin). Then there is Miss Merton, a Roman Catholic convert, and Lady Ambrose, a woman "of a very old but poor family, who has married a modern M. P. with more than a million of money," and who has "lovely large grey eyes," and is "very particular about knowing the right people."

The party being assembled, it is arranged by the host that the conversation at dinner shall be devoted to certain subjects chosen beforehand and inscribed in courses on the *menu*. The "Aim of Life" comes on with the soup ; "Town and Country" with the fish ; then "Society," "Art and Literature," and so on ; "The Present" as a *pièce de résistance ;* and finally, with the *entremets*, "The Future." By this simple device (which has received an amount of critical approval and admiration so disproportioned to its merits as to cast in the shade the extraordinary cleverness of other parts of the book) a modern *symposium* is set agoing, and the various philosophical systems of the guests are unfolded. And here, in the vivid parodies, or rather almost reproductions—for they are only slightly caricatured—of the current ways of looking at life professed by the "teachers" whom the guests represent, the great strength of the book lies. The dialogue has every charm that conversation on serious subjects, now light and now grave, carried on by people of unusual wit and command of language, can have. There is enough graceful allusion and

* "The New Republic ; or, Culture, Faith, and Philosophy in an English Country House. By W. H. Mallock." A new edition. New York : Scribner, Welford & Armstrong. 1878.

wit and reflection and suggestion to furnish half-a-dozen books. To prove this by quotations would be easy enough, but would really do injustice to the author, because his "good things" are not interjected here and there by main force to make a readable book, but are organic parts and members of the whole, and need the context for their full and natural effect.

The *menu* having been discussed, the *symposium* is protracted during the stay of the party, and the discussion broadens rapidly until it covers the great subject handed down by the author of the book from which Mr. Mallock has taken his title—that of the world as it ought to be. It is here, of course, that there is the greatest play for real satire. To construct an ideal society, a perfect state, is the problem Plato left unsolved. Two thousand years have rolled away since, and many civilizations and religions have arisen and perished with them. Science has been born and mastered the world, inventions have revolutionized our modes of living. Political systems of every sort have been framed for the government of men, and philosophical systems of every hue have been invented to reconcile or dissatisfy him with life. Surely, in the full glare of the high-noon of an age priding itself on its civilization and enlightenment, we ought to be able to approach the task of reconstructing the world with more chance of success than Plato. Let us make the attempt.

To begin with, as Lawrence's friend Leslie suggests, in a perfect state all the parts will be perfect, and each part will imply and involve the others. We may, therefore, take the highest class in our state, and see what that ought to be, if it were really perfect; that is, what class the highest and most refined life consists in. Mr. Rose suggests "Art"; Mr. Saunders "Reason"; but it is finally suggested by Lady Ambrose, who, it must be confessed, gives the discussion a fairer start than ever Plato did, that the first requisite of perfect society was "the absence of dull and vulgar people"—a remark which gives occasion for what is, to our mind (though not, perhaps, at first sight), one of the best things in the book, Mr. Luke's cordial exclamation of approval, "A capital exclusion with which to begin our new Republic!" Mr. Luke then proceeds to follow this idea out, and a long discussion follows on "Culture," the meaning of which much-abused word Lawrence undertakes to illustrate to the assembled company by a comparison between the "coarse, common, rustic palate" of a farmer and that of the true epicure. This image suggests to Miss Merton the natural conclusion that a man of the highest "culture" must be a sort of "emotional *bon vivant*," an idea which, instead of displeasing, delights Mr. Luke, who thanks Miss Merton for the phrase, adding that "it may remind us all how near our view of the matter is to that of a certain Galilean peasant, . . . who described the highest culture by just the same metaphor, as a hunger and thirst after righteousness." Lawrence goes on to describe "culture" as practically a general training and cultivation of all the faculties; but his "culture" is not Mr. Rose's any more than it is really Mr. Luke's. It is agreed, however, at length that the society of the New Republic is to be as highly bred and as polished and as sparkling as it can be imagined, when Lord Allen (Lord Roseberry?) observes that *his* Utopia would need "something definite for the people to do"; without this, he says that "all life" seems to him "a mockery." On this Lawrence asks him whether he is quite sure that that is not exactly what life is, when Mr. Luke comes in with a really brilliant burlesque of Matthew Arnold. To be sure, life is a mockery, he says, if you leave out "the one thing that is of real importance"—conduct, or, in other words, morality:

"It is quite true that culture is . . . the sensitizing of the mental palate—the making it a good taster. But a taster of what? Not only of social absurdities, or love affairs, or beautiful scenery, but of morality, of righteousness, of Christianity. The really profound work of culture is to make us judges of these—judges able to tell in an instant real righteousness and real Christianity from pseudo-righteousness and pseudo-Christianity, so that we may swallow the true like the healing water of life, and reject the false like a sample of bad claret."

Mr. Luke's view of the matter, however, is not at all satisfactory to Mr. Saunders, who thinks that without some definite faith the world can by no means get along. He looks forward to the general agreement of mankind on nothing more or less important than the "utter destruction" of the "supposed inscrutable difference between right and wrong," and the substitution for them of terms based on a purely utilitarian system. With Right and Wrong will go Poetry, the "treacherous hand-maid of priestcraft," and "every other evil" as well, including "reverence, faith, mysticism, humility, and all the unclean company comprised in this one word, Religion." This is too much for Mr. Stockton, who has a religion of his own, not unlike that of many other persons of the present day:

"When the awe-struck eye gazes, guided by science, through the 'dark backward and abysm of time,' and sees that all that is has unfolded itself, unmoved and unbidden (astounding thought!), from a brainless, senseless, lifeless gas—the cosmic vapor, as we call it—and that it may, for aught we know, one day return to it—I say when we realize, when we truly make our own, this stupendous truth, must not our feelings," said Mr. Stockton, letting his eyes rest on Miss Merton's, with an appealing melancholy, "—our feelings at such moments be religious? Are they not Religion?"

So the construction of the New Republic proceeds, developing at every turn fundamental and irreconcilable differences among its founders as to what the true principles of Utopian architecture should be; until after each system is unfolded and the company involved in a maze of doubt and perplexity, the whole is brought to a rude ending by a lay sermon from Mr. Herbert, who tells the company very plainly that they have not advanced the matter a step; that they are all deniers and doubters and disbelievers, and that their world is without a God. Their religion is not pure paganism, however, for they once had a true religion. He finally advises them to "seek God earnestly," on a sort of last desperate chance of finding him. This is what Mr. Herbert is doing, it appears; for he too confesses himself a doubter and a miserable man, though not yet content with his misery. He too has said in his heart there is no God, but even that he has doubted while he has said it, and calm, peaceful doubt he will never admit.

We have been able to give only the merest hint at the general drift of Mr. Mallock's book. It suggests many questions. Does it mean that after two thousand years we are no nearer the goal than Plato was, or is there in the author's own opinion some solution of the riddle? Can the world be perfected, and can we by seeking find out God? There are no positive indications of what his own belief on the various questions raised are, but the negative indications all point to a simple solution. There is one person in the book who is not satirized; she is a Roman Catholic convert. There is one faith which is not parodied; it is that of the Church of Rome. There is no system of Protestant or positive philosophy that does not come in for ridicule, but Holy Church escapes. But we are not inclined to make any inferences at all. A satirist, it seems to us, should be judged as a satirist. In the 'New Republic' Mr. Mallock has undertaken a most difficult and ambitious task: in the first place, to create a modern representative of the ancient symposium; in the second place, to lay bare the weak spots in the current fashionable philosophies of the day. He has done both with the hand of a master. It would be rash to predict what he may accomplish in other fields, but he may fairly insist that for the present he shall be judged by what he has actually accomplished.

NARJOUX'S ARCHITECTURAL NOTES.*

M. FÉLIX NARJOUX, Architecte de la Ville de Paris, is one of those ingenious Frenchmen who heretically turn their faces from the École des Beaux-Arts, that great propaganda of architectural catholicism, and with their corypheus, Viollet-le-Duc, maintain a peculiar opposition to its tenets. Several buildings in Paris and Châlon-sur-Saône, designed by M. Narjoux, are straightforward and effective, and there is a curious little villa at San Remo, near Genoa, which bears creditable testimony to his imagination. As a writer, he is known by several studies on public buildings, relating especially to the construction and fitting-up of common and primary schools. Three years ago his name appeared, as collaborator, on the title-page of a bulky volume of engravings: 'Les Habitations Modernes.' Several of the houses therein represented are described in the 'Notes de Voyage' before us, and in it there is also frequent mention of visits to kindergartens and other schools. From this the book may perhaps be held to embody observations made while gathering material for the more important works, and it would be well if such were always published in so welcome a form.

M. Narjoux, evidently intending his book for the general reader, has made it attractive by a large number of illustrations, which not only show characteristic buildings, with their furniture and ornaments, but occasionally the costumes and belongings of their inhabitants. Holland and Denmark are countries to which writers on architecture seldom devote much attention, and the present description is the more interesting on that account. The sketches are clear, and always correct in perspective, being drawn in a manner similar to that of Viollet-le-Duc. We

* 'Notes de Voyage d'un Architecte dans le Nord-ouest de l'Europe. Par Félix Narjoux.' Paris: Morel et Cie. 1876.
'Notes and Sketches of an Architect, taken during a Journey in the Northwest of Europe. Translated from the French of Félix Narjoux by John Peto.' Author's edition, from advance sheets. London: Sampson Low & Co. 1876. Boston: James R. Osgood & Co. 1877.

have perspective sections, bird's-eye views, and diagrams of construction but little inferior to those familiar to the student of the 'Dictionnaire.' The representations of interiors and of furniture are noticeably good, and the invariable practice of accompanying the views of a building with its plans cannot be too highly commended. Yet, although we ostensibly have the contents of a sketch-book, it is to be regretted that its illustrations were redrawn with square and bow-pen before being published, for this was probably done after the writer's return to France, and must be deemed responsible not only for the loss of that immediateness and freshness peculiar to free-hand sketches, but also for numerous inaccuracies, especially the discrepancies between plans and elevations. In the drawings of the farm-houses of Northern Holland, for instance, the doors and windows are so interchanged as to render a ready understanding of the reference made by the text impossible. Then, too, the plans, though reduced to uniform scales, often show rooms with no means of access, or with no light. In consideration of the general excellence of the drawings, it seems strange that such mistakes should have gone to press; they must be attributed to that incorrigible Gallic carelessness of which M. Narjoux's text bears so decided evidence. Almost every foreign word is wrongly written—at times so much disguised as to leave a doubt as to what he really refers. Is it possible that by "la maison Presle de Nuremberg" he means the Peller'sche Haus? His dates, also, may be regarded with suspicion. The manufacture of porcelain in Berlin began in 1751, nine years before the time here stated, and Barneveldt was executed, hardly "assassinated," in 1619, not 1617.

The professional remarks of M. Narjoux on the subjects of his illustrations are almost always good, and based on the sound principles of his school. Only once does he depart from these—when he commends, on account of their lightness, those wooden imitations of vaults here and there to be seen in the Netherlands. Time has shown that the inflammability of these meretricious, or at best useless, features unfits them as substitutes for the stone ceilings they simulate. The remarks on the forms of development displayed by the dwelling-houses of different lands are particularly interesting. The sketches pertaining to the subject well show how the needs of a family are influenced by local customs and climate, and how clearly this influence is expressed in domestic architecture. It is to this that the writer's more direct attention was given; yet he has not failed to notice many churches, town-halls, hospitals, and other public buildings, as well as certain works of military engineering. The drawings, also, of various Northern antiquities lodged in the museum of Copenhagen are especially good. In short, the book is filled with hints valuable to the architect, who by it may not merely gain suggestions applicable to every-day problems, but withal quite a clear understanding of the state of building interests in the countries through which M. Narjoux has passed.

Due allowance should, however, be made for the writer's intense hatred of the conquerors of his country. The severity of his observations upon the plagiarism of German architects is entirely unwarranted. The exhibition of national feeling knows no bounds. He devotes a chapter to a fierce arraignment of Prussia for the part taken in the war of the duchies, and while giving vent to his sympathy for the Danes—those Frenchmen of the North—fondly anticipates the day when, the pressure of Prussian military despotism for an instant relaxed, the German states which are forced into that unnatural union, the Empire, will fall asunder and resume their autonomy, to the great good-fortune of France. Some of the tirades against German manners are truly slanderous. The account of the behavior of Breslau opera-goers, for example, can excite nothing but astonishment in the mind of one familiar with their habits. Ignorance of Northern tongues and usages seems unhappily to have prevented M. Narjoux from justly appreciating those he so harshly condemns.

When a professional book, not intended for consultation and not distinguished by special strength or subtlety of diction, is written in a language so well known as the French, the utility of a translation may seem doubtful. We are well aware of the fallacy of the polite supposition that everybody reads French, yet among those of sufficient literary interest to regard M. Narjoux's book as an acquisition there can be but few who would prefer to read it in this version, or can applaud its having received an honor which so many important works of reference still await. Mr. John Peto's translation, which has appeared almost simultaneously in London and Boston, is accompanied by very fair impressions of the original cuts, but the rendering of the text is at once inelegant and untrustworthy. The mechanical execution of the book, though good, is inferior to the French edition; its reduction in size causes some of the illustrations to appear crowded. The scale of the plans is given as ".039 and .078 of an inch to the yard," in place of the more correct and customary 1 and 2 to 1,000; the destination, also, of the rooms is not well expressed. The word *office* is rendered variously as "library," "private room," "closet," and "store-room," none of which terms conveys its real signification; elsewhere *dégagements* scarcely five feet broad are described as "sitting-rooms." The only acknowledged additions to the original are a few foot-notes, the most important of which is a misstatement. Queen Caroline Matilda died on the 10th of May, 1775, not in 1773. But the unavowed mutilation of the book by its translator is most inexcusable. Mr. Peto omits entirely, and without explanation, most important parts which perhaps fail to suit his personal taste, or do not appear sufficiently sycophantic. The following passage is thus ignored—it should be inserted on page 281 of the version:

"Mr. Scott is the architect of the Albert Memorial in Hyde Park; it is he who conceived the idea, to say the least whimsical, of raising a *Gothic* monument to a prince his contemporary. This monument, moreover, is so loaded with details, so covered with ornaments of every kind, with embossed, indented, painted, and gilded carvings, that it seems a reliquary, only fit to be kept under glass, and by no means a construction which, in order to perpetuate the memory of him to whom it is dedicated, should withstand the inclemency of seasons and of centuries."

Some understanding of the faithlessness of the version and of the liberty Mr. Peto has allowed himself in emasculating and perverting the original may be gained from a comparison of the following paragraphs, supposed to be parallel:

"Tout cela [l'appareil de l'église Saint-Nicolas] est bien construit, bien combiné; mais, comme il arrive presque toujours en pareil cas, ce monument est la charge plutôt que la copie de celui qui a été pris pour modèle. Puis quand on copie, le moins qu'on doive faire est au moins de bien choisir son modèle: c'est ainsi que bien des gens croient faire du *gothique*, parce que, impuissants à créer et à concevoir, ils reproduisent des formes et des profils sans comprendre qu'ils laissent de côté l'esprit et les principes appliqués par les puissants constructeurs du moyen âge."

In translation this appears as follows:

"We have a different idea in France of the architecture of the Middle Ages; yet we must admit that the Church of St. Nicholas has a grand and noble appearance, and has been constructed with the greatest care."

It is perhaps unnecessary to state that the church was designed by an English architect. Every mistake, every oversight of the original is before us in the translation, even such evident misprints as the statement that the new theatre of Copenhagen is to cost six hundred rix-dollars. Dutch and German words are as M. Narjoux carelessly wrote them, or as they may have been misprinted; except when rendered even more incorrect. The capital of Holland, the Hague, is called in that country 'sGravenhage; that is to say, the hedge of the count or counts. The 's which precedes the name, being the final letter of the genitive form of the definite article, is written in small character. Of this M. Narjoux may have been ignorant, for he writes S'Gravenhage. The translator paused at this word of strange appearance, but recollecting that S. is the abbreviation for Saint (if not in French at least in Italian), he has boldly incorporated another worthy into the already over-full calendar of the elect, and we read "St. Gravenhage"! There is no lack of similar points, but Mr. John Peto and Saint Gravenhage must excuse us from carrying the analysis any farther.

THE NEW EDITION OF HERDER.*

"THE first ingenuous work of an author is generally the best. His bloom is opening, his soul is still morning-twilight; much with him is still full, boundless feeling, that afterwards becomes subtle investigation or mature thought that has already lost its youthful coloring (*Jugendroth*). We always like the half better than the whole, the promising morning more than the noon of the sun's highest altitude."

These words, so figurative, so profound, so wanting in precision, so characteristic of Herder, have an especial adaptation to the two already published volumes of the elegant edition of his writings which is now appearing. They may, perhaps, at once lead to the reflection that Herder's day has never passed beyond the dawn. Goethe's day in German literature has been opening, at least ever since the publication of the 'Hermann und Dorothea,' and, judging from the issues of the last two years, the sun of this day has not yet reached the zenith. Herder's day has remained morning-twilight, or rather it has sometimes seemed as if

* 'Herder's Sämmtliche Werke. Herausgegeben von Bernhard Suphan.' Erster und Zweiter Band. Pp. 548 and 384. Berlin: Weidmannsche Buchhandlung. 1877.

the promise of morning had become the negation of evening. Hermann Grimm says in his instructive lectures on Goethe: "To later generations, who will from better editions of Herder's writings have made the acquaintance of the great man, it will be a riddle how such a source of light was able to emit so few rays." It has often been given as a reason for the smallness of Herder's present influence that he had little creative power. Even the 'Cid,' which was looked upon for more than half a century as offering his highest claim to poetic genius, was proved ten years ago to be substantially a translation of a French Romance version and not a genuine recomposition (*Umdichtung*) of the original. Goethe's poetic genius, on the other hand (however much he may have owed to Herder, and to Rousseau through him, for his awakening), has assumed larger dimensions every year. The sky has not been large enough for two suns of such immense disparity. The greater must rule by day; and the bitterness of Herder's later years towards Goethe, the spirit of the words quoted by Grimm from Herder as containing the sharpest censure that could fall on Goethe, "Theilnahmlose, genaue Schilderung der Sichtbarkeit," has doubtless helped to turn Goethe's admirers from Herder and to diminish his fame.

But a potent reason for the modern neglect of Herder has certainly been the want of a worthy critical edition of his writings. This want, that has by some scholars been keenly felt, is at last to be supplied. Bernhard Suphan, who has long been known as a successful student of Herder, is issuing an edition of that author of which two volumes have already appeared. The plan of the edition was approved by Moritz Haupt (no higher authority could have been found) and contemplates a chronological arrangement in three sections—prose, poetry, and the writings that had an official or ministerial character. The editor has had constant counsel from Julius Zacher and the support of the Berlin Academy. The imperial treasury has contributed to the enterprise by purchasing from Herder's descendants for Suphan's use most of the rich abundance of manuscripts which Herder left, and Herder's family have put at the editor's disposal whatever remained in their possession. Not merely did Herder leave manuscripts of many of his works—some of which, as, for instance, the collections of 'Fragments über die neuere deutsche Litteratur,' were refashioned several times—but there are also preliminary sketches and studies, books of excerpts and notes, that are of great service in leading up to the original text if the manuscript is wanting, and in showing the connection between different works. The editors of the first complete edition did not compare the printed works with the manuscripts, and there are many mistakes (some absurd ones) in that and subsequent reprints which are to be corrected in this edition. But far more than a correction of orthographical errors is given in these new volumes. Pieces from Herder's pen that were not in the earlier editions have been discovered by Suphan. *Die Königsbergschen Gelehrten und Politischen Anzeigen* and *Die Rigischen Gelehrten Beiträge*, newspapers for which Herder wrote in 1765 and later, have, under the scrutiny of Suphan and Haym (who is publishing a series of volumes on Herder's life and works), added to our inheritance from Herder.

The second edition of the first collection of 'Fragments' was not published until after Herder's death. It was, however, printed probably in the latter part of 1768. Klotz (the same writer whose criticism irritated Lessing) stole a copy from the printing-house and reviewed the revision very unfavorably in the *Hallische Deutsche Bibliothek*, January, 1769. This review so annoyed the sensitive Herder that he persuaded his publisher, Hartknoch, to suppress the entire edition of fifteen hundred copies. Suphan's edition contains the first collection in its earliest form, and this suppressed revision in all the passages (more than a hundred octavo pages) which are not duplicates of parts of the first edition. Only the revision is found in the later editions. A letter of Herder's to Nicolai, written about the time of Klotz's ill-natured review, is proof that the *second* collection also had been completely revised, and was then in manuscript form. Suphan found manuscripts of this revision among Herder's papers, and prints in his second volume parts of it from a *second* and parts from a *third* refashioning. It is well known that Herder planned repeatedly for a *third* edition and an enlargement of the scope of the 'Fragments.' Even as late as 1781 this thought was rekindled in him by Frederic the Great's memoir, 'Sur la Littérature Allemande.' Naturally then among his books at Weimar, after his death, was found a copy in which he had written marginal notes for the contemplated third edition. Heyne, the untrustworthy editor who revised the text for the Carlsruhe edition of 1821 and the Cotta of 1827, introduced modifications from this now lost copy. Suphan gives Heyne's modifications as foot-notes whenever certain that they are to be referred to Herder's own hand.

It is with more precision, though not with more beauty, than marks the words from Herder which were quoted at the beginning of this notice, that Suphan says in his careful introduction to the first volume: "In the first work of an author his literary character is presented most faithfully, with less liability to deceive in proportion as he gives more ingenuous play in it to his inclinations; the composition is richer in unfolding in proportion as the author's future course and final aims lie clear before his eyes. Of that ingenuousness, as of this certainty, Herder's 'Fragments' give evidence to a high degree."

Also of Herder's work in regard to 'Thomas Abbt's Writings' the editor publishes something new. In the complete edition this torso of a monument, as Herder named it, appeared in the revision of Joh. von Müller, and at the end of the first part the words "Die Fortsetzung unterbleibt" were printed. But in Herder's papers a second part containing matter enough to fill seventy octavo pages was found, and appears in Suphan's second volume. Thus of this volume more than half is from Herder's manuscripts, and is now for the first time printed.

Herder's influence will be increased in Germany by this publication. But also among those peoples whose literary spirit he understood (and what modern literature did he fail to study?) and did so much to popularize in Germany, this edition deserves a hearty welcome. No German library will be complete without it, and no one who has any interest in that surprising and magnificent development among the Germans a century ago can afford to be ignorant of the most fructifying genius of that time. His sensitive, receptive, all-embracing spirit, more purely theoretical than Goethe's, had less adaptation for affairs, but he preached a gospel in language, religion, and letters that found in its time a hearing. It was not, Suphan assures us, so much Lessing as Abbt and Nicolai who sowed in the 'Briefe die neueste Litteratur betreffend' the seed that ripened to a harvest in Herder's 'Beilagen.' His rhetoric had an advantage as well as a disadvantage in comparison with the clear intellectual presentation of Lessing. More truly poetic in his prose than in his poetry, he treated a multitude of subjects, and, having something to interest every friend of culture, the free, graceful range of his expression was better adapted for popular acceptance than the logical purity of Lessing. He is just as truly a German, though more receptive of French influence. If in him, as Hillebrand asserts, are to be found the germs of so many comprehensive modern movements, what a source of wealth to the investigator in these two volumes that lay bare, so to speak, the early pulsations of his literary heart!

Une Page d'Amour. Par Émile Zola. (Paris: Charpentier; New York: F. W. Christern. 1878.)—A new novel by the author of 'L'Assommoir' is certain to attract a good deal of attention; but we think it is safe to say that the volume before us is not destined to achieve the peculiar vogue of that remarkable work. (We observe, however, that at the present writing, a very short time after its appearance, 'Une Page d'Amour' has reached a fourth edition.) M. Émile Zola has evidently proposed to himself in the present case to strike a different note from that of 'L'Assommoir,' and to show that he can treat of innocence and purity as well as of misery, vice, and uncleanness. For this purpose he has resorted to radical measures—he has taken for his heroine a little girl of eleven years of age. We cannot say that, however creditable it may be to M. Zola's higher motives, the device has been successful; for 'Une Page d'Amour' has neither the power, the brilliancy, nor the extraordinary technical qualities, as they may be called, of its predecessor. It must be added that the author's attempt to show that he appreciates purity of subject is attended with some remarkable incidents. We should say, however, before going farther, that in his preface M. Zola distinctly repudiates any such short-sighted motive as a desire to throw a sop to public opinion. He prefixes to the present tale the genealogical tree of the Rougon-Macquart family, of whose various members and offshoots the eight novels of his great series already published embody a portion of the history. This history, says M. Zola, is to be unfolded in twelve more novels; and he declares that the genealogical tree in question has not been invented after the fact—at one of the later stages of the working-out of his remarkable scheme—but was completely prepared and elaborated in 1868, before a line of the first novel ('La Fortune des Rougon') was written. M. Zola publishes it now as a proof that every detail of his immense plan was settled in advance. This, to even moderately sympathetic readers, is perfectly credible; for whatever may be the author's defects, he gives us the impression of extraordinary elaborateness and patience of arrangement. This, indeed, is almost his strongest quality; he evidently sat himself down at the outset and tabulated, as it were,

the enormous contents of his twenty novels—pigeon-holed his episodes and characters as if he had been a clerk in a post-office. When the twentieth is published he will certainly have performed an almost unprecedented task; his only rival will have been Balzac, and in some respects the laborious, and, as he would allege, scientific quality of his performance has hardly been equalled in the 'Comédie Humaine.' He requests that full judgment on each of his novels be not passed until the series is complete and the individual story may be examined according to its place in the scale.

A partial judgment, however, he admits that the reader is welcome to form; and it is by the light of this partial judgment that we feel justified in saying that the present episode in the history of the race of Rougon-Macquart is both disagreeable and dull. 'L'Assommoir' was prodigiously disagreeable, but it could not, on the whole, be pronounced dull. 'Une Page d'Amour' suggests, as we read, in a much less degree the need for disinfectants and deodorizers; but neither has it, on the other hand, the really magnificent reality of its companion. An "œuvre intime et de demi-teinte" M. Zola pronounces it in his preface; but, in spite of this gracefully-sounding qualification, the story has little that is positively agreeable. The author of 'L'Assommoir' has not an agreeable imagination; and let him select from life what objects he will, the light it projects upon them is, in the nature of the case, a turbid one. He puts before us here a certain Hélène Grandjean, of the stock of the Rougons, whose childhood has been touched upon in a former story. She is young, beautiful, and virtuous, and she has been left a widow, in Paris, with a small income and a little daughter, a child of a morbidly affectionate nature, of a jealous, suspicious, and fantastic disposition, and liable to convulsions, epileptic fits, and other grievous ailments. This little girl, who, as we have said, is properly the heroine of the tale, is apparently meant to appeal to our tenderest sentiments; but we feel bound to declare that, of all unhealthy children, she is represented by M. Zola as the most detestable, the most ill-bred, the most impossible to live with. She is constantly ill, and her mother is obliged frequently to call in the doctor; the consequence of which is that the doctor (who has a wife of his own) falls madly in love with Madame Grandjean, and that Madame Grandjean (who has become a good friend of the wife) reciprocates, and very soon gratifies, his passion. On one occasion, while she is occupied in gratifying it in the Rue Taitbout, the little girl, left at home alone naturally, conceives such grief, shame, and anger at her deserted condition and her mother's estrangement that she falls into a paroxysm which proves fatal, and to which she presently succumbs. Her illness and death are minutely described (and, it must be added, very powerfully; these pages are the most effective in the volume), together with the remorse and shame of her mother, who has immediately dismissed the doctor. Afterwards, Madame Grandjean marries a former suitor, "rentre," says M. Zola, by no means ironically, "dans l'orgueil de son honnêteté," visits the grave of the little girl in the cemetery at Passy, and quite washes her hands, morally, of the circumstances attending the child's death.

The matter, the *fonds*, of M. Zola's story strikes us as very weak and common, and, in so far as the tale is a history of the guilty mother, it is strangely ineffective. To this singular figure of the exceptionally virtuous widow, who throws herself into the arms of her daughter's physician, and then gets so bravely over it, the author has imparted neither solidity nor coherency. The doctor, too, remains simply a peculiarly unpleasant shadow—something like a bad odor. As a history of the child herself, 'Une Page d'Amour' exhibits a certain quantity of the author's skill in producing a sense of reality. There is a terrible abuse of description, but much of the description hits the mark; and probably only M. Zola could have written the thirty or forty pages, at the close, describing the little girl's last illness. It is probable that everything he produces will exhibit the same incongruity—the application of a remarkably complete and powerful method, an extremely solid literary instrument, to objects meanly and, as we may say, ignorantly chosen and bathed in an atmosphere of low-class Parisian cockneyism. If, with his talent and his resolution, he had what we may call a little more horizon, his work would be tripled in value. But, such as it is, he will certainly conduct it to its goal; he will fill out his programme, and, in doing so, he will have performed one of the most remarkable literary tasks of our day.

An Outline of General History for the Use of Schools.—By M. E. Thalheimer, author of 'A Manual of Ancient History,' etc. (Cincinnati: Van Antwerp, Bragg & Co. 12mo, pp. 355.)—Miss Thalheimer's several books have been received with such well-merited commendation that all we need say at present in regard to the execution of this new volume is that it has the characteristics of general accuracy and pleasing style which its predecessors had. A few words may, however, be appropriately said as to its plan. General history is probably the most difficult subject in a school curriculum—most difficult, that is, to teach in such a way as to present at once a clear, full, and interesting view of a succession of events. Almost all books upon this subject fall into two faults—the one, common also to text-books of the history of individual nations and periods, of giving a great deal too much detail; the other, of forgetting that it is the history of the world that is to be told, not that of the several nations. This is not an indifferent point; it should lie at the foundation of any well-considered scheme of teaching general history. At every period of time—with very rare exceptions—there has been some one nation which has had, so to speak, the *hegemony* among nations, and about whose annals may be grouped all the events of that period which have more than a merely local and national importance. In the last two centuries this is less the case; the system of nations has become so wide and complicated that there have always been several streams of events of nearly equal importance, none of which can well be neglected. Nevertheless, even here, between the ages of Louis XIV. and of Napoleon, who each took the leadership in the world in his own time, if we should take the three names of Peter the Great, Frederick the Great, and Washington, there would be very little omitted which could not be well spared.

Now, the fault we have to find with Miss Thalheimer's arrangement is that there is no such continuity as that which we have been recommending. One chapter does not lead to another by a natural connection, as a part of the great current of the world's history, but each is an independent treatment of an independent topic, and the student is obliged constantly to jump backward and forward in his chronology. For example, in "Modern History," chap. vi., "The Stuarts in England," ending with Queen Anne (1714), is followed by "The House of Austria and the Thirty Years' War," ending 1648; and this by "European Colonies," which goes back to the sixteenth century; while the next chapter, "The Northern Kingdoms," extends from the Union of Calmar (1397) to the Partition of Poland, and so on. We think it impossible with this arrangement to get any consecutive idea of modern history.

Each chapter is good in itself, and the book is well provided with maps, genealogical tables, etc. We will note especially the map of the Holy Land at the time of the Crusades, p. 160. In the map of the Roman Empire, p. 96, the province of Bætica is omitted. In that of Europe in the fifteenth and sixteenth centuries Scania is given to Sweden, into whose possession it did not come until 1638. On pages 60 and 63 we find Coronæa for Coronea. On page 164 the government of Florence is said to have been given to the "Arts" or trade-guilds in 1343; this was the year of the admission of the "Lesser Arts" to the government—the constitutional change in question belongs to 1266. The illustrations are generally very good, being principally representations of costume—one of the best and most useful kinds of illustration; but that on page 86 will certainly lead most pupils to believe that the lictor (who, by the way, looks very much like a prize-fighter) attended upon the tribune, than which no more radical mistake could be made.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Authors.—Titles.	*Publishers.*	*Prices.*
Baker (W. M.), A Year Worth Living: a Tale	(Lee & Shepard)	$1 50
Boardman (Rev. G. D.), Studies in the Creative Week	(D. Appleton & Co.)	
Brain, Part 1, swd	(Macmillan & Co.)	1 25
Christ: His Nature and Work; Discourses	(G. P. Putnam's Sons)	1 75
Current Discussion, Vol. 2, Questions of Belief	" "	1 50
Economic Monographs: suffrage in Cities, swd	" "	25
France and the United States, swd	" "	25
Our Revenue System and the Civil Service, swd	" "	25
Frothingham (Rev. O. B.), The Rising and the Setting Faith	" "	1 00
Howells (W. D.), Marmontel's Autobiography, 2 vols	(Houghton, Osgood & Co.)	2 50
Jebb (R. C.), Greek Literature: Science Primer	(D. Appleton & Co.)	
Jevons (W. S.), Political Economy: Science Primer	" "	
Lockyer (J. N.), Studies in Spectrum Analysis	" "	
Modern Symposium: The Soul and Future Life	(Rose-Belford Pub. Co.)	1 25
Nordi (L.), Adventures of a Consul Abroad	(Lee & Shepard)	1 50
Nichols (G. W.), The Cincinnati Organ, swd	(Robert Clarke & Co.)	25
Otis (Lieut.-Col. E. S.), The Indian Question	(Sheldon & Co.)	1 50
Parker (Commodore F. A.), The Battle of Mobile Bay	(A. Williams & Co.)	
Pettengill's Newspaper Directory for 1878	(S. M. Pettengill & Co.)	
Read (C.), On the Theory of Logic	(C. Kegan Paul & Co.)	
Richards (Prof. E. L.), Elements of Plane Trigonometry	(D. Appleton & Co.)	
Rollin (H. J.), Studio, Field, and Gallery	" "	
Rowbotham (T.), Sketching from Nature, swd	(G. P. Putnam's Sons)	25
Russell (C. W.), The Fall of Damascus: A Tale	(Lee & Shepard)	1 50
Savage (J.), Picturesque Ireland, Part 1, swd	(Thomas Kelly)	50
Sloane (C. W.), Landlords and Tenants	(Haven Bros.)	
Smith (J. H.), Exercises in Latin Prose Composition	(Rivingtons)	
Elementary Greek Grammar	" "	
Sumner (Prof. W. G.), Protection and Revenue in 1877, swd	(G. P. Putnam's Sons)	25
Theriet (A.), The Godson of a Marquis: a Tale, swd	(D. Appleton & Co.)	50
Tomkins (E.), Principles of Machine Construction, 2 vols	(G. P. Putnam's Sons)	4 50
Towle (G. M.), Voyages and Adventures of Vasco da Gama	(Lee & Shepard)	1 00
Tuke (Dr. T. H.), Insanity in Ancient and Modern Life	(Macmillan & Co.)	1 75
Wallace (A. R.), Tropical Nature	" "	2 50
Wetherill (Julie K.), Wings: a Tale	(J. B. Lippincott & Co.)	
Willard (Prof. S.), Synopsis of General History	(D. Appleton & Co.)	
Williams (W.), Landscape Painting in Oil Colors, swd	(G. P. Putnam's Sons)	25

Fine Arts.

THE NATIONAL ACADEMY EXHIBITION.

FINAL NOTICE.

THE materials for a capital exhibition are to be found in the present gathering at the Academy, deprived of almost all effect by two causes —a relaxation of judgment which has let in a crowd of crudities, and a forcing of tedious Academicians on the eye, according to the rights guaranteed them by an unfortunate caste-system. The wary look no longer, however, at pictures hung upon the eye-line, but confine their attention to works which the hanging committee endeavor to conceal ; so that by attending strictly to exhibits placed in the second and third rows they can partly defeat the efforts of the tyrant. The exhibition, now in its closing days, has, as an exhibition, been more successful than the average for the past ten years, but, as a picture-bourse, has failed notably. The young artists of talent, therefore, who with their spirited works have lent life and attractiveness to the display, have benefited a close corporation of the fossil sort without benefiting themselves. Their genius has simply brought money to the treasury of a jealous organization that will not admit them to membership, and that could not have got up a public attraction without them. Meanwhile their works return to the studio unsold, and no practical gain is derived by them from their loans. Some productions of notable vigor which have hitherto escaped our criticism deserve notice before the exhibition closes.

We may begin with those artists, such as Homer and La Farge, whose works the connoisseur does not regard, but rather the works expected of them. It is a somewhat notable fact, for instance, that those who praise Mr. La Farge do not praise the painting he shows them, but always the next one he is going to paint. A peculiar manifestation of tendencies, of subtleties, of promises, is evident in his productions, and the coming one is always to be the masterpiece. This confident admiration of work that does not exist has never failed Mr. La Farge, and has doubtless been as comforting to him as the meed for labors really achieved. He shows three little pictures this year—a bathing girl, sincerely and sculpturally modelled beneath the folds of a clinging gown, an Andromeda, seen from behind and spread upon her rock with all the intimacy of the apothecary's blister, and a hill-top lifting its cedars into the deep pure sky, where you do seem to hear with some success the whisper of the wind in evergreens. Some commentators have discerned a miracle of fairy colors in the spray that glistens upon Andromeda, while others have discovered that the sky into which the cedars plunge is green. What matters it ? It is neither the inventiveness nor the truthfulness of these pictures that is in court ; the minds of those who stand before them are not on these trifles, but on the picture to come, towards which the fond platitude of Andromeda against her rock and the experiment for a deeper blue than nature's, though resulting provisionally in flatness and in green, may be but needful contributions to the ideally rounded nymph and the ideally azure sky. Winslow Homer, again, is an artist who interests us unfailingly, but in the presence of whose paintings we are infallibly thinking of something else. He does not belong to the class of seekers so helplessly as Mr. La Farge does. He is, on the contrary, a deliverer of positive statements. But he is a man who, in delivering his hits, is very apt to have his elbow twitched at the important moment. He shows marksmanship mitigated by little clumsy misfortunes. We always think of Mr. Homer when we feel hopeful of the uprising of a national expression in art. It is true that our century, with its spread of education that levels everything, is entirely unfavorable to the individuality of nations, and that America, born without a past, and a mere recipient of impartial influences from all the world, is rather more hapless in this respect than others amongst the civilizations. Still, in art, we do notice, although all schools must be based alike on the Italians and on the Greeks, that an individual or a group will generally arise whose studies have taken a bent so particular, and so much in harmony with race-character, as to get accepted as typical. A Munkacsy comes forward with a budget of rugged faces, in bold light and gloom, and we consent to call his style of painting Hungarian ; a Fortuny comes, and glorifies bric-à-brac, and we receive him as a Castilian ; a Holman Hunt causes Jerusalem Jews to posture in Hogarthian anecdotes, and we recognize the tendency of the English mind ; an Ingres draws the figure with cold logic and faultless etiquette, and we accept him as French ; a Pilotyand a Makart invent color-theories and composition-theories which get to be rather loosely pigeon-holed as Bavarian and Austrian. To this museum of types America has not yet contributed, but whenever we forget for a moment how very difficult it will be for her to do so, and cast about for the coming man who will represent her, we are as apt to think of Mr. Homer as of any one else. He selects purely national subjects, and he paints them with a style quite his own, a style that has never felt the style of foreign teachers to a controlling point. But, in the present exhibition, it is to neither of his six specimens that we would turn as the foundation of such a hope. Each is a canvas defaced by a distinct fault, now a singular error of composition, now an emptiness of touch and a rawness of color that can only suggest the chromo. In looking at his contributions we find ourselves opening our eyes rather on his past successes. In each of them, however, there is a note of real merit, ringing, clear, and positive. The young farmer, striding through the dew of dawn, and impulsively taking off his hat to the Te Deum of the birds ; the gypsy-girl, with a sly dark head bent over her cards ; and the negro-lad, stealing melons in fulfilment of a predatory law of nature, without sin and without conviction of sin, but with a side-long eye bent all the while towards the quarter from which the farmer will descend upon him, are all touched with energy and insight, and, what we like the best, the artist's manner of putting them forward is personal and unborrowed.

Mr. Knight sends from Poissy a scene of village water-carriers. Each of the numerous figures is a faithful study from a given model done with absolute simplicity and purity of method. The deep value of a picture like this, in which a faithful conscience has applied the most delicate nature-copying to every inch of the canvas, is somewhat lost upon the public, because the artist will not descend to the least device of claptrap. It is one of a series of large and studious "stage sets" which the painter has been sending out from under the wing, or from under the ægis, or from under the ferule, of Meissonier. Unfortunately that master, unapproached when painting figures in ordinary house-light, is one of the most atrocious landscapists of modern times; and his faithful pupil borrows from him a landscape style timid, dry, insipid, without felicity of color, and without distinctness of values.

In portraiture, there is not the least doubt that the striking work of the season is to be found among the sculpture. Heads like Mr. Warner's likeness of Mr. Daniel Cottier, and Mr. O'Donovan's similarly diminished studies of Homer and of William H. Beard, together with the heroic bust of Page by the latter artist, would attract immediate eulogy in Paris, or Munich, or any other centre. Mr. Warner's method, based to a slight extent on that of Carpeaux, is what to modellers is known as a painting method ; that is, instead of carefully tracing convolutions of form, as in the eyes and hair, to the utmost limit permissible, and thus making, as in the less inspired works of the Greeks, an imitative, cast-like copy of form, he boldly attacks his material in the way to make it shade his work for him arbitrarily : persuades a saliency to cast a shadow that will confer morbidezza; cuts out to exaggerated depths the defining traces that are to serve as outlines ; makes dark holes for the pupils, and raises sharp silky undulations at particular parts of the hair elsewhere kept in shadow ; it is a machinery of projections and hollows which persuade the natural daylight to shade a picture for us, instead of a mere effort to shape the material in every particular according to the shape of the original model. The only objection that has been made to the present work has been that of a want of definition ; the fact being that this was completely the meaning of the artist, who wanted to create the impression of a faintly-shaded and generalized head rather than a very positive one. The bronzes by Mr. O'Donovan are really marvellous. We know of nothing to approach them in American sculpture, and believe they could not have been excelled since Houdon ; one of them, a young man's head "craning" up out of a lean pair of shoulders with a veiled glance of astuteness, curiosity, and criticism, has got the very secret and look of life ; it has the telling quality of caricature with the caricature left out. The large bust of Mr. Page, represented in bronze and plaster, is stately, Phidian, completely noble ; its expression of flesh-texture and that of sparse blowing locks of hair are as happy as the facial expression and bearing. Mr. Carl Muller's bust in white porcelain, an energetic bas-relief in Trenton pottery, in the style of Tinworth, a caricature of the Crushed Tragedian by D. Richards, in over-finished bronze, and Hartley's "Whirlwind," a difficult fancy not quite in the artist's control, are all works of individual accent relieved from the reproach of commonplace.

Mr. Inness does not succeed, in his idealizations of American landscape, in impressing his work with that classic and truly poetic elevation

of style which belongs to his Italian views. He has several scenes, explained by texts that remind one of Turner's "Fallacies of Hope"; one passage, where the quick shudder of wind and light is passing over some willows in a storm, crisp and metallic as the glimmer on a burnished copper, is in his best and older style; but generally he exhibits strain without attainment. Mr. Tiffany, in "Laborious Rest," shows transparent children drawn through a transparent grove by a transparent sham of a gardener; the tone is good, but the modelling shows the simplest want of education. Any competent European teacher would withdraw Mr. Tiffany from his painting, which he is not ready to undertake, and put him through a course with life-models and Greek statues. His sketch in suburban New York, with confused lines of crushed shanties like lines in a heap of jackstraws, is better, but ill-composed or ill-selected. Mr. Wordsworth Thompson's "Review at Philadelphia" treats a grave historic theme in the silvery, natty, elegant, fan-painting manner of Le Poittevin, but his picture, however *bourgeois*, is simple, broad, and delicate—a grand historic motive most skilfully transferred to decorative painting. We must not forget how strong and overpowering must be the individuality which can hold its own so calmly in such a stimulus, and insist on doing, out of all the material of a great action, only that which it can do thoroughly well; it is of the sort of work of Shakspere's, when he selects out of the labors of Theseus only the attendance at comedies and the reconciling of fairy-plagued lovers. Mr. E. L. Henry, our best illustrator of old costumes and customs, gives a London coaching-scene, painted with his usual intense truthfulness. Mr. Eakins has a group of ancient professors forgetting college hours in a game of chess that has lasted well into the twilight. It is wholly admirable, and equally so for unity of composition and discrimination of character. Mr. Humphrey Moore, who, as a travelling companion of Madrazo's and Fortuny's, has some right to the Fortuny material, shows an Alhambra sentinel, asleep with finger on trigger, in powerfully managed water-color—a picture that Villegas would hardly blush to sign. But the whole exhibition yields everywhere such gems of execution, swamped by numbers and prevailing commonplace.

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, JUNE 6, 1878.

The Week.

ALL that has come to light during the week confirms our impression that the Democratic investigation really originated not in any demand on the part of the rank and file of the party but in the inner circles of the management, and was and is intended to be not a "revolutionary" but an electioneering enterprise. In fact, the Republican cry that it was an attack on Hayes's title, combined with the blind way in which the mass of the Democratic members went into the scheme, seems last week to have frightened or disgusted so many, and the expectation of any result was so small, that by Friday, according to Mr. Nordhoff, the majority would have been glad to creep out of the undertaking. The testimony taken on Saturday, however, showed that the chiefs understood their game and had kept their secret very well, and do really believe that they have secured the means of "ruining the Republicans in public esteem and making their contest this fall and in 1880 hopeless." Much of the Republican talk that the enquiry "leads logically" to "revolution" is too naïve to be sincere. It "leads logically" to a huge and probably telling campaign document, like the Republican enquiry into the frauds in this State in 1868. The Democrats are, at this writing, so elated with their success that we have heard within a day or two of a prediction by one of the chiefs that within a month Mr. Hayes will have vacated the White House, not under physical duress, but before the weight of moral reprobation which is to be excited by the forthcoming disclosures. This is a pretty and picturesque view.

The success achieved thus far consists in the testimony of Anderson, the late Supervisor of Registration in the parish of East Feliciana in Louisiana. It shows first and foremost that he is a perjured scoundrel, who is now contradicting himself in a variety of important matters. The election found him a clerk in the New Orleans Custom-house of disreputable character and antecedents, and he was detailed to supervise registration in one of the "bull-dozed" parishes. His present performances have at last elicited from the New York *Times* the confession, which it is a disgrace to the Republican press not to have made long ago, that

"He may be set down as one of the worst specimens of scoundrels whom Louisiana partisanship has produced, and every decent Republican in the land will blush for the party management that made such a creature its instrument in any service whatever. He was a Republican appointee in the New Orleans Custom-house, a Supervisor in the Republican interest in East Feliciana, and generally in close fellowship with the Republican leaders and office-holders of Louisiana. But the fact will remain that this consummate rascal was once an active participator in Republican affairs, holding confidential communications with prominent members of the party, and sustained by them in applications for the reward of confessed dishonesty. He has sold himself to the Democracy simply because the Administration refused to pay the price he attempted to exact. This alone would render his unsupported evidence valueless; but it also increases the disgust which Republican affiliation with the man at any time must excite. He is unchanged. Bad now, he was equally bad then. And we look on him with shame as having been one of the minor manipulators of the Republican machine in Louisiana at a critical stage of the country's history."

This is true and good, but, "esteemed contemporary," why did you not say it a year and a half ago, when this gang of reprobates was beginning to drag the government of a great nation through the mire? You knew it then as well as now, or had good reason to suspect it, but you went on whitewashing these villains and representing them to simple-minded Republicans at the North as philanthropic martyrs, and you ought to "blush" yourself at least two shades deeper than the common run of "decent Republicans."

Anderson's story is, in substance, that his official protests against the returns in East Feliciana, on account of Democratic intimidation, were forged by arrangement or conspiracy, and had no foundation in fact; that he had an interview in New Orleans with Mr. John Sherman and Mr. Stanley Matthews, who urged him to stick to his fraud, and that he and a fellow-conspirator, Weber, afterwards drew a letter from Mr. Sherman, telling him that neither Mr. Hayes nor himself would "ever forget the obligations under which he had placed them should they (Anderson and Weber) stand firm in the position they had taken," and guaranteeing on behalf of Mr. Hayes that "he would be provided for" after the 4th of March. The original of this letter has not been produced, and Mr. Sherman, on being confronted with the copy, said that "he believed he never wrote such a letter"; that "he had no recollection of ever writing it"; that "if it was written it must have been about" a certain date; that "at the same time there are things in the letter that he would have written," etc. This qualified denial has taken the public by surprise and produced a bad impression, owing to the fact that some days ago Mr. Sherman challenged investigation, and alleged flatly that no such letter was in existence, and that any letter of the kind ascribed to him was a forgery. He might perfectly well have refused to make any statement before the Committee about a copy, and have asked for the original. It must, too, be remembered in judging him that he is a very cautious man, and has long trained himself to get out of difficult positions by "straddling," so that his apparent evasiveness is not incompatible with the truthfulness of a flat denial that he ever wrote such a letter. It must also be said, on the other hand, that in interpreting the letter the construction to be put on obscure phrases, such as "standing firm in the position you have taken," depends a good deal on the character of the person to whom a letter is addressed. If one found such a phrase in a letter addressed to Dr. Adams or Bishop Potter, there would be no doubt that "the position" alluded to was a respectable one; but if one found it in a letter addressed to "Dublin Tricks" or "Australian Kelly," one would find it hard to believe that what was required of him was persistent fruitfulness in good works. It is right to add that Mr. Sherman seems to have taken no pains to conciliate Anderson since the election.

Mr. Stanley Matthews, it must be confessed, the Democrats have fairly hooked and landed. He has been convicted, on the testimony of his own letters, of having kept up a protracted and conciliatory correspondence with this man Anderson, of having worked hard to get him appointments, and part of this while in possession of a fraudulent written agreement entered into by Anderson with Nash, the Congressman of the district, to "suppress evidence," so as to give the district to the Republicans in return for an office in the New Orleans Custom-house, and of having replied from the United States Senate Chamber with almost abject submissiveness to the abuse and insults and threats of this paltry scoundrel. This correspondence every respectable American of both parties will read with pain, for it means the fall of a man whom, though everybody knew him to be a somewhat foolish politician and a ridiculous financier, all supposed to be a gentleman and a man of honor.

The President does not seem to be touched by any of the revelations. He appears to have recommended Anderson for a consulship "in a warm climate," believing that he had suffered by the discharge of his duty in Louisiana, but to have refused to have any intercourse with him on becoming better acquainted with his character. But there were fatal objections from the beginning, which he ought to have perceived, to quartering these Southern politicians on the public service. Mr. Hayes must have been very guileless or very unobservant not to have known or suspected that nobody who during the last ten years had come to the surface in Louisiana poli-

tics was likely to be above reproach, or to be capable of appointment to office at the hands of a civil-service reformer without giving scandal. The other "visiting statesmen" who got offices—Messrs. Noyes and Stoughton—are, it seems, coming home to testify. The connection of Judge Harlan, of the Supreme Court, with Anderson through Mr. Stanley Matthews is also a very unpleasant feature in the affair.

The persons who believe in the "logical" approach of "revolution" are still making no preparations for it beyond warning other people (in the newspapers) to get ready for it. Now, one act of substantial anticipation would be worth two months' preaching. Let some alarmist step forward and say: "I have done this or that with my property; I have fortified my house, or I have removed my family to Canada, or I feel sad about my country in the evenings and do not sleep and have no appetite," and it will be worth any amount of "beating the long roll" in editorial articles. We have to repeat our conviction to business men that it is all an electioneering dodge, and that the notion that Tilden will ever appear as a *pronunciador* is ludicrous. A crown would not tempt him as the result of an émeute, while $1,000 as the result of shrewd management and secret intrigue would tickle him greatly. In any event, we have to repeat our prediction that it is Gail Hamilton, and not the Great Silent Man, who will command on the Republican side. If the responsibility is fairly put upon her and she is supplied with adequate means, we warrant within three months there will not be a discontented Democrat in the country outside caves and hollow trunks of trees. If she is interfered with, of course we may have failure and disaster even under her, but she will not be interfered with; our people have learnt wisdom in military matters by bitter experience.

The two Houses of Congress have agreed on June 17 as the date of final adjournment. The Senate has passed the Legislative Appropriation Bill, and the bill to provide for an additional judge for the Seventh Circuit (Indiana and Illinois). On Monday Mr. Hamlin endeavored to carry his measure to restore the franking privilege, but was unsuccessful, the vote being a tie. Mr. Blaine introduced a resolution calling for the correspondence between our Government and that of Great Britain "in regard to inviting other maritime powers to accede to the three rules prescribing the duty of neutral governments, as set forth in the sixth article of the Treaty of Washington." On Tuesday there was an animated discussion over the Brazilian subsidy, against which very effective speeches were made by Senators Kernan, of New York, and Whyte, of Maryland, the one representing a State for whose support the bill makes a bid; the other, a State whose chief commercial city will be greatly injured by the success of the bill. The House passed on Tuesday a bill to reorganize the coast life-saving service, and gratified Mr. Wood by going into Committee of the Whole on his Tariff bill, but only for the space of two hours for general debate. The Committee refused to rise at the end of that time, being evidently bent on killing the bill then and there. They were only prevented by Mr. Wood's procuring the reading of the bill in detail, and finally agreed to take on Wednesday a test-vote on the question of striking out the enacting clause.

The Senate Committee on Foreign Relations has made an excellent report on the Fisheries Award, in which, while pronouncing the award exorbitant, and possibly *ultra vires*, they do not recommend a refusal to pay it if the British Government, after hearing our representations on the subject, should "conclude and declare that it was lawfully and honorably due"; but express the hope that the interest of Great Britain in the success of the principle of arbitration may lead her to see that no settlement of a dispute can be considered satisfactory which is not based on "mutual content"—a very just observation which we trust will be borne in mind in disposing of the Geneva Award surplus. After going once more into the figures of the award by way of showing its excessiveness, the Committee recommend that the utmost care be taken to disabuse the minds of the Canadian and British Governments and people of the notion that the United States will ever accept the award as a just measure of the value of the inshore fisheries in Canadian waters, and report a concurrent resolution authorizing the President to pay the award if, after correspondence with the British Government, he shall deem that such payment is demanded by the honor and good faith of the nation. The Senate adopted this report on Saturday, with an amendment offered by Mr. Edmunds, to the effect that in the judgment of Congress Articles 18 and 21 of the Washington Treaty ought to be terminated at the earliest day consistent with Article 33.

The President, we regret to say, has signed without a word of protest the bill which partially repeals the Resumption Act, and commits the Government to the issue of legal-tender paper in time of peace by directing the reissue of the redeemed greenbacks by the Treasury. This comes in unpleasant coincidence with the reports from Washington that the machine-men make no further complaints of him as regards appointments, and that the prospects of "harmony in the party" grow brighter and brighter. The *Commercial Bulletin* of this city has, however, pointed out that it will probably not be in the power of the Secretary to obey the law, inasmuch as all demands on the Government are already provided for by the taxes, so that the greenbacks received for gold would have to lie where the gold lay, unless the revenues fell short of the expenditures and the deficit was not otherwise provided for. In the meantime we trust steps will be at once taken, if any of these redeemed greenbacks are reissued, to test before the Supreme Court the power of Congress, in times of profound peace, to make the volume of the currency an issue in every election. The question cannot be decided too soon.

The Iowa State Democratic Convention met on Wednesday of last week, but neither the work before it—the nomination of minor State officers whom the party has no chance of electing—nor the improved prospects of the party at large seemed to excite much enthusiasm. The platform is brief. On the question of Communism it says truly that "labor and capital have an equal demand upon and equal responsibility before the law." Its views on the currency do not differ from the usual party shibboleth. As regards the Electoral frauds investigation it urges that the truth should be vindicated, "and criminals punished in accordance with the law wherever found." The Alabama Democratic Convention, meeting on the same day, filled its platform with praise of the party and denunciation of the Republicans, avoiding any declaration of sentiment concerning the prominent measures and problems of the day. For the blacks it had this admonition: "While we renew the pledges of protection to all the colored people, we recognize and hold essential that, without abridging the rights of any class, these great results have been achieved and can alone be maintained by the union of the great governing race—the white people of the land." It closed with a declaration of the party's intention "to preserve inviolate its obligations to the people and to the bona-fide creditors of the State."

The importers of this city, representing a capital of $30,000,000, and paying from $30,000,000 to $40,000,000 annually in duties, have sent in an elaborate memorial to the Treasury, which, after making every allowance for exaggeration, constitutes a very formidable indictment of the whole system of *ad-valorem* duties. They say in substance that they are treated by the Custom-house officers as presumptively fraudulent in their designs, and that the local appraisers are stimulated in their hostility to them both by Treasury agents and by the home manufacturers, who look on the tariff not so much as a means of raising revenue as of repressing what they consider the nefarious practice of introducing foreign goods into this country; that the appraisers, therefore, make no allowance for purchases made under peculiarly advantageous circumstances, or with unusual sagacity, or on a large scale, and treat everybody who puts his goods down lower than the highest prices paid by anybody as a probable

knave. Some of their requests sound like the petitions which Greek merchants used to present to the Grand Turk in the old days, before the Tanzimat, such as that in test cases raised to settle values for the whole trade they may be allowed to be represented by counsel, and cross-examine witnesses, and offer explanations to enable them to protect themselves against the Treasury agents, who now attend all such investigations and act virtually as the attorney of the home manufacturer; and that the subordinate officers may be forbidden, whenever they discover evidence against one merchant, from "attacking all merchants in that particular line of trade."

The women who are most prominent in the agitation of the "Woman Question" in this city called an indignation meeting to protest against Judge Hilton's conduct in the matter of the Woman's Hotel, on Tuesday last, in the great hall of the Cooper Union, and the response must have surprised and delighted them. They never had such an audience in their lives before, and probably never will again. The room was packed. The majority were women, eager to stamp with execration Hilton's unhallowed suggestion that his hotel was left empty because he put too much restriction on the social intercourse of the sexes; but there was a large body of men, who had evidently come to enjoy the fun of hearing female orators pour vituperation on a man, and the hotter and stronger it was the more they cheered and laughed. When Matilda Fletcher, in black velvet and Valenciennes lace, warned the dry-goods tyrant that this country was no monarchy, and that if it were he could never be king of it, there were thunders of applause. The speeches were mostly "hits" and jokes, and the proceedings closed with elocutionary recitations. For those who look forward to women taking a serious part in the political business of the country the spectacle was on the whole a painful one, and as a protest against Hilton's real offence it was worthless. His failure to execute the Stewart trust is unquestioned, and it ought to receive grave criticism. It was worse than absurd to provide a luxurious hotel for "working-women," and to fix the price so high that few or none of the class could pay it, and to surround the enjoyment of the benefaction with vexatious restrictions. But none of these things seems to have brought so much wrath on him as the insinuation that his hotel failed because it was not a good place to find a husband in. It were better for him now that he had never been born, or that, instead of being a dry-goods prince, he were wandering, unencumbered with either woollens, or cottons, or linens, in some tropical forest.

The Syndicate on the last day of May took from the Treasury the remaining $15,000,000 of United States 4½ per cent. bonds necessary to complete the $50,000,000 bargained for on the 11th day of April. This ensures the Treasury $50,000,000 of gold for resumption purposes in addition to the amounts to be derived from other sources and the amount already secured. The coin-balance of the Treasury at the close of May was nearly $190,000,000 gross, against about $108,000,000 at the close of May, 1877. On the unfavorable side of the resumption account, however, is the fact that the Senate before the close of May passed the House bill to prevent further contraction of the legal-tender-note circulation, and the President, forgetful of his pledges in regard to the Resumption Act, signed the bill, so that it becomes a law before the reduction for May, which could only take effect at the end of the month, could be secured. This bill, therefore, leaves the legal-tender-note circulation where it stood at the end of April—at $346,681,016—and it fixes this as the minimum amount of these notes. Of course this bill repeals a part of the Resumption Act, just as the Silver Bill defeats the kind of specie payments contemplated by that Act. Silver in London has ruled at 53¼*d.* to 53⅜*d.* per ounce, and at the close of the week the bullion value of the new silver dollar was $0.9010 gold. The gold value of a United States legal note for one dollar at the close of the week was $0.9925 gold. Investment securities were in strong demand during the week, notably railroad investments.

A formal official announcement that the Congress will meet has at length been made, and the invitation has been issued. It proposes to the Powers who were signataries of the Treaties of 1856 and 1871 "to meet in Congress at Berlin, to discuss there the stipulations of the preliminary treaty of San Stefano concluded between Russia and Turkey," and assumes that in accepting it each Power consents to admit the free discussion of the whole of the contents of the Treaty of San Stefano. On this basis England and all the other Powers have accepted; but it is difficult to see in this what the concessions are on either side which have made the Congress possible, and if they exist, they are probably concealed in a private understanding to be produced at the Congress. Russia agreed from the first to a discussion of the whole Treaty, but reserved to herself the right of deciding how much of the results of the discussion she would accept. This right she apparently reserves still, for no Power engages to accept the decision of the Congress as binding, nor does any Power pledge itself to go to war to enforce it. In fact, the Congress, as far as appears on the surface, is to be an occasion for an interchange of views and an opportunity for coming to terms, but is not to be a tribunal before which Russia is to appear as an "orator" in equity. When the talk is over, each Power will have that liberty of action which Prince Gortchakoff demanded in the beginning—that is, the liberty of fighting if it is not willing to concede what the others demand. If some preliminary arrangement between Russia and England does not reveal itself at the Congress there has been much negotiation about nothing. Lords Beaconsfield and Salisbury are both to represent England.

Another characteristic scandal has overtaken the English Ministry in the appointment of Colonel Wellesley, a young officer of the Guards, to a diplomatic position at Vienna over the heads of ninety civil members of the regular service. He was military commissioner at the Russian headquarters during the war, and while there the freedom of his criticisms on the Russian staff led to a quarrel with the Grand Duke Nicholas, which was afterwards patched up, but this is all that was remarkable in his career. The defence of the appointment by the Ministry was simply that his close knowledge of the recent course of events rendered him very valuable just at this juncture; but this is too flimsy to bear examination, and it is freely acknowledged in London, even by the friends of the Government, that the appointment is a case of "connection" and Court influence—or, in other words, "a job"—and, at the same time, a slap at the Liberal civil-service system.

The second, and nearly successful, attempt to assassinate the Emperor of Germany, which has caused such a deep sensation in Europe, will probably precipitate some very violent repressive legislation against Socialism, that will convert open agitation into secret plotting. But it will also, like the Paris Commune, spread a good deal of uneasiness through the whole of Germany. The fear that many of those among whom one lives have thrown aside all restraints of religion and custom, and care nothing for legal penalties, and are seized with a kind of madness, is horrible, and this is the fear that Socialism inspires. The uselessness of killing an old emperor, like the uselessness of burning Paris, does not trouble these maniacs; what they seek is to startle the busy and happy and civilized, and make them heed them. The Berlin correspondent of the London *Times*, who is an exceptionally careful observer, maintains that the appearance of the Red Spectre in Germany is due to Bismarck's folly in starting universal suffrage in a country wholly unprepared for it by education or traditions, in order to set off the working-classes against the middle-class Liberals, who had opposed him so vexatiously prior to 1866. If this be true, he has probably raised the devil and will not see him laid in his time. The Emperor appears to have had a wonderful escape, having received a charge of small shot or slugs at close range. The perpetrator is a Ph.D., and apparently a desperate adventurer. He has attempted to commit suicide and is reported dying.

DEVELOPMENT BY SUBSIDIES.

IN their public-land policy the people of the United States have usually acted upon the idea that it was incumbent on them to "develop" all the unsettled country between the two oceans during the period of a single generation. The fertile acres, rich mines, and teeming forests of the West were sufficiently tempting to private cupidity, and might have been safely left to individual and corporate enterprise without other stimulus. The pressure of population in the Old World was sure to bring immigrants in large numbers and capital in increasing volume to so inviting a territory. But the ordinary processes of development were too slow. At first the public lands were offered at the minimum price of $1 25 per acre—a very moderate figure considering the fruitfulness of the soil, the abundance of water-ways, and the advantages which a settled government and almost entire freedom from taxation afforded. The plan of giving away lands to private corporations did not lay hold of the public mind suddenly. It was preceded by a system of limited donations to the new States to aid in the construction of canals and for the establishment of schools and universities. Next came the system of bounty-warrants to soldiers, resulting in an immense land speculation at the close of the war with Mexico. Only an insignificant part of the public domain, however, could be got rid of in this way. The era of railway construction by donations of land came next. It commenced about the year 1850, and was confined at first to sections or tracts which had been for a long period surveyed and in vain offered for sale at the minimum price fixed by law. Such lands, it was argued, could never be sold at any price without means of communication, and the Government could be made whole by giving one-half of the lands to railroad companies and charging double price for the remainder. The scheme was so far successful that the lands were got rid of. The railroad companies went forward with such eagerness that they generally attained bankruptcy before the adjacent country was settled. The alternate sections were bought largely by speculators who eventually reached the same goal.

These untoward results did not disturb the minds of the "developers." On the contrary, the rule which had been first applied to lands that had been in the market and remained unsold for twenty years or more was extended to all public lands whatsoever, surveyed and unsurveyed. Any company brave enough to undertake a railroad anywhere could have as much land as it wanted. Then the Homestead Act was passed, giving a farm to any settler, upon condition of occupancy and improvement. Even this was not enough to satisfy the rage for development. Sundry millions of acres were voted in a lump to establish agricultural colleges in all the States, and the scrip representing this land was vigorously hawked and advertised, while agents of immigration spread themselves all over Western Europe and Eastern America. The mad race was checked by the panic of 1873, which will be for ever associated with the attempt of the Northern Pacific Company to turn some forty-seven million acres of unexplored and unknown territory into cash fast enough to keep down the interest on some twenty-seven millions of bonds. The failure of this huge enterprise turned the thoughts of enterprising men like Col. Thos. A. Scott toward the national Treasury as a means of still further converting lands into legal tender. The Northern Pacific fell with so violent a crash, its chief promoters were so paralyzed, and the whole scheme so exposed to derision, from the business man's point of view, that an appeal to Congress for aid in the way of subsidy to it had no chance of success. The Texas Pacific had not dragged its thousands of investing clergymen, deacons, and country school-teachers to ruin. Its 7.30s had not become a butt of ridicule alike to Wall Street and the rural cross-roads. It might, therefore, appeal once more to the public passion for compelling all unoccupied lands to be settled immediately; and, since the ordinary courses of settlement had been interrupted and immigration practically stopped, a money subsidy in addition to an existing land subsidy might possibly be obtained. Congress is expected to pass upon this question during the few remaining days of the present session, notice of intention to call it up having been given in both houses, and Senator Lamar, of Mississippi, having invoked the wandering attention of the country to it by a speech of considerable length and ingenuity.

The salient features of this scheme, and the obvious mischiefs which it drags in its train, both political and economical, have been frequently set forth in these columns. We propose to address ourselves now to the supposed need of opening up new lands to cultivation and settlement by artificial means and governmental assistance. If it be a desirable thing that all the remaining territory of the United States available for tillage and pasturage should be speedily occupied, it can be shown that the conditions favorable to such a result are now in full play, and that not a dollar of public money or a guaranteed bond is needed to stimulate the movement of population toward the unsettled regions of the West and Southwest. It is a marked feature of all our financial crises that after a period of stupefaction, despondency, and stagnation, more or less protracted, the men of small savings and good habits, who have been living on diminishing wages, and have seen the avenues of employment narrowing around them in the towns and cities, begin to contemplate agriculture as a resource capable of furnishing a home and the means of independent livelihood under all circumstances. A movement to the unoccupied portions of the public domain then sets in. The displaced artisans and mechanics either buy out small farmers in their own neighborhood, who are thus pushed westward to new lands, or migrate themselves to the most fertile and accessible districts of which they can obtain any knowledge. This was the distinctive course of social and industrial development shortly after the panic of 1837. The same symptoms had begun to show themselves after that of 1857, until the outbreak of the war turned the public energies into a new channel. The same movement has commenced again in full force; and Texas, having the largest amount of new land of all the frontier States, has derived the greatest advantage from it. There are no statistics available to show the extent of the westward migration from year to year, but all accounts represent that it is heavy, continuous, and of extremely good character at the present time, extending from Dakota on the north to Texas on the south. The land sales of railway companies having land grants to dispose of have been large and remunerative, and the only portions of the country that can be called really prosperous are those which Congress is urged to "develop" by subsidies—that is, by taxing the less prosperous portions.

Is there any need, however, of peopling all the unoccupied domain, and ploughing all the unsubdued acres, during the lifetime of this generation? We know that population will increase, and that new lands will be brought under cultivation according to certain economic laws, as long as there are any new lands to be cultivated. We know, too, that our own public domain is not an unlimited quantity; that after Texas and the belt between the base of the Rocky Mountains and the present limits of settlement in Kansas and Nebraska (which may be roughly fixed at two hundred and fifty miles beyond the Missouri River) are filled up, there will be nothing left for migrating populations except the thinly-tenanted South. For when Texas is once fairly filled, Virginia will have some chance of development by means of a thrifty immigration. Our purpose, however, is not to show what will happen after the unoccupied area is settled, but to point out that the process is going on with sufficient rapidity, that its full consummation is not far distant, and that especially it does not need the stimulus of appropriations from the public Treasury to urge it into greater activity. Little enough room has been left for the next generation to expand in. If we cannot rightfully set bounds to the roving, peopling, and subduing tendencies of the Anglo-American, we may be sure, when we look back one hundred years and when we look forward twenty, that the last thing needed to bring Texas under fence and plough is a guarantee of railroad bonds by the Government of the United States.

Senator Lamar looks upon Colonel Scott's railroad enterprise rather as a means of developing the South generally than of Texas

in particular. The South, he says, has cotton in practically unlimited quantity, and water-power in like abundance. What she needs to become a great cloth-manufacturing country is a railroad to the Pacific coast, furnishing a short route to China, Japan, and the west coast of South America. Statistics showing the amount of cotton goods manufactured in the South and sold to countries accessible without any Pacific Railroad—the West Indies, Central America, Brazil, the Argentine Republic, etc.—implying a surplus not to be disposed of in the ordinary way, would have made Mr. Lamar's argument more telling. Information touching the quantity of cotton goods shipped from New England, where there really is a surplus, *via* the existing Pacific Railroad, to China, Japan, and the west coast of South America, would have been even more satisfactory. The South has, indeed, some marked advantages for the production of cotton cloth, and the growth of her manufacturing industry since the close of the war excites the commendation and good wishes of the North and East; but to tell us that a railway of two thousand miles or more through an uninhabited and largely uninhabitable cactus desert, to carry such a bulky article as cotton-cloth for transhipment by steamer to still more distant lands, is the special desideratum of the spinning industry—that the want of such a railway is a drawback and incubus upon the growth of that industry at the present time—is something we had not expected from so independent and grave a Senator. We take leave to pronounce it sorry stuff, and to hold it in even less respect than the argument based upon the need of rapidly colonizing and settling the few scraps of valuable public domain not yet occupied.

VOLTAIRE IN POLITICS.

THE application of Bishop Dupanloup to the French Ministers in the Senate, the other day, to prohibit the proposed public celebration at Paris of the one hundredth anniversary of Voltaire's death, coupled with the formation of a committee containing some of the best-known names in French aristocratic and religious society to raise funds for the purpose of exposing the philosopher (*le faire connaître tel qu'il est*), is a striking illustration of the power his name still preserves in his own country. But it is a more striking illustration still of the way in which the Catholic Church adapts its action in all matters relating to politics to the latitude in which it is working. In no other country in Europe would so considerable a man, and on the whole so sensible a politician, as Bishop Dupanloup have asked the Government to prevent the admirers of a great writer from dining and perorating in honor of his memory; and the reason is that in no other country would he come so near being listened to as in the very one in which Voltaire made his mark on political and religious thought. That the bishop should have seen nothing absurd in the application is easily understood when one reads the controversy which has just been raging between Prince Napoleon and General Türr on the one side and the Duc de Gramont on the other, in the *Revue des Deux Mondes* and in the daily press, touching the reason why Italy took no part in the war of 1870 on the side of France. It appears to be clearly proved by the prince and the general that a treaty of alliance, offensive and defensive, with special reference to Germany, had been all but concluded between France, Italy, and Austria when the war broke out, and that the sole or main reason why the negotiations failed and France was left to act alone was the refusal of the Imperial Government to yield the evacuation of Rome and the overthrow of the temporal power, which Italy, with the support even of Austria, insisted on as the price of her aid. It was not, of course, the clerical influence exclusively which brought France to grief—the amazing ignorance and *insouciance* of the military men of the Empire had much to do with it—but this influence was mainly instrumental in depriving her of allies which would almost certainly have overpowered Germany, and probably made the map of Europe something very different from what it is, and have left France in the enjoyment of unprecedented influence and authority.

The effect of the catastrophe is heightened by the fact, to which good Catholics are loudest in calling our attention, that the loss of the temporal power has not diminished by one iota the power of the Church over the consciences of her worshippers. If France had saved religion, and prevented a break in the line of Apostolic Succession, by flinging herself singlehanded on the German hosts, she would have something to show for her splendid folly that would command even the admiration of sceptics; but, as far as one can see, the loss of Rome has not in the smallest degree deranged the machinery of the Papacy, or deprived its dicta of a particle of weight in the forum of faith. And yet France, even in the first moments of Republican enthusiasm after 1848, had no hesitation in setting up the temporal sovereignty with her bayonets, and for twenty years maintained it with "blood and iron"; and then, at the very last, there was probably no feature in the Imperial programme which met with more approval in 1869 than M. Rouher's passionate declaration that "Italy should never have Rome—never, never." It is not surprising, therefore, that seven years later a Catholic bishop should see nothing absurd or vain in asking to have Frenchmen forbidden to render public honor to the memory of one of the most famous Frenchmen, because he was one of the Church's most ferocious enemies.

Nor is it surprising that the Catholic Church, either in France or elsewhere, does not pardon or forget Voltaire. Many of the things which lead lay politicians, both Catholic and Protestant, in our time to look on him with more respect than was the fashion fifty or sixty years ago, can have but little weight with a body which claims the possession of infallible authority with regard to the unseen world. Voltaire has recovered from the discredit which for a while covered the memory of everybody who contributed conspicuously to the French Revolution, under the influence of the calm study which the state of things that preceded the Revolution has received since the peace of 1815, and the renewed ascendency of liberal opinions. Most enlightened men for the last fifty years, whether religious or sceptic, have felt that were they face to face with ecclesiastical and political organizations such as church and state were in France in the middle of the last century, they would attack them themselves, and be thankful if they could attack them with Voltaire's ferocious wit and dauntless courage. Ridicule, too, which was Voltaire's greatest weapon, and which in his time was, as against dignified and sacred or long-established men or things, something inexpressibly shocking and monstrous, has come to be a favorite and most effective means of bringing about political and religious changes. It has made its way into every kind of controversy, and is resorted to by every kind of writer and orator. In fact, Voltaire may be called the inventor of the mode of discussion now most common in the periodical press—that is, the quick *reductio ad absurdum*, and light satire, which plants its darts as it flies. Before his time, and long after it, controversialists assailed each other by laboriously constructed approaches, the design of which, if it ever appeared at all, appeared only near the close of the fray. The letters of Junius are now very dull reading. Very few first-class newspapers would be willing to admit them to their columns, and hardly anybody in public life would fear his attacks; the preparations for them are so ponderous that nobody's attention would wait to see the blow fall. But Voltaire would make the fortune of any "great journal" in our day, and would be pestered to death by the editors of monthlies and bi-monthlies, and would prove an invaluable champion of any "cause" he took up, because he would make its enemies the laughing-stock of the civilized world.

His social and political ideal, too, if one can construct an ideal out of the things a man hates, was very much the social and political ideal which a large part of the world has now reached, and is avowedly striving after—that is, a state of things in which people are sensible, moderate, tolerant, and good-humored, neither racked by great fears nor strung by high hopes, and in which the schoolman's rule, "de non apparentibus et non existentibus eadem est ratio," is rigidly acted on. Among the comfortable classes—the French bourgeoisie, for example, whose social philosophy Voltaire has done much to frame—this ideal produces no very alarming or startling results, but the Church derives a good deal of justification for its

horror of it and of its author from its working in the lower strata of modern society. To say that Voltaire was the father of Communism would seem at first sight absurd, and yet the notion that this world is not only the best of all possible worlds but the only world, that the good things of this life are all the good things we can ever hope for, that it is the business of a wise man to get all he can out of it while he is in it and not to trouble his head about what comes after, and that religion is a cunning device of the fortunate and their friends the priests by which they get the poor to go without their rightful share, which lies at the basis of Communism, is certainly the Voltairean philosophy in clumsy hands and thick heads. It makes such headway that it is not surprising that the Church does not get over its horror of him as readily as lay reformers, many of whom fancy they would enjoy seeing his sharp and glittering axe laid to the roots of some venerable trees in our own day.

AMONG THE REVOLUTIONISTS.

WASHINGTON, June 3, 1878.

WASHINGTON has never justified more thoroughly its reputation as a capital of sensations and surprises than within the past forty-eight hours. Down to Saturday the prevailing impression here, not merely among Republicans but Democrats as well, was that the Electoral conspiracy investigation had failed before it had begun. The despatches in the *Herald* reflected accurately, as they usually do, the general feeling. Mr. Potter had been persuaded into taking the leadership of an investigation the results of which were known in advance. When the enquiry was first proposed, Mr. Proctor Knott, the Chairman of the House Judiciary Committee, had been asked to take it in hand, and had very naturally insisted before doing so on knowing what it was expected to prove. The proofs were laid before him, and he refused to have anything to do with it. Mr. Sherman had been interviewed, and he had emphatically denied writing any letters at all to anybody in Louisiana during the recanvass of the returns of that State in 1876. Anderson, the principal witness for the Democrats, was a low rascal, discredited already in one investigation, in which it had been shown that he had offered his services for a consideration to both sides. Day before yesterday the Republicans were looking forward to the investigation almost with pleasure; certainly without fear. On Saturday evening, however, their feelings had undergone a sad change. Anderson had been examined, and, strange to say, notwithstanding his remarkable admissions of guilty complicity, appeared well as a witness. This is not denied by the Republicans themselves. Sherman had gone before the Committee and denied, in a qualified manner, having written the letter a copy of which was produced; and yet his denial did not carry conviction with it. The whole story of Anderson, his doubts, fears, and temptations, his relations with his "pal" Weber, his negotiations with Sherman and Stanley Matthews, his memorandum from the President to Mr. Evarts suggesting that his was a "special case," and recommending him for a consulship in "some warm climate"—all hung together, and made, to say the least, a story difficult to upset. On Saturday night the Democrats were jubilant. The "boys" manifested that migratory disposition which in times of political excitement always makes Washington a lively place, while the Republicans were correspondingly depressed and crestfallen.

But Anderson's testimony, if we are to believe the inferences drawn from it here, has not merely accomplished all this; it has produced more permanent and far-reaching results. It has carried the next House for the Democrats; it has made "fraud" the only living issue between the two parties; it has galvanized anew the vital current in the veins of the distinguished Democratic candidate, vituperated by his quondam followers as "the Mummy of Gramercy Park"; it has made Mr. Clarkson Potter next governor of New York, Mr. Tilden the nominee of the Democrats for President in 1880, and General Grant the candidate of the Republicans. Anderson may certainly congratulate himself on his success. Never before did a corrupt supervisor of elections accomplish so much in so brief a space of time.

It may be said that this political horoscope is premature; but all horoscopes in politics are; and what I shall endeavor to present to you in this letter is not the real probabilities, but the probabilities as they present themselves to our minds here. We are, you must remember, excited. We are nervous over the events with which the future is big. The mountains are in labor, and, instead of an absurd mouse, behold a terrible and corrupt conspiracy against all our liberties is what they have given birth to. Suppose yourself a Republican (a "stalwart" Republican) politician, and ask yourself what your feelings would be. You begin by a dislike, not unmingled with something like contempt, for Mr. Hayes. He has made up a Cabinet without real party strength; he has destroyed his influence by his preposterous notions about civil-service reform; he has not nominated (until very recently, since he has been frightened into it) the men you recommended for office; he has disorganized the party without building up a new one. Finally, he has got himself into a disgraceful mess with his "visiting statesmen" and their Louisiana count, and, instead of doing anything to get himself out of it, has made exposure certain by quarrelling with the leaders of his own party who were in possession of many of the facts. In such a slough of despond as this where is help to come from? There is one quarter where it has never yet failed. There is one man who has not merely saved the Union, but the Republican party as well; there is one man who knows how to drive Democrats off, either from the "tented field" or from the "political arena," like frightened sheep. From Fort Donaldson to Appomattox Court-House it was always Democrats that General Grant was beating. When the war was over, it was General Grant who stood by Congress in its efforts to reconstruct the South. It was Grant who carried out the Congressional policy from 1868 to 1872. When the reformers held their convention in Cincinnati, and gave the Democrats their nominee in 1872, it was again Grant who swept the country for the "grand old party"; and it was Grant again who by his judicious use of troops while the count was going on, and his magnanimous return to peaceful methods after the Electoral Commission had been decided on, enabled the party to triumph as far as it did triumph in 1876. And who else is there to turn to? What is Conkling, with all his beauty and eloquence? The States he can carry in a convention can be counted on one finger of one hand. What is Blaine? He is beaten and out of the race. There are no others. It is flying in the face of Providence not to try the third term and Grant—the patient, silent man who has stood so much obloquy and abuse, and has never flinched or played the reformer.

Now look at the situation as it presents itself to the Democrats. Oaths and imprecations fill the air when Mr. Tilden's name is mentioned. It is not only Mr. Mills, of Texas, who dislikes him; half the Democratic members of Congress would hugely enjoy the spectacle of his final consignment to private life, and if you had asked any one of them on Friday of last week what his chances for 1880 were, he would have told you that they did not exist. To-day he would tell quite a different story. Anderson has changed the face of politics. Yesterday I asked a strong anti-Tilden Democrat, a prominent man in the House, what he thought of the situation. He declared that the investigation, if successful, would give his party the next House of Representatives, and make it almost impossible to nominate any one against Tilden. The origin of this belief is not difficult to trace. In 1876 the party was triumphantly carried through the campaign under Tilden's leadership, and since that it has been trying to get on without him. It must be confessed that it has failed lamentably. It has no union and no strength and no policy. Its platform in 1876 pledged it to repeal the Resumption Act, and also to bring in measures better adapted to secure resumption. It has produced since nothing but wild schemes of inflation and repudiation. It has undertaken to deal with the army question, with the tariff question, with the tax question; and thus far it has accomplished nothing. Meanwhile it has been steadily assured by its "lost leader" and his organs that there was only one path open to it—to make the frauds of 1876 its *cheval de bataille*, to drive the Republicans completely out of power by exposure of them and the shame and disgust sure to follow exposure, and finally to put the reins in the hands of the only man who knows how to guide them.

Such is the situation as it appears to Democrats and to Republicans. It may be worth while to add a few words as to the way in which it might fairly strike the members of that third party which has played such a curious rôle in politics since the close of the war. In the first place, it is probably entirely safe to assume that the "revolution" of which the newspapers have been talking for some time is indefinitely postponed. If Anderson's evidence can be corroborated, the investigation will seem to be justified, and all talk of its being a sinister attempt to upset Hayes's title will cease. As the member of Congress already quoted cynically observed to me in speaking of this: "We don't want to do anything to his title. If this evidence is true, his title is the best thing there is about him." The revolution, too, is rendered highly improbable by what may be almost called the material obstacles in the way. It is impossible for the Democrats to do anything to attack Hayes's title until they are in control of

both Houses. The Senate does not become Democratic until next March; and even if the next House is overwhelmingly Democratic, the new Congress does not meet until December, 1879, six months away from the campaign of 1880. Supposing the present state of affairs to continue, it would for those six months obviously be better for the Opposition to have Hayes in the White House than to make an absurd disturbance which would enable the Republicans to cry revolution and call in General Grant and "troops." With Hayes in office during those six months, and a Democratic Senate, the civil service, which is the most effective means of keeping a party in power, will be rendered to a great extent useless, and the Democrats, with both branches of Congress in their control, would have a far better chance at the Presidency by peaceful than by revolutionary measures. Leaving the revolution out of view, we are, therefore, confronted with the strong probability that in 1880 we shall once more see the Democrats and Republicans facing each other without any third reform party intervening to draw off votes.

THE LONDON EXHIBITIONS—THE ROYAL ACADEMY.

LONDON, May 11, 1878.

I BELIEVE that every year the Academy is pronounced "rather worse than usual"; but I suspect that there is little doubt that the exhibition of 1878 is decidedly weak. It is not an exhibition from which it would be agreeable to the indigenous mind to think that a Frenchman, a German, even an Italian, should derive his ultimate impression of contemporary English art. There is a great deal of vulgarity, of triviality and crudity, and of that singular "goodness," as one may say for want of a better word, with a certain dose of which the average English painter appears to have discovered it to be needful to flavor his picture in order to make it palatable to the average English purchaser. Even if the pictures were better at the Academy, there would, to a visitor from another country, be something more interesting than their technical merit: I mean the evidence they should offer as to the English mind and character—the English way of thinking and feeling about all things, art included. M. Taine has often been quoted as to the *moralizing* character of English art; not that he is the only person who has ever noticed it, but because he appears, in his very suggestive 'Notes sur l'Angleterre'—a book which was, I believe, the result of a very short visit on the author's own part, but which a long stay on the part of a foreign reader only seems to render more pregnant—to have expressed it better than any one else. At all events, I never go into an exhibition of English pictures without being strongly reminded of M. Taine; I put on his spectacles; I seem to see so well what he meant. With M. Taine's spectacles you immediately see that the exhibition is only in a secondary sense *plastic;* that the plastic quality is not what English spectators look for in a picture, or what the artist has taken the precaution of putting into it. The artist must tell a story or preach a sermon; his picture must not be an image, but, in some fashion or other, a lesson; not a reproduction of form and color, but of life and experience.

The only strongly "plastic" pictures I can think of in the present Academy are the charming "Nausicaa" and "Winding the Skein" of Mr. Frederick Leighton, both representations of antique figures, of which the interest is in attitude and outline. It is impossible to be more graceful and elegant, and more keenly artistic, than Mr. Leighton; he strikes me as one of the few English painters who have had an artistic training that would be considered thorough by a high French standard. His taste and discretion are infallible, and he has a love of purity and clearness of outline which it does one good to encounter. But in Mr. Leighton's plasticism there is something vague and conciliatory; it is as if he thought that to be more plastic than that would not be quite gentlemanly. He may, however, I think, be said to be the one painter of eminence who bridges over the gulf existing between French and English art. He has an exquisite sense of form, and he has, in addition, the merit of being what I have called gentlemanly to a degree that is rare among the devotees of form on the other side of the Channel. His "Winding the Skein" (two Greek girls, on a terrace, against the sky) is quite the most strictly beautiful—indeed, I think the only very beautiful—work in the Academy.

In any exhibition in which Mr. Millais appears, Mr. Millais is always the strongest genius present; though his pictures on particular occasions may be by no means the best. But it is interesting to see how he, rich and strong in the painter's temperament as he is, shirks, as it were, and coquets with, the plastic obligation, and plays into the hands of the public desire for something more amusing or more edifying. Mr. Millais always knows throughly well what he is about, and when he paints very badly he is certainly aware of it, and of just how it serves his turn; indeed, I may say that to paint so badly as Mr. Millais occasionally does a great deal of knowledge must be brought to bear. Of course, in his portraits there is less begging of the question—less of a tendency to solve the problem on side-issues—than in his "subjects"; but even in his portraits it is amusing to see the tendency crop up, as in the case of the sketch of the beautiful Mrs. Langtrey—the lady whose photographs, in every possible attitude and costume, are in all the shop-windows, and who appears to be, with the London public, in the remarkable position of a person whose beauty has become legendary—become a household word, even in her lifetime. Mrs. Langtrey's admirable beauty is quite of the antique, classical, formal, and, to return to the word I began with using, plastic order: but Mr. Millais paints her as if he meant to make her pass for the heroine of a serial in a magazine, and, to carry out the impression, calls his picture "A Jersey Lily"—the lady being a native of that fortunate island. A much better, indeed, a very fine, portrait of Mrs. Langtrey is contributed by Mr. Poynter, who has rendered admirably the serene, un-modern character of her beauty, and has given her a costume which helps her to look like some splendid human flower of the Renaissance, or of some other period at which there were no serial novels.

Mr. Millais's best thing, by far, is an admirable portrait of Lord Shaftesbury, of whom there is another excellent portrait by a young painter of solid promise, Mr. John Collier. "Painted for the Bible Society," says the catalogue; and there could not be an image more perfectly in harmony with such a label. If the great thing for a painter is to lay his hand upon a characteristic model, Mr. Millais has been most fortunate in his sitter, and he has shown himself quite worthy of his luck. It is an admirable piece of really psychological painting. Lord Shaftesbury's face is an excellent example of the British countenance as, in nine cases out of ten, this immitigable mask presents itself to foreign observation—that "biblical" countenance which has the privilege of irritating the lively perception of the Latin, the Slav, and other Bohemian races; very dry on one side, but on the other inspiring unlimited confidence. Mr. Millais has rendered with remarkable skill both the dryness and the cleanness. He has also a landscape—"St. Martin's Summer," a wild Scotch brook in a tangle of autumnal foliage—containing some admirable painting, but with a curiously motionless and photographic quality. Then he has the "Princes in the Tower," who are of course very much noticed—two charmingly pretty boys, in black velvet, with an impromptu turret staircase behind them. This is a sort of thing which Mr. Millais sometimes does admirably; of how well he is capable of doing it "The Bride of Lammermoor," now on exhibition by itself, is this year (just as the "Effie Deans" was last year) a very brilliant example. In these things the artist attempts to be subtly dramatic, to represent the finest shades of expression of the human face. The attempt is perfectly legitimate, and, as I have mentioned M. Taine, I may recall the tribute that he pays to the wonderfully delicate skill of which English painters are capable in these experiments, which he considers their strongest point. "The Princes in the Tower" is a fair specimen of this skill, but the scene from Scott's novel is a really extraordinary one; I wish I had more space to speak of it. It represents Lucy Ashton, in a forest glade, leaning on the arm of her lover after he has saved her from the aggression of the wild bull. Her face—an exquisite piece of painting—is a marvellous study of girlish agitation, and that of the sombre young Master of Ravenswood is not less remarkable. Mr. Millais is, by the way, almost always greatly to be congratulated on his models; he evidently has his "pick" of handsome people. It would be hard to find a lovelier specimen of English girlish beauty than his Lucy Ashton, or a more magnificent young man than her companion. But, as it seems to me, he makes figures of them, and nothing more; he does not make pictures, in the sense that Mr. Burne-Jones does. The figures are lighted anyhow, or not at all; they are not seen in relation to the rest of the canvas, which looks as if it were rubbed in, after the fact, in the most perfunctory manner.

In one of the rooms at the Academy there is a dense crowd of people, pressing closely together, under the rigid surveillance of a policeman, who beseeches them to "move on" in tones which resound the livelong day. Is it, then, so difficult to detach one's self from the work of Mr. Frith, after one has caught a happy glimpse of it? I can hardly answer this question on the evidence of the "Road to Ruin" (the title of his present contribution), for, thanks to the crowd and the policeman, I saw very little of it. I perceived, however, that it consists of five small pic-

tures, which form a kind of contemporary edition of Hogarth's "Rake's Progress"—the downward career beginning with a card-party at college of a young man about town. At the end, with a livid face and bloodshot eyes, he is locking the door, preparatory to an operation indicated by a suicidal-looking pistol on the centre-table. I could see also that Mr. Frith had apparently lost nothing of the peculiar ability which formerly made a policeman the indispensable adjunct of his "Derby Day" and his "Railway Station." But it would take M. Taine to speak properly, and, as it were, scientifically, of Mr. Frith. I have not pretended to speak of many of his fellow-contributors, and I can think of no other work that it is a serious wrong not to mention. M. Alma Tadema has a great piece of flesh-modelling, and one of his consummately-skilful "restorations" of Roman costume and antique interiors. Mr. Boughton, Mr. Orchardson, and Mr. Marcus Stone are very charming; Mr. Long, representing a large workshop of Egyptian girls, in the Ptolemaic time, making up little effigies of Isis and Osiris, is very brilliant; Mr. Pettie paints portraits of gentlemen in ancient doublets and tartans very bravely. Of some of the elder Academicians—Sir Francis Grant, the president, Messrs. Horsley, Cope, Hart, O'Neil, etc.—it is but common humanity not to speak. Their contributions, raggedly and cruelly squaring themselves upon the "line," must be seen to be believed in. American art (and American nature, I may add), are represented in a large view of Colorado scenery by Mr. Albert Bierstadt. The picture is unfavorably hung.

Correspondence.

HOMES FOR WORKING-WOMEN.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The Young Women's Christian Association of this city maintains a Home for Working-women with *restrictions* similar to those which are given as chief causes of failure in the Stewart Hotel for Women; where they differ, the Home here is more strict. The house is closed at 10 P.M. instead of 11 P.M. No visitors are received on Sunday until evening. Visitors are received in reception-rooms, no boarder being allowed to take company to her room without special permission. Opportunity to use sewing-machines is given in the sewing-room, as at the Stewart Hotel. Members of the household are even required to have excuse from superintendent for absence from church! This Home has accommodations for a family of two hundred and twenty-five, and *advertises for additional rooms* in private families, overflowing in numbers. Few of our working-girls can pay from six to ten dollars a week for board. We grade prices to their wages; we are careful in no way to impress our work on them as a charity. They pay all that they are asked; we consider our building as an *endowment* for this class; they are in no sense objects of charity more than the students of Harvard College are such. But they have far more than is furnished in families for the same price. The building has steam radiators in every room, gas, hot water, baths in every part. The price for room alone is $5 50 per week; for two the cost is usually about $3 each per week. We pay expenses entirely, and have something over for repairs, improvements, etc., and have no debts even through all the hard times. No unions of numbers of men or women are more honorable in meeting all their obligations, more conservative, discreet, and reasonable.

No one familiar, practically, with this kind of "charity" will for a moment receive Judge Hilton's interpretation of the failure; but unseemly words about women are perhaps only human nature, under the circumstances. To succeed in anything, character and needs must be studied. All our prosperous homes have had small beginnings, and have grown as needs have been understood. They have seemed to be growths from their inmates' nature and wants. May the good heart and bountiful mind of Mrs. Stewart lead her to try again! He who most helped the helpless lived among them—knew them by the most intimate and comprehensive sympathy. In no other method can one begin to know the struggle and need, the worth and worthiness of working-girls.

Harriet N. Noyes.

Boston, Mass.

Notes.

J. B. LIPPINCOTT & CO. will publish immediately Ouida's new novel, 'Friendship,' and 'Seaforth,' a new story by Florence Montgomery.——Lord Dufferin's ever-fresh 'Yacht Voyage: Letters from High Latitudes,' has been published in a third edition by R. Worthington, of this city. It contains an ingenious preface for the author's American readers, a previous preface for the Canadians, and a good portrait of Lord Dufferin.——Mr. F. Leypoldt, of the *Publishers' Weekly*, has hit upon a device of real utility, as it seems to us: a weekly Bulletin of the latest publications, in the form of a neat placard for bookstores. It is divided into three columns, of which the broadest, in the centre, shows in conspicuous type the titles of the books, with the authors' names and prices affixed: the two side-columns contain brief descriptions of the books, or literary announcements and notes. We can hardly imagine a bookseller refusing to subscribe to this Bulletin because of any doubt as to its effect in stimulating buyers.——The Ninth Annual Report of the Massachusetts State Board of Health is, like its predecessors, to be recommended to all State and municipal officials responsible for the sanitary well-being of the community. Papers on scarlet-fever and other contagious diseases; on drainage and health (with special reference to the Housatonic and Hoosic basins in Massachusetts); on the sanitary condition of Cambridge; on cottage hospitals; on dangers from color-blindness; on the filtration of potable water, etc, form the chief contents, and are as usual freely illustrated with maps, plans, and cuts. New-Yorkers overcome by the vile stenches that hover over the island can learn from the preliminary general report how successfully the great Brighton abattoir has been rendered inodorous and innoxious to the neighborhood. It appears that by special vote last November five considerable cities of Massachusetts declined the authority offered them to appoint indepen dent boards of health. Five others would not even vote on the question. ——A Portland physician, favoring the use of the Latin names of drugs, writes a small book to teach the Latin, very little in amount, necessary in writing prescriptions ('Prescription Writing: Designed for the Use of Medical Students who have never studied Latin,' by Dr. T. H. Gerrish. Portland, Me.: Loring, Short & Harmon. 1878). It is only a matter of a few verbs in the imperative and a few terminations, and this elementary instruction is very well presented. There are also general suggestions about prescriptions which seem to be very useful and careful. Dr. Gerrish does well to censure the common practice of having a prescription, which has been used once, repeated at another time at the patient's own risk. The prescription, of course, was given for a special state of his system, and medicine is not treated as a science if the patient does not allow the physician alone to decide whether at another time the state of his health demands the same remedy.——Next year a monument to Giordano Bruno is to be erected at Rome, and in preparation for this event Signor De Sanctis, of the Italian Ministry, has charged Professor Fiorentino with the compilation of a complete edition of the martyr-philosopher's works.

—The American Social Science Association held its Fourteenth Annual Meeting on the week before last in Cincinnati. The time was not well chosen, as the great musical festival had just closed, and the population was quite exhausted with excitement, the leading gentlemen especially looking as if they had had a fit of sickness. There was, however, a fair attendance at the sessions, and a good degree of interest manifested, with a gratifying increase in the list of members. There seems to be in the Western cities a greater disposition than in the East for the discussion of political and social problems from a general point of view, even though that discussion may be less profound. The Association has a chronic difficulty to contend with, in the impression that its work is connected with socialism, instead of dealing with the science of society. The range of the latter again is so extensive, that it seems as if no practical result could be attained, and complaint is made every year that the topics selected cover so much ground. Immediate practical effect, however, is not the object. It is to bring into personal communication men who are engaged in different professions, and who bring special knowledge to the work of social reform. That such contact does give them fresh strength and encouragement is freely acknowledged by those who attend the meetings. The publication of the papers, too, by the press and in the journals of the Association, commands an audience which individuals could otherwise hardly hope to reach; and besides these essays, which can be read at a distance, the debates, which reach only those present, are often of considerable interest and value. Even if nine out of ten of the papers fall without visible effect, they are a record of contemporary thought upon the subject, and a single instance of practical success is a justification of the work. Thus a discussion upon homes for the people, continued through several years, has spread abroad a knowledge of the principles of the Philadelphia building associations. It led to the introduction of a

bill in the Massachusetts Legislature which, though strongly opposed by the savings-banks, after three years, and mainly through the efforts of Mr. Josiah Quincy, became a law. During this time the bill was brought, through constant revision and correspondence with Philadelphia, as near to perfection as possible. Under it something like twenty companies are already in operation, and, though as yet an experiment, the system promises quite as well as any of the numerous attempts to ameliorate the condition of the honest working classes. The very slight degree in which Congress, as well as the State legislatures, responds to any expression of public opinion, points to the importance of having some agency for concentrating and giving voice to that opinion, but at the same time explains the want of practical success which has attended the efforts of the Association, in common with many others, towards reform. It is the desire of maintaining a basis of principle, outside of party struggles, which has sustained the managers in contending with many difficulties, of which the financial is the most important.

—We have room for only the briefest summary of the proceedings at Cincinnati. The opening address, on May 18, was by Prof. Benjamin Peirce, of Cambridge, one of the founders of the Association, who ably set forth the Importance of Social Science in the United States. General John Pope's paper on the Indian Question consisted mainly of an historical review. His suggestions for amendment were perhaps somewhat vague, but it may be said that the most definite and well-considered would have little better chance of attention. On Tuesday, the 21st, three papers were read having reference to the silver question. Mr. Wm. S. Groesbeck declared the policy of remonetization to be an accepted fact, and that an international convention would doubtless before long restore the injured metal to full standing throughout the world. He was followed by Mr S. Dana Horton, the well-known advocate of bi-metallism, who thought the United States should have used their position to enforce, and made their action dependent upon, the general adoption of silver, and expressed doubts about an international convention. Mr. Horace White, in a very clear and concise paper upon resumption, declared that silver is not yet remonetized at all, explained why the dollar has not fallen in relation to gold, and was decidedly skeptical as to the meeting of a convention. Mr. Gamaliel Bradford read on Wednesday his usual plea for the admission of Cabinet officers to Congress, and this time found an ally in the person of Mr. Perry Belmont, who read a paper on the same subject. His position as the son of Mr. August Belmont, of this city, gives him a great advantage, and his subject affords an abundant field for work to a young aspirant for political success. No less than three papers were read on local and State taxation, and all of them, as well as that on the elective franchise, by Prof. Kent, of Michigan, showed a leaning towards restriction of the suffrage. It is curious to note how from all parts of the country comes up the same cry as to difficulties in municipal administration. Practical suggestions for reform, however, do not appear as yet to be equally plentiful. A paper on American coinage and currency, by Gen. Durbin Ward, of Ohio, took strong ground upon the necessity of convertibility, and advocated the English system of the separation of banking and currency, which many of the first English economists believe to be peculiarly suited for the adjustment of our paper issues. A debate in the jurisprudence department on an elective judiciary, while it produced several advocates of that system on the ground of successful practice, found hardly one to defend its theoretical merits.

—The French *opéra bouffe* company which has been singing at the Park Theatre are now giving a supplementary week at Booth's, where they are to perform several times the new *opéra comique*, the "Cloches de Corneville" (the "Chimes of Normandy"). It was suggested some years ago, in we forget which optimistic newspaper, at the time when Offenbachian opera was all the rage, that the fancy for *bouffe* was not altogether as lamentable as it seemed to purists, inasmuch as it might prove the germ of comic opera of the sort which reigned before Offenbach was. We never could see precisely how this was to be, as the *bouffe* school is hardly of a sort to pave the way to anything higher. But it now looks as if the prediction was likely to work itself out in another way. *Bouffe* opera appears to have exhausted itself, and the public taste has fallen back on the comic school, not because it was prepared for the change by Offenbach and his allies, but because their school has stretched the sense of humor and fondness for extravaganza till its elasticity is gone, and out of sheer lassitude it falls back on something better. Good music, combined with a pretty story, is a relief after the burlesque music and inverted moral and social world of the "Grande Duchesse" and the "Belle Hélène"; and, besides this, a comic opera is one to which, as the matter has been very well put for this latitude, a girl "may take her mother." The "Cloches de Corneville" and the "Dragons de Villars," notwithstanding one or two somewhat questionable songs and situations, are operas to which anybody may go. Indeed there is such a thing as being overprudish in opera. There is less real harm in either of those than in "Traviata," which has possessed a moral passport for a generation. The music of both is very pretty, and the acting of Aimée in the second is, for any one who has only seen her in *bouffe* characters, quite a revelation. Her part in the "Dragons de Villars" is a poetical part. She is a simple peasant girl, keeping watch in the fastnesses of the mountains over a company of proscribed persons, of whom Villars' dragoons are in pursuit. At the critical moment she rescues and gets them across the border, but the device by which she accomplishes this feat is so clever a ruse that it deceives not only the dragoons but her friends as well, including her lover; and the result is that she is suspected by him of having betrayed the very persons she has saved. This misunderstanding occurs on the day fixed for her marriage, and before the escape of the fugitives leaves her at liberty to exculpate herself. Her acting of this not easy part was a marvel of delicacy and refinement, and to those who have only seen her hitherto in operas like the "Cent Vierges" or "Barbe Bleue," it could not but suggest the possibility of her even yet taking to something more like legitimate drama than anything she has attempted. Her voice is, of course, not powerful enough for classic opera, but her acting is good enough for anything.

—Her company also contains another member who is altogether above the parts for which he is usually cast. M. Mezières, formerly with the French troupe that acted at the Lyceum Theatre, is an admirable comic actor, and why he should be engaged in playing *Calchas* and other rôles of that sort we cannot imagine. In the "Cloches de Corneville" he plays the part of a treacherous steward who has betrayed his trust and turned miser with his ill-gotten gains. He is surprised in counting over his hoard, in the ruined castle where he has stored it, by the legendary chimes of Corneville, which announce the return of its master, who, in fact, makes his appearance, with his followers, as the bells begin to ring. Mezières' acting of the mingled terror produced by his guilty conscience, and his passionate avarice contending with it, was unusually powerful, and the delight with which it was received by crowded audiences showed that the taste for good acting is by no means extinct. If some of our own theatres would only take a lesson from this company, representing the lowest form of comic art known to the stage, no harm would be done. We venture to say that in the short month during which Aimée has played here, and during which she has played mostly in parts compounded of buffoonery and burlesque, there has been more good acting at the Park than at all our theatres put together. Almost every one of the troupe is good in some particular way, and none of them acts the smallest parts without showing a definite conception of the character to be represented. It is not an elevated *répertoire* in which Aimée appears; but of its kind it is so much better than anything we have of our own that we are tempted to repudiate morality itself, and, if it is to be attained at the expense of the peculiar æsthetic pleasures for which we go to the theatre, beg for a little more good acting and music instead.

—Six years ago a German physician, Dr. Liebreich, brought consternation into London art circles by some pathological criticisms of Turner's later works. He endeavored with lens and screen to demonstrate that certain (assumed) peculiarities in Turner's pictures after 1831 were explainable on the theory of astigmatism in the painter's eyes. This exposure has had no appreciable effect on the market for Turners, and the cool reception which artists gave to Dr. Liebreich and his apparatus has, perhaps, deterred other scientists from revealing their secret thoughts in the picture galleries. Since then, to be sure, M. Marey's beautiful demonstrations of animal locomotion have been cited in criticism of Miss Elizabeth Thompson's "Roll-Call," with the result of confirming in the main the accuracy of her drawing of a horse in motion. But Mr. J. Norman Lockyer really takes up the parable of Dr. Liebreich, and confesses that he has for years been criticising the pictures in the Academy "with the most intense pleasure from the scientific point of view," but he only now ventures to free his mind publicly about them on a pretext furnished by Lord Beaconsfield. In *Nature* for May 9 he begins to pass in review the landscapes in this year's Academy, limiting himself to the sky-color as the best mode of indicating what, in his belief, "will be the influence of the study of optics in the future on art." Here it may be remarked, parenthetically, that he might have supplemented directly Dr. Liebreich's criticism of Turner, who, with all his acknowledged mastery

of atmospheric effects, was not particular whether they accorded with the time of day indicated by his favorite luminary; who would even put the rainbow at right angles with the sunbeam, a liberty at least as great as that which Mr. Lockyer ridicules in "an eminent artist now living who had painted a rainbow practically inside out," and charged £20 for restoring it to suit the dissatisfied purchaser.

—Mr. Lockyer first enumerates fifteen landscapes in which cloud and sky-color are correct, one of these being Mr. Albert Bierstadt's "Estes Park, Colorado":—"Very fine atmospheric study. The vapor rolling down the valley leaves its effect on the picture marvellously." Then follow fourteen examples judged inaccurate in color. In the first series the epithet "perfect" is frequently bestowed; in the second, "impossible" is the commonest. In neither series, however, does the criticism obviously proceed from a scientist, or derive peculiar authority from the fact that the critic is one of the foremost workers in spectrum analysis. Any good observer of nature might hold this language: "Notice the effect of the atmosphere laden with aqueous vapor on the color of the hill in the background"; "A red sunset, nearly perfect in color from top to bottom; if the yellow had faded into green it would have been better"; "The softness and color of the [pea-soup shadows] suggest that Mr. Riviere has never studied moonlight"; "Impossible color of water under sky conditions given"; "Sky colors impossible with so high a sun," etc. The astronomer, however, breaks out occasionally in side remarks like these: "Moon nearly right, which is wonderful. (This by the way)"; "Perfect sunset (poor moon!) (again by the way)"; the truth being that artists treat the moon as recklessly as do novelists. And in his second paper (May 16) Mr. Lockyer shows with diagrams how the moon and sun are misrepresented not only relatively to each other, but with reference to the scale of the picture. In spite of their enlarged appearance near the horizon, "both sun and moon steadily subtend an angle of half a degree," and this furnishes a measure of the salient features of a painted landscape. An American astronomer applying it to the pictures exhibited in 1876 and 1877 has found the average height of our mountains to be 43⅔ miles. One mountain "reached the respectable elevation of 105 miles." "There was only one artist who had got a hill into his picture less than 13 miles high; but he only succeeded in doing this once." Mr. Lockyer is still writing on the general subject, and deserves to be read by everybody.

—The world of wonders opened up by the telephone and the phonograph is already vastly enlarged by a third discovery called the microphone. Professor Hughes, of Kentucky, the inventor of the type-printing telegraph, now residing in England, has added this fresh laurel to the American genius. It is difficult to give an intelligible description of his instrument, but what he does is to place in the circuit of an electric battery a substance in a fine state of subdivision (as mercury in the pores of carbon), which he calls the transmitter. This substance is found to be extraordinarily sensitive to sounds which to the ear are almost or quite inaudible; and when connection is made with a telephone, these sounds may be heard with great distinctness a hundred miles away. In some recent experiments made in the presence of Professor Huxley, and reported in *Nature* for May 16, "the delicate rubbing of a fine camel's-hair pencil over a smooth wooden surface, . . . although of course inaudible in the ordinary way, was rendered evident in the telephone by a crackling noise, of which the intensity was almost painful to the ear." In like manner the footsteps of a fly have been betrayed to the sense. Further account of the microphone cannot be given here. The *Scientific American* for June 8 shows how closely parallel Professor Hughes's experiments are with those of Mr. Edison when on the track of the carbon device in his peculiar telephone.

—The British Royal Commission on Copyright has at last made its report, a brief summary of which has been telegraphed to this country. From this it appears that England, tired of being less liberal than the United States, proposes to become as liberal as France. The important points of the report for us are the fixing of the duration of copyright for the life of the author and thirty years thereafter; the reservation to the novelist of the exclusive right to dramatize his own work; the putting of works of art and of dramatic and musical compositions on the same footing as books, and the according to all foreigners publishing books in British dominions the same rights as British subjects. The report, which was unanimous, suggests that some "arrangement might be made with the United States in regard to the printing of copyright works"—a rather ambiguous phrase, which we can better understand when we have the full text before us; it further discountenances any retaliation upon American books in case the United States fail to respond to British advances. It will be seen that the report is in every way satisfactory. If its recommendations are embodied in a bill and become law, England, besides benefiting her own literature, will have taken the first and most important step toward international copyright.

—In the Augsburg *Allgemeine Zeitung* we find a comparison of the various half-years as regards attendance at the new Strassburg University. The number of matriculated students has been as follows, the double numbers indicating the winter half-year: 1872, 212; 1872–3, 390; 1873, 467; 1873–4, 564; 1874, 621; 1874–5, 674; 1875, 649; 1875–6, 649; 1876, 674; 1876–7, 707; 1877, 626; 1877–8, 627. These figures would perhaps seem to indicate that the gloomy predictions made a couple of years ago by one of the *Nation's* foreign correspondents as to the prospects of the Strassburg University were not unfounded. There is, however, another explanation which seems very plausible. During the five years of growth and prosperity students were attracted not only by the great excellence of the professors, but by the interest attaching to the recently-recovered German territory, so that for a time Strassburg drew more largely, perhaps, than any German university from the more remote portions of Germany, and the local supply of students was disproportionately small. It is very probable that this disproportion has now begun to adjust itself, and that the more recent lower figures indicate not a wasting away, but an approach to a permanent number, after what was really only an apparent prosperity—a sort of university fever. There seems to be an impression that German students run about a great deal from one university to another, and that the universities themselves are in no sense local. It is true that the German system permits a change of universities, that such a change is much commended, and that many make it for at least one semester—some for more; yet the universities are really much more local than is generally imagined. Not only do the universities of North Germany draw from the north and those of South Germany from the south, but each university draws very largely from the little country or province just about it. A few figures will make this plain. For convenience we shall call Baden, Würtemberg, and Bavaria "South Germany."

—Berlin, for example, in 1872, and again in the summer of 1874 and the winter of 1874–5, drew from 52 to 58 per cent. of its *matriculated German* students from its own more immediate neighborhood, and less than 1½ per cent. from South Germany. The catalogues of Leipzig for the winters of 1872–3, 1874–5, and 1877–8 show that the most cosmopolitan German university draws from 45 to 52 per cent. of its German students from the immediately-adjoining countries or provinces (38 per cent. from the little kingdom of Saxony), and only 4 per cent. from South Germany, even with Bavaria so near. The University at Göttingen drew in 1874–5 and 1877–8 from 65 to 73 per cent. from the province of Hanover and the adjoining districts, only about 1 per cent. coming from the South. During the same period the Bonn University drew from 82 to 95 per cent. from its own neighborhood, and less than 1 per cent. from the South German States. We have no catalogues of the other, smaller universities at hand, but there is every reason to suppose that they would demonstrate this local character even more strikingly. A brief comparison of these figures with similar ones for Strassburg, in the summer of 1874 and in the next winter, semesters of growth, will make the above explanation clear. At this time only 37 to 40 per cent. of the German students matriculated at Strassburg came from those parts of Germany which can fairly be termed its feeders, and 60 per cent. came from Prussia and other states of North Germany—a disproportion that can hardly remain permanent. It is reasonable to expect that the number of Prussians grows less in proportion, but it is to be borne in mind that the presence of numerous Prussian officials in Strassburg, and the fact that the university catalogues usually give the students' birthplace, would render a fair comparison of figures more difficult.

—Dr. G. M. Thomas, whose studies in Venetian history we have recently noticed, calls attention in a recent number of Sybel's *Historische Zeitschrift* to a proposition of the Venetian Academy of History, the *Deputazione sopra gli studi di storia patria*, to publish the Diary of Marino Sanudo. He shows at considerable length the historical importance of this enterprise. The diary consists of fifty-eight folio volumes, extending from 1496 to September, 1533, with daily entries touching events in all parts of the world, and of the highest authenticity—inasmuch as Sanudo was a man of wide experience and sound judgment, possessing the entire confidence of the government of his city,

which allowed him to make full use of even the most secret documents, and everybody knows the sagacity of this government, and the accuracy of the information it received from its diplomatic corps. The historian Ranke made large use of this Diary, and Dr. Thomas himself possesses a copy of everything which it contains upon the Reformation in Germany, which he hopes at some time to publish separately. Meanwhile, the *Deputazione* will begin with the first twelve volumes, in the hope that there will be encouragement for the publication of the whole. It is a work which ought to be secured by the leading American libraries.

LAVELEYE'S PRIMITIVE PROPERTY.*

M. DE LAVELEYE'S 'Primitive Property' consists of some papers published by him in the *Revue des Deux Mondes* several years ago (1872), with considerable additions. The present English translation is very materially enlarged and altered from the original French edition, being, in fact, "in the form in which it is about to appear in the new French edition." To persons interested in the line of investigations to which Sir Henry Maine introduced the English public in his 'Village Communities,' the present volume will be very acceptable. While not by any means superseding Sir Henry Maine's work, it contains, probably, much the most complete account that there is of the various forms of collective property in land existing in different parts of the world; partly supplementing the works of other writers, and partly presenting the substance of their several contributions side by side, so as to show their relations to one another. It is to be regretted, however, that the new and the old materials were not more thoroughly digested and worked over into a completer unity. The old chapters—which are in every respect admirable—are left in the main as they were originally, and the new material added in the form of new chapters. This is all very well for a considerable part of it, but there is much of the new matter which might better have been incorporated in the old chapters. There is, therefore, a great deal of repetition, and the effect of much of the book is of disconnected essays brought between the same covers, rather than of a systematic treatise. Chapter xxi., for example, "The Mark in Holland," would properly follow chapter vii., "The Germanic Mark."

While, therefore, the material is abundant, and the several chapters are, in most cases, all that could be desired, the book as a whole—as a treatise upon the history of collective property in land—is disappointing. Perhaps this is in the plan of the work. Perhaps it was not the author's purpose to trace out the historical evolution of the institution, but simply to describe the several phases it has taken in different times and countries. We hardly think this to be the case, however, inasmuch as the single topics are generally treated historically, and such titles of chapters as "Origin of Inequality in Landed Property" and "History of Landed Property in England and China" show that the historical aspect of the question was distinctly present in the author's mind. We are inclined to think, therefore, that the economic aspect, the consideration of the practical questions involved, pressed itself upon his mind so earnestly as to cast the historical view wholly in the shade. For this book is not merely a scientific treatise, like Sir Henry Maine's, but is a *Tendenzschrift*—a book with a purpose. It is conceived in the spirit expressed by Mr. Mill, in his review of 'Village Communities' (Dissertations, v. p. 156), where he suggested the right on the part of society to reconvert "individual property into some new and better form of collective." M. de Laveleye is an ardent admirer of the Russian *Mir* and the Swiss *Allmend*, and believes that a fatal mistake was made by the modern world in borrowing from the Roman law the idea of "quiritarian ownership" in land—an idea wholly alien to the Germanic peoples and the source of great demoralization of society, as he maintains. His views on this subject are urged forcibly in the introduction and also in the closing chapters, and they well deserve study. The American people have lavished their public lands upon speculators and corporations in full property; in view of the rapid growth of crude communism among us it deserves consideration whether some measure of "social reform" in disposing of the public lands yet remaining may not meet this spirit halfway and forestall violent changes by rational concessions.

Turning to the detail of the work, it must be admitted that M. de Laveleye is rather economist than historian, and does not treat historical questions with the firm and accurate touch of Sir Henry Maine. A notable example of this is found in chapter xiii., "Family Communities succeed to Village Communities." The treatment of family communities as a distinct form of collective property apart from village communities is a somewhat new thing, and marks an important step in the analysis of these institutions; and the chapters treating of this subject are very valuable ones, especially the interesting details in regard to France in chapter xv. But, in the first place, they are foisted in, without any clear continuity, between the chapters upon the ancient world and those that treat of the development of inequality in property; and, in the next place, the very title of chapter xiii. indicates a fundamental error. It cannot yet be maintained positively that village communities (as in Russia) and family communities (as in the Danubian Provinces) formed two successive stages of development in the same people, rather than two independent phases in different peoples; but if it is to be assumed that they were successive, it is almost certain that the order of succession was just the opposite to that here indicated. Surely the village is an organization further removed from the primitive type than the joint-family or family (or house) community; and this is the view also of Sir Henry Maine, who says, in his article in the *Nineteenth Century* (December, 1877, p. 809), that there is "little doubt that the natural development of the house community would be into the village community." M. de Laveleye supports his own view by an interesting remark (p. 198) in illustration of the process of development here assumed: "As the family community was the unit for the periodical partition, it naturally followed, when this partition fell into disuse, that the communities were owners of the soil, and they continued to exist in obscurity, resisting all destruction, until they attracted the attention of the jurists, about the end of the Middle Ages." This suggestion is very instructive in regard to the course of events in France, where house communities were a common institution, but village communities can hardly be proved to have existed at all. Still, it does not necessarily follow that this "periodical partition" was by the *village*, nor is this view supported by what is known of the Slavic house communities. Thus Mr. Evans, in his 'Bosnia and Herzegovina,' says of the allotments of land in the military frontier: "The single families of those backwoodsmen could not grow into villages all at once, and so it would happen that the mark—as we may call the allotment—reverted to a very primitive stage, being held in common, not so much by a village-community as by a single household" (p. 46). And the passage in Cæsar cited in support of the view in question—*gentibus cognationibusque hominum attribuunt* (vi. 22)—is far more likely to refer to public magistrates than to village officers; the passage merely proves—what is universally assumed—that the German village communities rested, in their origin, upon kinship.

A few other rather unaccountable errors have slipped in. On page 119 it is stated that "the word *gau* had nearly the same import as *mark*." It is very true the word *gau* (district) may be used for *mark*, but the reverse is not the case; and as used here in connection with the *Gaugraf*, the *Gau*, a public district, was a totally different thing from the agricultural *Mark*. On page 134 *bokland* is defined as "land inrolled in the book"! On page 234 we have the *cow* Apis. This is probably a mistake of the translator, as also where, in the note on page 132, Mr. Morgan's valuable treatise in the Smithsonian Contributions is cited as "Morgan Smith's *Contributions*, etc." The economic constitution of the manor is curiously confused on page 247; after speaking of its division into demesne and tenement lands, the author goes on to enumerate the tenants on the demesne (*de dominico*) as consisting of, first, the *villani*, then the free tenants, then the *cotarii*, with no mention at all of tenants on the *tenement lands*, although there are said to have been tenants on the waste. On page 219 we read: "Among the Anglo-Saxons they [females] ultimately obtained a portion of the *Bokland*, but no *Folkland*." But *Bokland* and *Folkland* do not exhaust the categories of Anglo-Saxon land; as to the question under consideration the *family land* or *Ethel* was the most important class. Of course women held land by *bok* or deed, as well as men; of course they were not likely to hold tracts of *Folkland*, which were granted something after the manner of benefices to the king's followers; but for family land—the *hyde* in the village community—there is no question that the old Kentish law of gavelkind prevailed, females succeeding, but only after males. Very surprisingly, too, we have Trimalchio's estate in Petronius cited (p. 172), as if it were not a burlesque, to show the extent and value of an Italian *latifundium*—thirty boys and forty girls born in one day on one estate at Cumæ, and 500,000 bushels of corn taken up from the threshing-floor!

M. de Laveleye has collected in the tenth, eleventh, and twelfth chap-

* 'Primitive Property. Translated from the French of Emile de Laveleye, Member of the Royal Academies of Belgium, Madrid, and Lisbon, Corresponding Member of the Institute of France, of the Institute of Geneva, of the Academy *Dei Lincei*, of Rome, etc. By G. R. L. Marriott, B.A., LL.B. With an Introduction by T. E. Cliffe Leslie, LL.B., of Lincoln's Inn, Barrister-at-Law.' New York: Macmillan & Co. 1878. 8vo, pp. 356.

ters a considerable number of facts bearing upon the question of collective property in Greece and Rome. We wish he had pursued this interesting but difficult enquiry further, as it as yet is far from having been exhaustively investigated. So with the fruitful question of the landed institutions of the Hebrews, which he only touches upon incidentally.

UPTON'S ARMIES OF ASIA AND EUROPE.*

IN July, 1875, Brevet Major-General Emory Upton, Lieutenant-Colonel Fourth Artillery, United States Army, was ordered by the Secretary of War to proceed with two junior officers on a tour of eighteen months to India, China, and Japan, and the camps of instruction and military schools of Italy, Germany, Austria, Russia, France, and England, in order to examine and report upon the organization, tactics, discipline, and manœuvres of the armies in the countries mentioned. Additional instructions from the General of the Army direct special attention to "Afghanistan, Persia, Khokand, Bokara, Toorkistan, etc., the lands whence came our civilization." It was not, perhaps, possible to obey literally the latter instructions, as naught resembling our present civilization has ever been known in the lands indicated. The only interesting military information that the most sanguine could expect to procure in the whole of that region was, as to what cavalry once was before the sabre and lance had been condemned by our highest cis-Atlantic authorities as useless encumbrances. Improvements in firearms have classed even the modern bayonet with the ancient sword in harmlessness, inasmuch as in our late civil war but 1 in 279 of the wounded suffered from either sword or bayonet, and in the Franco-Prussian campaigns but 1 in 300. An inspection of the mediæval armor in the Centennial Exhibition would, therefore, have been quite as useful for antiquarian research, more expeditious, and far less expensive than the long overland Oriental jaunt from Bushire *via* Shiraz and Tiflis to the Caucasus, even when the Khyber Pass route was perforce abandoned. Accordingly, to report the result of that part of the expedition required but 8 out of the 455 pages of the volume.

Careful perusal of this work suggests the doubt whether very much was gained by the author's personal examination in the localities visited. Numerous works, official and popular, regarding the present military state of all the European governments, are accessible here, and if that is not equally true concerning Japan and China, it is of little consequence, since the Mikado's troops are simply receiving theoretical and practical instruction from a detail of French officers, and the Chinese service is pronounced utterly worthless, in only twenty pages, which, if strictly accurate, might as well have been comprised in twenty words. Since this last-mentioned report was made, however, some evidence has appeared tending to invalidate its conclusions. Last December a Chinese army invaded and reconquered Eastern Turkestan with speed and energy. As a part of the campaign it in twenty-one days marched four hundred miles, captured three cities, and won a pitched battle, co-operating in excellent style with a flanking force and exhibiting the very qualities of strategy in the commanders, and endurance and courage among the soldiers, which Gen. Upton denies to them. Making all allowance for the unscientific resistance of the rebel Ameer of Kashgar, the operations of the Celestial regulars in the distant and difficult country south of the Tian Shan have surely in some measure restored the prestige once gained by the armies of Kanghi and Keen Lung.

The merit of General Upton's work does not consist in exhibiting the results of original investigation, or in such vivid description as might have been hoped for from his actual inspection, but he presents in one well-arranged volume what before to the American reader could only be culled from numerous reports, lists, and treatises in several languages. The compilations, in their several divisions and in their summation, are accompanied by reflections and suggestions which, from the author's distinction in the studies of his profession, should and doubtless will be attentively considered. His most condensed recommendations are as follows:

"1. The three or four-battalion system for infantry regiments.

"2. A system of detail whereby our officers may serve alternately in the staff and in the line.

"3. A system of personal reports, by means of which the Government may be informed of the character, capacity, and qualifications of all its officers.

"4. Examinations previous to promotion.

"5. Schools for enlisted men.

"6. Schools and qualifications for officers preparatory to receiving commissions.

"7. Schools for officers in the art of war and the higher branches of their profession, subsequent to receiving commissions."

The second recommendation, elsewhere called "a vital and interchangeable relation between the staff and the line," is so strongly and persistently insisted upon as to demand particular attention. It is true that a staff officer requires more general, as well as special, ability, and more comprehensive training, than one in the line. He should be familiar with most of the details of line duty, as well as those of his own branch of administration; but his efficiency in the latter is not essentially improved by repeated exclusive employment on the subsidiary details after a certain and limited amount of time has once been devoted to them. If there is anything in military science worthy the name it requires differentiation as well as integration. A valuable staff officer, as an adjunct to command, should be a specialist, and cannot afford much heterogeneity. The specialization in our corps of ordnance and engineers, of the quartermaster and commissary departments, has made them admirable, some of them more efficient than in any other service among the armies of the world. It is difficult to see how a frequent recurrence of guard-mounting and company drill at scattered isolated posts would improve the officers of those branches of the staff in their special duties, while it is certain that the work of the staff would not be so well performed by a raw beginner detailed from the line; and if the latter is to remain during all his career, excepting the period of his temporary staff detail, in the cavalry, infantry, or artillery, what he may have learned during that detail will not often be utilized. While the staff should understand the limited and speedily-learned duties of the line, it is not so essential that the latter should be familiar with the more comprehensive administration or with special scientific branches. For absolute and universal official perfection it might be well that every medical officer, who must deal with malingering soldiers, should have passed through the trials and responsibilities of a company command, and also that every captain should have pursued a course of surgery; but while such an interchange would be repelled as a violent illustration, it is not much more unreasonable than that a newly-appointed captain of engineers or ordnance who had once, at West Point or as a subaltern in the line, learned and practised infantry and cavalry duties, should go straightway back to them again for several years instead of improving himself in the branch of his profession for which he had been selected; yet that is precisely what General Upton desires. That the staff should be recruited from well-qualified officers of the line is most important, and that the latter should serve in the staff on probation before appointment in it is highly desirable, but that, after decision as to fitness for permanent position and consequent selection, there should continue to be an interchange, could only be endured as part of a systematic plan of educating a large number of officers in duties of a higher character than they can fill in any existing peace establishment, with the view to its large and prompt expansion for the emergencies of war. The arguments for such a system, potential in other countries and circumstances, will not probably be favorably received here and now. An emperor, depending on his army not only for ascendency among rivals, but for internal peace and the security of his dynasty, may ensure judicious selections and details with the minimum of favoritism. Here, however, politicians care only for the next election affecting themselves, and, to conciliate those who can assist their selfish interests, will press and prevail in all changes of duty or station once opened to executive selection by law or custom in place of the present established routine. If the status of any large proportion of our military officers shall be made fluctuating, the evils of our present civil service will be entailed upon the army by the same partisan politics that obstruct true reform everywhere. An approach to degradation of the service is already shown by the repeated action of Congress in ignoring the once-conceded life-tenure of military office, except as affected by misconduct or inefficiency, and in so crippling all professional progress by destructive changes as to reduce commissions to the level of temporary clerkships, perhaps ere long to lower the high standard of honor now proverbial to the suspicion popularly entertained against Indian agents, and explained by like low salaries and like uncertain tenure. The height of inconsistency is attained when a section to turn over the Indian Bureau to the War Department, on account of frauds in the former, is included in the same bill that, by disintegration and diminished pay, demoralizes the latter.

Members of Congress, relying on our territorial exemption from formidable neighbors, and with blissful confidence in a perpetual force latent

* 'The Armies of Asia and Europe. Embracing Official Reports on the Armies of Japan, China, India, Persia, Italy, Russia, Austria, Germany, France, and England. By Emory Upton, Brevet Major-General United States Army.' New York: D. Appleton & Co. 1878.

in republican institutions ever ready to respond with irresistible might and always for the public good, generally consider that the army should only be barely sufficient to tide over immediate troubles, whether with Indians or Mexicans, and seldom concern themselves about any national future beyond the year for which appropriations are doled out. The momentary adequacy of the service is the main consideration in Congressional debates, though some eloquent representatives protest against any regular, or, as they phrase it, "standing," army whatever; but, as they rely upon a non-existent militia, without using or suggesting any means to create such all-sufficing force, their speeches are probably calculated for communistic constituents rather than for rational men. Views of adequacy are, however, diverse. Mr. Kimmel, of Maryland, lays down the proposition that "in peace the only use for soldiers is to care for the forts. If 25,000 soldiers are necessary to care for the forts, then there are none for the field, and the Indians may depredate unchecked unless the militia be called out. If from 25,000 men troops can be spared for the field, then there are too many for the forts, and the excess ought to discharged" (*Congressional Record*, May 22, 1878). This view seems to be tinged with the archaic idea of a fort as a mere place of defence, whereas our structures so-called, which are occupied by the cavalry and infantry whom the bill under debate chiefly concerned, are generally mere barracks in localities convenient for the effective distribution of troops where most needed for active operations. Instead of the soldiers keeping the forts, the forts keep the soldiers and their necessary stores—out of the rain and snow on desolate frontiers where, without such buildings and provision depots, life could not long be sustained.

Some few statesmen have sufficient length of vision to contemplate a "skeleton" organization, adapted to expansion when necessary, as was shown when Calhoun, in 1820, said that we ought to have an army so organized and disciplined that when a sudden emergency should come upon us it could be expanded by mere enlistment to double or quadruple its size, with nothing in the way of organization to new-model or create. This, though a long stride in the right direction, does not reach the scientific conception of an "elastic" system, combining proportion and preparation with constant adequacy, proposed by General Upton, and legislators will be surprised to learn that, instead of agreeing with them that the army is over-officered, he advocates with much force a plan in which the number of its enlisted men may be safely reduced by 2,000, while it will at the same time be necessary to increase the officers by 210. It should be noticed that the lessons taught by improved firearms have revolutionized tactics even since our civil war, and scientific ability in grades below corps commanders is more needed than of yore, while mere masses of soldiery are less employed. "In the new system, a major (of infantry) often assumes the functions of a brigade commander, a captain requires the knowledge and skill of a colonel, a lieutenant performs the duty of a captain, a sergeant takes the place of a lieutenant, and a corporal, no longer required to simply fire his musket, takes command of a squad or section." Much also is now needed from the private soldier besides his momentum and ability to pull a trigger. A part of the plan mentioned provides for what is styled "National Volunteers," partly officered and wholly instructed and disciplined by details from the regular army at regimental depots, where there would always be a nucleus of veterans to assist in the training. This suggestion to popularize and utilize the army contains much that is useful to prevent the commencement and prosecution of future wars with raw troops whose officers and men must both be taught in the costly school of actual conflict, and should be studied at length in the author's "Conclusions."

The Life of His Royal Highness the Prince Consort. By Theodore Martin. Vol. iii. (London: Smith, Elder & Co.; New York: D. Appleton & Co.)—Mr. Theodore Martin had expected to terminate with the present volume the elaborate and painstaking work of whose two previous instalments some account was duly given in these columns. But with the third volume he had entered into a phase of his subject which at the present moment—from a court-biographer's point of view, at least—there were various cogent reasons for not passing over rapidly; the consequence of which has been that it will take another five hundred pages to exhaust the materials with which he has found himself so liberally supplied. This third volume of the 'Life of the Prince Consort' has had the privilege, in England, of provoking a good deal of discussion. Its appearance has, on the one side, been cordially welcomed by the numerous and boisterous advocates of an anti-Russian crusade; and, on the other, it has been denounced as a "party pamphlet," and an unbecoming contribution by the sovereign to a discussion into which the sovereign is not supposed to throw her weight. And, indeed, no small part of the interest of this third volume is that it emanates directly and avowedly from the Queen. So much, practically, Mr. Theodore Martin affirms in the prefatory letter to her Majesty, where he also declares, in a very ingenious passage, that the subject of his biography was without a single one of those human failings—Mr. Martin had searched for them in vain—which would serve to give the portrait conveyed in the pages "the relief of shadow," and that degree of verisimilitude required by people acquainted only with their more or less defective fellow-mortals. The book is a royal manifesto—a declaration of personal feeling upon the matters at issue between Russia and Turkey. Finding the Crimean war in his path, the biographer was enabled, thanks to the analogy between the situation of England in 1854 and her position to-day, to plead a cause while he seemed to be writing a history.

It must be added that Mr. Theodore Martin pleads his cause very creditably, and tells this part of his story with the well-ordered abundance and the fulness of illustration which has marked its progress hitherto. He has had to consult an immense number of documents—the Prince's correspondence alone was most copious, and a large portion of it has had to be translated from the German—and he has suffered from that *embarras de richesses* which is the affliction of the contemporary historian, and which he would doubtless often willingly exchange for the hardly more serious obstruction of evidence reduced to conjecture. The trouble with Mr. Theodore Martin's book continues to be the same that we formerly noticed—the fact, namely, that the Prince Consort, in spite of his amiable character and cultivated intelligence, had no personal history that was particularly worth relating; and that to make up his book the author is obliged to place before us the various events of Queen Victoria's reign, at which her royal spouse assisted merely as witness. It is true that in the present case—at the time of the Crimean war—the Prince Consort was a witness so vigilant and sympathetic, with so much to say about everything that happened, that, more than elsewhere, he appears to come into direct relation with events. He was an eager advocate of the league against Russia, and a vehement partisan of the policy vulgarly known as "bolstering up" Turkey. On this latter point, indeed, he has in his letters a warmth of tone which contrasts strikingly, and in a certain sense even favorably, with his usual somewhat too judicial frigidity. Mr. Martin's volume offers a detailed sketch of the Crimean War in so far as it was conducted in England, where the Prince might have been numbered among the active combatants. The Prince abounds in views upon the manner in which it should be carried on—in suggestions, theories, Memoranda. Whatever occurs, he usually writes a Memorandum on the subject, which is laid before a committee and duly considered. Some of his ideas were evidently excellent, and they were all carefully elaborated. When the break-down of the English military arrangements in the Crimea became complete he drew up a plan for the entire reorganization of the army, and his biographer is able to offer distinguished military testimony to the fact "that it has been the aim of military reformers since to embody all its suggestions, and that all have been put into practice."

Of the vicissitudes, blunders, depressions of the Crimean War, as they were felt and resented in England, Mr. Martin's chapters present a vivid and interesting record. The sense of mismanagement and incompetency at last, in the country, reached the point of exasperation, and the Prince, who had already known what it was to be used as a scapegoat, was called upon again to shoulder some hard responsibilities. He was accused of being the source of the errors and delays at the seat of war; but Mr. Martin is able to show that the accusation was most unjust. The Prince's attitude here, as before, was excellent, and he easily outweathered the storm. He was of the war-party to the last. Late in the spring of 1855 he produces a Memorandum with regard to a "general European defensive league for Turkey as against Russia." "Can such a coalition be obtained?" he asks; "I think it can"—although his disgust and resentment at the manner in which Prussia had held off from the Allies had hitherto been extreme and constant. Many of these pages are devoted to the personal relations established between the Queen and Prince and the Emperor of the French, apropos of the Alliance; and we may frankly declare that they are not the most agreeable in the volume. The Queen has published a great many of the entries in her own diaries descriptive of the visit of the French Imperial couple to England, and of her own and the Prince's visit to France in the summer of 1855. If many of those expressions of feeling to which she has here given her sanction are indiscreet, this record of the remarkable exuberance with which she condones the irregularities of the successful adventurer, whose eager wish was to borrow respectability from her approval, is not the

least so. Indeed it makes, with the rest of Mr. Martin's volume, a sufficiently odd and incongruous mixture. Her Majesty would seem to have taken the Emperor of Russia a little too hard and the Emperor of the French too easily. These things make Mr. Martin's third volume extremely noticeable. It has been construed as the germ of a new and unexpected attempt on the part of the Crown to exert an old-fashioned pressure upon the Government; and while it pleads on the one hand for a policy whose accordance with the honor of England is greatly questioned, it recalls on the other an episode which cannot be viewed with complacency.

U. S. Geological Exploration of the Fortieth Parallel. Vol. II. Descriptive Geology. By Arnold Hague and S. F. Emmons. XXVI. Plates. (Washington. 1877.)—The present volume, with that of Mr. Clarence King on Systematic Geology, which is expected shortly, comprise the final geological results of this important exploration, the most extensive ever undertaken by this country, or we might say by any country, in the interest of geology, covering as it did a belt of country more than 100 miles wide, and extending from the 105th to the 120th meridian, or from the eastern base of the Rocky Mountains to the California boundary, and thus affording a complete geological section of one of the greatest mountain systems of the world. It is the joint production of Messrs. Hague and Emmons, and gives a detailed description in geographical order of the whole region explored, its physical characteristics, the different rocks and minerals and their manner of occurrence, the structure of the mountains and their peculiar forms of upheaval. It is divided into five general chapters to correspond with the five large geological atlas sheets which have just made their appearance. Their titles are: I. Rocky Mountains. II. Green River Basin. III. Utah Basin. IV. Nevada Plateau. V. Nevada Basin. The first embraces the northern portion of the Colorado range, which may be regarded as typical of the whole front range of the Rocky Mountains proper, or the eastern portion of the Cordilleran system; the Great Plains which lie east of the mountains; the Laramie Plains, and the great, enclosed mountain valley of the North Park. A large portion of this chapter is devoted to a description of the Archæan, geologically the earliest rocks, which form the core of the Rocky Mountains, and prove the existence of a western continent of America contemporaneous with the Laurentian continent of Northern New York and Canada. The second chapter describes the interesting Tertiary deposits of Wyoming, from which have been obtained enormous collections of the remains of extinct animals, said by Huxley in his recent visit to this country to be the most important contributions to this branch of science made since the collections of Cuvier in the famous Tertiary basin of Paris. It also describes the remarkable east and west range of the Uinta Mountains, allied both physically and geologically to that of the Caucasus, as described by the German geologist, Abich; and the great cañons which the Green River has cut to a depth of 3,000 feet through its very heart, typical of the well-known cañons of the Colorado River, as this same stream is called on its further progress southward. In the third chapter are described: 1. The Wahsatch range, the great central elevation in this latitude of the Cordilleran system, which also dates back to Archæan times, and presents a remarkably complete series of the various geological formations down to the most recent. 2. The Great Salt Lake and its former bed, the Great Desert which stretches to the west of it, forming a vast enclosed basin with no drainage to the sea, which the beach-lines along the bounding mountain slopes and other evidences prove to have been once occupied by an immense fresh-water sea. The two remaining chapters, which describe the narrow north and south ranges of Nevada, its desert valleys, abundant hot springs and saline deposits, are interesting to the geologist as involving the description of a most remarkable variety of volcanic and other eruptive rocks, and proving this portion of the continent to have been in former geological ages the scene of the most violent terrestrial convulsions.

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, JUNE 13, 1878.

The Week.

THE Republicans have recovered slightly from the first shock of Anderson's testimony given a week ago, and if it had not been for the Oregon election their position might be said to have improved. It now begins to be seen pretty clearly that everything is going to turn on the election of the new House this fall. In the present House the Democrats have a majority of only a dozen or so, and though the Senate after March 4, 1879, is certain to be Democratic for the first time since the South seceded, this is the effect of old victories, while in the most recent popular elections (those in which the members of the present House were elected) the Democrats lost heavily. This looked like a turn in the tide, and if it continued to flow it would give the Republicans the lower House this fall. But now the question is, Is it flowing or ebbing? There is certainly no reason to look to the South, for there the few seats the Republicans hold (some half a dozen) must be lost this autumn. The loss of these seats makes the Democratic majority to be overcome between twenty and thirty, and the means of overcoming it must be provided by Northern or Western States. On this account the shrewder politicians have been looking to the result of the Oregon election with mingled dread and hope. If it had gone Republican, the result would have been regarded as the first ripple of a "tidal wave" which might be expected to sweep over the North and West in the fall. But it has gone Democratic, or, to adopt the metaphorical language appropriate to subjects of this kind, the "first gun" of the campaign has not only missed fire, but has exploded at the same time, scattering destruction among the ranks of the hard-pressed Republican garrison. The loss of Oregon in 1880 is, of course, a severe blow. From Missouri and Ohio, both of which States have been redistricted, the Democrats expect, apparently with reason, to get increased strength, so that the question of the Republican control of the House narrows itself down to the problem of securing at least twenty-five seats next fall. It is evident at a glance that this will be difficult to accomplish, and an appreciation of the difficulty is at the bottom of much of the present Democratic confidence as to the future. According to the Democratic view, these twenty-five seats are not likely to be obtained in any case; how are they to be secured with an investigating committee at work publishing campaign documents like the Anderson confession from month to month?

The Committee has during the week heard the story of Judge Levisee, one of the Louisiana Republican electors, about the way in which an attempt was made to bribe him either not to cast his vote or to vote for Tilden. He appears to be a humorous and respectable old gentleman, who fully recognized the wickedness of Louisiana politicians and the difficulty the Committee would have in believing that a Louisiana elector had refused a large bribe. He told how he had been called on at his boarding-house by an excited man named Johnson, who let the ladies of the house know before he saw him that he was likely to get $100,000 as a bribe; how he was taken to a lonely part of the city; how he was then offered from $30,000 to $40,000 not to accept his appointment as elector; how he said it was not enough, and in order to find out what Johnson was after and who was backing him, and at the same time to protect his own virtue, he put his price at $200,000; how, after other interviews with Johnson's confederates, on its appearing that only $100,000 could be raised, the matter was dropped. In this condition it looks badly for the Democrats, who say, however, that the offer was made in the interest of gamblers who had laid heavy odds on Tilden and were afraid they were going to be ruined. One other thing Mr. Levisee also testified, namely, that he did not sign his name to one of the certificates sent on to the President of the Senate by the Louisiana Republicans. The first certificate was informal, and was sent back to be corrected, but time was pressing and Mr. Levisee and other electors could not be found, so "the boys" forged his name eight times themselves. This did not really affect the validity of the count; but it is useful as illustrating the reckless and unscrupulous state of mind of the Louisiana politicians.

The response made by the President to the request of the House Committee of Investigation for the correspondence relating to Anderson's appointment shows that the latter was strongly recommended for a foreign consulship by the Republican delegation from Louisiana, backed up by Mr. W. P. Kellogg; that when a vacancy occurred in the important post of Callao, Peru, Mr. Stanley Matthews "specially requested" that he (Anderson) might have it "for important reasons"; that this application of Mr. Matthews was "respectfully referred" to the Secretary of State by the President, and was fortified by another letter from Mr. Matthews, in which he said that "the circumstances in which he (Anderson) had been placed gave him very strong claims on the Administration in the public interests," and Mr. Matthews "most earnestly urged" that "some satisfactory employment might be found for him in the public service at once." At this stage in the process Anderson was appointed Consul at Funchal, and then charges against him of general rascality began to reach the White House. The President then directed that his commission should be withheld until further enquiries were made about his character. The result was he got nothing, and was compelled in justice to himself to "squeal" on his distinguished "pal," Mr. Stanley Matthews. The President has thus, considering some things, come out of the affair very well, but considering other things not so well. It was hardly, for instance, becoming in a civil-service reformer, nominated on the Cincinnati platform, to appoint to a consulship a man of outrageously bad character on the urgent solicitation of Congressmen. The enquiry about Anderson which led to the rescinding of his appointment ought to have preceded the appointment.

Mr. Sherman seems to be laboring under a curious error about the part which he now plays in the House investigation. He has sent in a formal offer to prove that there was great and operative intimidation in certain parishes in Louisiana, and has submitted the names of fifty witnesses whom he proposes to have summoned in support of his charges. But it is no part of the duties of the Secretary of the Treasury to prove before a House Committee intimidation at an election in a distant State of which he is not a resident, and at an election at which he was not present. This can be done far more effectively, we are sure, by Louisiana politicians. What the public and the Committee want to know of Mr. Sherman now is, whether he really wrote or did not write that Anderson letter of which a copy was shown him, and what he was doing down in Louisiana during the count, and particularly whether he encouraged anybody to "stand firm" in unlawful conduct. It is to these things he should direct his attention, and on these he should be frank, bluff, and categorical, and liberal with his witnesses.

The House Committee invited Mr. Stanley Matthews to appear before them to explain his correspondence with Anderson, and the public supposed that he would not need to be invited. He appears, however, to have made up his mind at a very early period that this was the last thing he would do, looking on the Committee doubtless, like Mr. Blaine, as a lot of "Confederate brigadiers." So he moved for the appointment of a Committee of the Senate to investigate him, and then wrote to the House Committee that they could not see him. Whereupon, on the motion of the indignant Butler, they

ordered him to be subpœnaed, but it is more than doubtful whether they can subpœna a Senator while Congress is in session, and we shall probably have a conflict of jurisdiction. Mr. Ferry displayed no such caution, but appeared and told all he knew about counting the vote with the greatest alacrity. Mr. Matthews has made an explanation of his position to the newspaper correspondents; which is, that he tried to get Anderson an office to avoid scandal, but without any knowledge of his guilty practices. The advantage he hopes to gain by giving his testimony before the Senate Committee is, doubtless, that he will not be severely cross-examined. We would advise him now to dismiss the whole subject from his mind, and plunge into finance once more. There are several curious bills he might still introduce.

The report of the proceedings of the Florida sub-committee is nearly as voluminous as that of the main investigating body sitting at Washington. They have been examining three worthies who made the canvass of Baker County that gave the State to Hayes by forty majority, and prevented it from going for Tilden by ninety-five majority. County Judge Driggers, one of the local board of canvassers, found to his surprise that the clerk and one Dorman, a justice of the peace, had, without waiting for his assistance, canvassed the votes and reported a Democratic majority. Feeling sore at this treatment, he concluded he had a right to get up a board of his own without either, so he made one Bill Green a justice of the peace *ad hoc*, and called in Sheriff Allen, and together they secretly got access to the ballots, made a recanvass, and "figured what would be the result" if certain precincts were thrown out. The result was that two were thrown out—one, on the ground of "intimidation" (the *fact* being that some man told Driggers his vote had been refused, and promised an affidavit to that effect), and the other because of illegal voting (the fact being that half a dozen names on the list were those of non-residents, but they were not necessary to the Democratic majority). Testimony was also given as to ballot-stuffing in Leon County, at Precinct No. 13, by Inspector Bowes, "who now holds a position in Washington." He put in 73 or 74 "jolly jokers," and made his count to correspond, and boasted that he had saved the State to Hayes. Finally, McLin testified that there were several returns from Baker County, but that he presented to the State Canvassing Board only the Driggers return, "because it appeared to be properly attested, and was most favorable to the Republican party." The others he did not think it necessary to read to the Board.

The active branch of Congress during the week has been the Senate. The Army Bill was passed on Saturday, much improved; for the total strength was fixed at 25,000, the transfer of the Indian Bureau was stricken out, and the section prohibiting the use of the Army as a posse comitatus was so modified as to make its insertion of very little consequence. The Senate also passed the River and Harbor Appropriation Bill, much inflated, and the bill to execute the Fisheries Award, gave Captain Eads the modification of his contract which he prayed for, postponed the Texas-and-Pacific Subsidy Bill till the next session, and granted Mr. Stanley Matthews a committee to investigate his acts as a "visiting statesman." The committee consists of Messrs. Edmunds, Allison, Ingalls, Davis of Illinois, Whyte, and Jones of Florida. The House has passed the General Deficiency Bill; but its principal achievement has been the disposing of the Tariff Bill by a vote of 134 to 120, which took place on Wednesday, the 5th inst., when the enacting clause was stricken out. The nays were all Democrats, with six exceptions. Mr. Wood's defeat was brought about by the votes of high-tariff Democrats from Pennsylvania, New Jersey, Iowa, Maryland, West Virginia, and Wisconsin.

Mention should be made of the speech of Mr. Herbert, of Alabama, who surprised the House on Thursday by an assault on the Texas-and-Pacific subsidy scheme which for vigor and thoroughness has seldom been surpassed. It is to be hoped that some Southern member will perform the like office for the Brazilian mail subsidy when that impudent piece of log-rolling comes to a vote in the House. In the Senate Mr. Christiancy characterized it without contradiction as a bill to appropriate public money for the benefit of John Roach, and not to secure a mail service with Brazil, that having been already secured at the moderate cost of $1,200 per year. Senator Wadleigh showed that it was in direct conflict with the platforms of both political parties of his State. Senator Whyte, of Maryland, made an almost piteous appeal to his brother Senators not to transfer to other ports by an act of legislation a line of trade which the city of Baltimore has built up by the diligence and sagacity of her merchants, extending over a period of fifty years. Senator Kernan dealt some heavy blows at the measure, but it passed by a vote of 26 to 18, the affirmative vote consisting chiefly of New England protectionists and Senators from the Gulf States, who had been hooked by the proviso for a subsidized line from New Orleans and Galveston. The Virginia Senators were brought in by an amendment requiring the New York steamers to put in at Norfolk, 500 miles out of their way. The only valuable amendment fastened upon the bill was one offered by Mr. Eaton, of Connecticut, limiting the duration of the subsidy to five years.

The House Judiciary Committee has had the good sense or the political shrewdness to report against the Maryland Memorial and the Kimmel Bill impugning the President's title. It declares that the Forty-fourth Congress was the only body authorized to count the vote for the President for the term now pending; that no other Congress has any power to revise its decision or set it aside, or to confer authority on the Supreme Court to do so. This of course is the law, and if it were not, would have to be made the law if the Government were to last. It is little short of lunacy to suppose that the Government could last if the majority in each Congress had the power to declare who was President and who was not, or, in other words, to keep the count open for four years and to turn the President out of office on the discovery of anything in an election held in forty different States, which could be called "fraud." This would be the introduction of the English parliamentary power over the Executive, with changes and modifications adapting it to a community of cracked philosophers or turbulent Central Americans. How little danger there has ever been of the toleration of any such political gimcracks here has been shown by the promptness with which the Democrats have had to repudiate all thought of it. Even Tammany Hall has had to resolve that it would have nothing to do with any such folly.

The boarding of a crowded street-car at ten in the evening by five robbers, who soundly thrashed and robbed one of the passengers, and made their escape with his money, has been one of the curious incidents of the week. They owed their success in part to the fact that, as the passengers were mostly returning from a picnic, they thought the affair was a private row, until it was all over, and the oddity of it is heightened by the fact that two militiamen in uniform, though unarmed, were in the car. In order to heighten the effect of it, the reporters at first represented these two as eleven, fully armed and accoutred, and made them run like hares when they saw the thieves. The affair is called unprecedented, but it is not so. About seven years ago the assistant librarian of the Astor Library was seized and his pockets rifled, on the platform of a Third Avenue car, at two o'clock in the afternoon, and when he made an outcry had his head punched and was thrown into the street, and we believe never got any redress. More recently a man had his watch taken on the same line, and pursued the thief round and round the car, the confederates of the latter holding him back by his coat-tails, and the passengers looking quietly on, thinking that some bad characters were having a lark. In fact, a promis-

cuous body of persons is peculiarly exposed to surprises of this kind, and the wonder is that the thieves do not avail themselves more freely of the fact.

The week has not been notable for any very important financial or commercial event. Both here and in London the rates for loans have fallen to figures that mark extreme dulness; three months' discounts in London are as low as 1⅛ per cent., and short loans have been reported as low as ½ to ⅝ of 1 per cent. (per annum). This condition of the money market makes a great demand for interest-bearing securities that are believed to be safe. The sales of U. S. 4 per cents here were large, and the Treasury notified the holders of $5,000,000 more 6 per cent. bonds that they will be paid off; which makes $20,000,000 of 6 per cents notified for redemption since the Syndicate contract of April 11 was signed. The large subscriptions to the 4 per cents creates a demand for gold sufficient to keep the price at about 101. Silver has been steady during the week, and at the close the bullion value of the new silver dollar was $0.9029 gold.

The Congress is at last to meet in Berlin, as originally proposed, with Prince Bismarck as president; but no more is known than before about the nature of the preliminary arrangement between England and Russia. Lord Beaconsfield and the Marquis of Salisbury appear for England, and it is reported that Prince Bismarck has drawn up a memorandum of the points to be discussed, which contains also something in the nature of an outline plan of his own. The arrangement between England and Russia, whatever it may be, has apparently not had the effect of conciliating Austria, which is reported as more distrustful and suspicious than heretofore. But this is in part, at least, based on her continued military activity, which may be due to the expectation that she will be called on by the Congress for something in the nature of an occupation of some portion of the Turkish provinces. Troubles, too, are brewing in other quarters, which show that the Congress will not meet a day too soon. The hostility between the Russians and Rumanians grows steadily, and the former has at last taken the extreme course of forcing the Rumanian army out of positions on its own soil and substituting her own troops. The Bucharest Government has, too, made it known, though, we believe, not officially, that whatever may be the decision of the Congress about Bessarabia, it will not be surrendered by Rumania except to force. In fact, all things considered, no Congress since that of Vienna in 1815 has had such a job before it as the present one, with the difference, too, that the Vienna Congress was dealing with nations that were utterly tired of fighting, while this one has to pacify some which are longing for the fray, or, at all events, would be nothing loath to try their hand in one.

The German Emperor, whether luckily or unluckily for the Socialists it is hard to say, is recovering from his wounds, a wonderful proof of the vigor of his constitution. The would-be assassin, Nobiling, has been examined, but his condition is such that little or nothing has been extracted from him beyond a story that the task of killing the Emperor had been imposed upon him by lot, and that he was the agent of some kind of association. The investigation set on foot in consequence of this, however, has revealed nothing to confirm it, and the opinion gains ground that he was an isolated lunatic, with Socialist views and relations. The incident is none the less being used by Prince Bismarck to strengthen him in his efforts after repressive legislation. The bill which has just been defeated gave the Government almost discretionary power for three years over publications or meetings or societies having "Socialistic tendencies," and making the police the sole judge of the fact. Of course, this would have placed every newspaper in the country at their mercy. He now proposes to dissolve the Reichstag and trust to the prevailing horror caused by the attempt on the Emperor's life to give him a good majority, which will enable him not only to carry the Socialist Bill but the other changes in the Federal machinery in which he has recently been defeated. The preparations talked of to resist Socialism thus far seem to be wholly material except the offer of aid from the Pope, which comes curiously enough, it is said, as a *quid pro quo*—that is, he will operate against Socialism with the armory of the Church if Germany will modify the Falk laws; as if the Church was not always bound to work against evil.

An interesting decision has just been made by the English Master of the Rolls on the application of an English clergyman, Mr. Besant, the husband of the now well-known "advanced thinker" who, with Mr. Bradlaugh, was convicted some months ago of having published and circulated an indecent and otherwise immoral book. Mrs. Besant separated from her husband some years ago, owing to religious differences, retaining by common consent the custody of their only child, a daughter, during eleven months of the year. Since then she has "progressed" so rapidly that she has not only discarded all religious belief, but holds such extreme opinions upon marriage and other social arrangements as to exclude her from the society of nearly all the well-behaved and respectable portion of her own sex, and is educating her daughter in her own views; but there is no doubt of her sincerity and conscientiousness. Under these circumstances the father has asked the Court of Chancery to pronounce her unfit to have charge of her child, and the Court has given judgment in his favor on the general ground that a parent has no right to bring up a child in such a way as to inflict on it permanent social disability or disgrace. It has, however, been pointed out that, apart from Mrs. Besant's share in the publication of the indecent book, her general system of training is almost precisely that adopted by Mr. James Mill in the education of his son John Stuart, and the question consequently arises, Would the courts, if applied to by one parent, take away a child from the custody of another for bringing it up oddly, or in a manner to make it peculiar and out of harmony with the society in which it was to live? Whether it will be well for the courts to have such discretion may be doubted, but there can be little doubt that there is no more odious form of oppression than that sometimes inflicted by a queer, eccentric parent in bringing up a sensitive and shy child to hold the same relations to the world as he himself holds.

Probably nothing produces more bad blood among "esteemed contemporaries" than disputes about their comparative circulation. Every now and then one of them publishes a self-laudatory article in which it shows by some process, which the others pronounce utterly delusive, that its edition is vastly greater than that of any of the others—sometimes than that of all the others put together; there then follows much recrimination, and a solemn challenge on one side or the other to leave the whole matter in controversy to some very partial authority, which is of course not accepted, and the disputants separate with mutual maledictions. Here this usually excites the merriment of the public; in France it is a serious matter. Under the French law, to give a disparaging account of an "esteemed contemporary's" circulation, either by putting it lower than it really is, or by representing it untruly as lower than your own, is to commit an offence known as "concurrence déloyal," and makes you liable to pursuit before the Tribunal of Commerce. Accordingly, the *Figaro* having copied from the New York *Herald* the other day an account of the circulation of the *Univers*, which the latter pronounced incorrect, it was cited before the Tribunal, which found it guilty, not of "unfair competition," but of having unjustifiably excited a prejudice, and accordingly fined it $100. What materials such a judgment would furnish here for comments on the force of human envy and baseness, and the vastness and beneficence of the work done by at least one journal for the country and for humanity!

THE ELECTORAL SYSTEM AND THE PRESIDENTIAL COUNT.

TWO subjects connected with Presidential elections have occupied the attention of the present Congress during the past eight months—the electoral system itself and the electoral count. Both became in 1876 the objects of much interest, and the extraordinary difficulties which Congress met in 1877 in deciding the results of the Presidential election of the year before fully justified the popular anxiety. Since the present Congress met, discussion has chiefly concentrated itself on the supposed defects of the electoral system, and little has been heard of the count. With regard to the former, the objection raised is that through the instrumentality of the Electoral College the results of the popular and of the secondary elections do not necessarily correspond; that a candidate may be elected by a minority of the popular vote. To this it is replied that the object of the framers of the Government was not to secure a popular machinery, but to have the President represent a majority of the States; that this object obviously cannot be attained except by making the State in some way the electoral unit, and that any change in the direction of a purely popular vote would be merely a blow at the independence of the States. To this it may be replied with considerable force that whatever the object of the framers of the Constitution originally was, the actual result of the system they introduced has been a thoroughly popular election, in which everybody practically casts a direct vote for President and Vice-President, supplemented, however, by an antiquated and obsolete device known as an electoral college, but really a mere clerical registration board, which, instead of registering the result of the popular election, records a totally different result, by which the former may be actually upset. In other words, we have popularized the method of reaching the result, but this popularization has no effect on the result itself. Long reflection on this hardship, produced by the inflexibility of the constitutional provisions on the subject, brought the late Senator Morton, in one of his more thoughtful moods, to the conclusion that the framers of the Government hated the people and popular government, and that their absurd device of an electoral college was a sort of last asylum in our system of the "aristocratic" principle.

Several means have been suggested for rooting out this anti-popular feature: election by districts; election by States, with the added safeguard of a minority representation after the vote; the abolition of the electoral college—all of them being based on the idea of securing as nearly as possible a direct popular system. Of course there is no certain way of obtaining this short of a total abolition of State lines, and a direct vote by the whole people; even the introduction of the electoral system by districts would not absolutely secure it; for, although the districts are geographical divisions based solely on population, they are merely smaller units than States, and it is possible to conceive without much difficulty of a political situation in which enormous party majorities in a minority of districts might be pitted against slight majorities in a majority of districts, in which case a President might be elected by a popular minority as now. Indeed, so long as the "solid South" continues to be opposed in Presidential elections to a "solid North," this result is not unlikely, whether the electoral units be States or districts. Besides this, there is another serious objection to the district system, which the history of the various State governments ought to suggest—the danger of gerrymandering. As long as State lines are preserved this danger is reduced to a minimum. The established States with fixed boundaries cannot be tampered with, nor can a new State be carved out of an old one without the consent of both; here and there a territory may be erected into a State for party purposes; but this occurs so seldom that it may be called a small danger. But, the district system introduced, gerrymandering begins at once. The dominant party will necessarily in its own interest begin to "fix" the division lines so as to give itself as many districts as possible, and we should probably soon be confronted with an "apportionment" scandal on a national scale, similar in kind, but incomparably greater in degree and more disastrous in its results, than that which we have witnessed during the past few years in this State. Among Congressional districts the ravages of the gerrymander may always be seen going on. Within the past fortnight the Republican newspapers have been raising a cry, probably well justified by the facts, over the "redistricting" by the Democrats of Ohio and Missouri; and we may be certain that redistricting will become an even more active form of political activity the moment it is found that Presidential elections may be made to hinge on it.

But, whatever may be thought of these reasons, there is the insuperable difficulty in the way of a radical change that it must be introduced through a constitutional amendment, which there is no reasonable probability of getting adopted by the requisite number of States. The present system throws enormous power into the hands of the large States, and no change could recommend itself generally which threatened to curtail this. In 1876, for instance, the possibility of having all the electoral votes of New York counted in favor of the Democratic candidate was the pivot on which the election turned. There is every reason why the politicians of such States as New York, Pennsylvania, Ohio, or Illinois should bitterly oppose any scheme which has for its express object the reduction of their political influence and the equalization of it with that of other smaller, poorer, and less powerful communities.

We may, therefore, on the whole, dismiss from our calculations as to the last degree improbable all the proposed alterations of our electoral system. That will probably continue to go on as heretofore. There remains, however, the other branch of electoral reform—that relating to the count of the electoral vote by Congress. With regard to this there has been no difference of opinion for some years. The provisions of the Constitution were proved two years ago, as they had been long known to be, entirely inadequate. In fact, beyond the existence of a provision that the votes are to be "opened" and "counted," there may be said to be no provisions whatever. Accordingly, we were confronted in 1876 with all sorts of startling and revolutionary theories on the subject—among others that the President of the Senate was vested by the Constitution with all the powers of a returning board, and could determine, without possibility of interference, the result of a disputed Presidential election. Even with the machinery of an electoral bill devised for the express purpose, the questions raised after the election of 1876 were so numerous and intricate that the count was protracted until the very eve of a new term and the country threatened with all the dangers of an interregnum, if not of anarchy. The upshot of the discussions of that year settled it that the votes were to be counted by the two houses of Congress, and the Electoral Bill made minute provisions for all questions of disputed returns and differences of opinion during the count between the two houses. But the bill was a mere temporary device, and no permanent measure has yet been passed. This is the more remarkable inasmuch as it is a solitary *casus omissus* in our electoral system. In all the States there are minute legislative provisions for the determination of election disputes over the meanest offices; where statutes do not exist, the courts deal with the subject by *quo warranto*. It is only when we reach the highest office in the country that we find a total absence of precautionary measures. Every step relating to a Presidential contest is left vague and uncertain, as if to invite and to ensure trouble.

Here, too, there is no great difficulty in providing a remedy, and the present Congress has undertaken to provide one. Both houses, we believe, have referred the matter to committees, and Senator Edmunds, from the Select Senate Committee on Presidential Elections, has recently reported a carefully-drawn bill to provide against the recurrence of any troubles like those of 1876. It requires the appointment of electors in each State on the first Tuesday of October (a month earlier than under the present law); prohibits the appointment of any Senator, Representative, or person holding an office of trust or profit under the United States; directs the electors of each State to meet and cast their votes on the second Monday of

the January next following; allows each State to provide by laws (which must be enacted prior to the day fixed for the appointment of electors) for "the trial and determination of any controversy concerning the appointment of electors before the time fixed for the meeting of the electors in any manner it shall deem expedient." Every such determination so made, and made prior to the time of meeting of the electors, "shall be conclusive evidence of the lawful title of the electors" so determined, "and shall govern in the counting of the electoral votes" by Congress. Section five requires the executive of each State to make out and certify three lists of the electors thus ascertained, and to deliver them to the electors on or before the day fixed for their meeting. Other sections provide that Congress shall be in session, on the second Monday in February succeeding every meeting of the electors, in the Hall of Representatives (the President of the Senate presiding), and shall proceed to count the votes by tellers. The President of the Senate is to open the certificates and hand them to the tellers. Further provision is made for objections "to the certificates." These must be in writing, duly authenticated, and are to be submitted to each house separately. In the case of single returns, no electoral vote is to be rejected except by an affirmative vote of both houses. In the case of double returns, the determination of the State tribunals is to govern the count; but in case of a conflict between the State tribunals, only those electoral votes are to be counted which come from the electoral college decided by a concurrent vote of both houses to have the support of the lawful tribunals of the State; in case no determination has been made by the State, then also for any counting a concurrent affirmative vote is required.

This measure is a wise one, and deserves to pass. It probably comes as near settling the great question of double returns as is possible for a human political device. In the first place, every State has three whole months between the elections and meeting of the electors to determine by means of its own tribunal all such questions as arose in 1876 in the three disputed Southern States; and every State may pass what laws it pleases providing for such a contingency. The difficulty in such a State as Florida in 1876 was that no conclusive proceedings to test the title of the rival electoral bodies were possible. In case of the passage of this bill, all Florida will have to do will be to pass a law making it possible for the courts, or some other tribunal, to decide any questions that may arise. The decision of the State is also made binding on Congress in the case of double returns. In the case of double returns where there has been no determination by the State, the practical effect of the bill will be that the vote will not be counted at all, and it cannot be said that after such a natural result of a total neglect of opportunities this would be a very great hardship. It is practically the case of no election in the State.

"MEXICANIZATION."

THERE was much not unnatural alarm before the last election about the "Mexicanization" of our Government, apropos of the Southern practice of carrying elections by intimidation. To carry elections by intimidation is undoubtedly a Mexican practice, but it is nevertheless true that the English constitution, which may be called the progenitor or model of all free governments now in existence, and in many ways the most successful of them, has either been built up by or grown up in spite of elections carried through influences which were intimidation in some form or another—that is, the coercion of tenants by landlords and of laborers by employers. So that, though the Mexicans resort to the practice, it is not a distinctively Mexican practice, nor does even the prolonged use of it necessarily cause the "Mexicanization" of a government or the destruction of either liberty or security. True "Mexicanization" consists in the spread among the voters of both parties of the belief that the Government can only be carried on by one party, and that if the other party gets into power it ought to be resisted as a foreign invader and driven out by force of arms if necessary. Any man who thinks this may feel sure that he is a Mexican; any politician who preaches it is a Mexican; the black broadcloth and prunella gaiters and stovepipe hat cannot disguise him. If by party government in a free country he means government by one party only, and treats the other party as a public enemy, whose advent to power would ruin his country, he might as well put on embroidered breeches, silver spurs, and a sombrero, and go cockfighting on Sundays.

The application of this to the present situation is not difficult. The Democratic party, both as regards its composition and its policy, in so far as it can be said to have a policy, is as obnoxious to us as it can be to any of our readers—is more so to us, indeed, we have little doubt, than it is to most of our readers. But it comprises very nearly, if not quite, one-half the voters of the Republic. It cannot be disfranchised; it cannot be expelled from the country; it cannot be kept for ever in opposition. The American Government is a party government, which means that it is a government which either of at least two parties can carry on, and which any party that can get a majority on its side, whether it be as virtuous as we should like or as safe as we should like or not, has a right to carry on. To believe in this thoroughly, and to be willing to act on it under all circumstances, is American; to deny it and declare that unless one party, composed of the good and wise—the "bien pensants," as the French Legitimists call them—retains constant possession of power our institutions cannot last, is Mexican, and is a constant incentive to civil war. Mexicanism is not civil war; it is not any overt act whatever; it is a state of mind, a way of looking at political affairs, which makes civil war always possible and prevents all internal reform. Internal reform is not possible, no genuine progress is possible, in a country in which every election, or every unpleasant move, however legal, on the part of the other party is treated as the probable beginning of a revolution or as a fair excuse for armed resistance. We have for these reasons scouted and ridiculed the cry raised by so many Republicans that the Democratic investigation now pending was a revolutionary move and might call for civil war. It is this, and not the investigation, which is Mexican, for the investigation is perfectly legal and constitutional. Says a usually sensible paper, the Philadelphia *Bulletin*:

"The *Nation* attempts to prove the insincerity of those persons who profess to apprehend revolution by the fact that in spite of all their expressed fears they have not begun to barricade their houses. This is a powerful argument, coming from a journal that assumes to have the destinies of the country under its guardianship. A good many wise people believed in 1860 that a great revolutionary movement was impending, but if any one of them filled his parlor with loaded double-barrel guns and had iron armor put upon his front door, the fact has not yet been revealed."

A "great revolutionary movement" *was* impending in 1860; there was no concealment about it. Many States announced openly, Mexican fashion, that if a certain election went against them they would throw off their allegiance to the Government and make another republic, and they believed they would succeed. They failed, however, miserably, and after awful loss and suffering. If that experience had had no effect on them, and they were now ready to revolt again, it would be not Mexican, or even Caffre, but something still lower, say Comanche. It would show that their mental processes and ideals were below those of the higher order of savages. To keep declaring that it has had no effect on them, and that they are ready for another war, is Mexican talk; it is not Anglo-Saxon talk.

But what the Democrats are doing now, however foolish or mischievous, is strictly legal. The majority of the House are carrying on an enquiry into the conduct of certain high officials in a Presidential election. This is a constitutional proceeding; it is as constitutional and as safe as what the Tories are doing to-day in England. Anybody who thinks it will lead to revolution, and keeps calling on his neighbor to prepare for it, ought to set an example of preparation himself, if he is sincere; for a conflict between the Democrats and Republicans now would not be, as in 1860, a sectional war; it would be a county and town war, a war in which neighbors and friends all over the country would be arrayed against each

other. Anybody who believes that this is impending either believes the American Government has totally failed already, and is, therefore, a very silly pessimist, or is a true Mexican, who believes that civil war is a proper or but slightly objectionable accompaniment of every election. He ought in either case to "fill his parlor with double-barrelled guns and put iron armor on his front door"; he is foolish enough for either precaution.

But, it will be said, since the Democratic party is, as you admit, a dangerous and mischievous party, what is the harm of working on people's imaginations about it and frightening them with pictures of dreadful things that will happen if it gets into power? The first objection is the one we have already set forth: that it helps to Mexicanize the public mind and prepare large bodies of thoughtless persons for remedies outside of the law and the Constitution. Made up as our society is now, such talk is very pernicious and may greatly increase the difficulties with which we have already to contend. The second is, that this plan of suppressing the Democrats has now been tried for ten years, and has proved a total failure. Many Republicans talk—some doubtless think—about the Democratic majority in the House, which is now so troublesome and menacing, as if it had been created by some trick or *coup de main*, as if Potter and Randall and the rest of them had obtained their seats and their power by rushing into the House when no one was looking and declaring themselves representatives of the American people. The unpleasant truth is, however, that they are there because they got majorities in their districts, and they are formidable because they have about half the American people at their back, and for no other reason. When the Republican Congressional Committee sends out a circular asking the Government clerks for $12 75 apiece to prevent the election of a Democratic House, which they say "would precipitate upon the country dangerous agitations," what they fear is not that the Democrats will seize the House, but that a Democratic majority will be elected by the voters. It is among the voters, therefore, that the Democratic majority is to be attacked; and on them the Republicans have been trying their present tactics ever since 1868—that is, trying to keep possession of power by describing the dreadful things that would happen if the Democrats got into power. Here is the result, which is worth studying, and it is to be observed that it has been gradually brought about with "the machine" in full activity, with General Grant in the White House as a "saviour of society," and with "the bloody shirt" waving freely—with, in short, all those instrumentalities in use which we are urged to keep on trying:

REPUBLICAN STRENGTH IN CONGRESS.

1870—Majority in Senate	50	1874—Senate	27
" " House	97	House	105
Total	147	Total	132
1871—Senate	40	1875—Senate majority	11
House	35	House *minority*	74
Total	75	Minority	63
1872—Senate	30	1876—Senate majority	17
House	25	House *minority*	77
Total	55	Minority	60
1873 (after the Greeley farce)—Senate	25	1877—Senate majority	2
House	103	House *minority*	13
Total	128	Minority	11

Nothing could show more clearly than this that the bulk of the voters are not afraid of the Democrats as a mere Mexican bugbear, and do not believe they will overturn the Government or reduce us to the level of Mexico, and nothing can therefore be more futile than renewing this now familiar cry and relying on it. The Democrats must be attacked in the minds of the people, on the assumption that the majority desire good, orderly, and progressive government and by a party which is itself united, and has a programme of its own which commends itself to the intelligence and social aims and ambitions of the industrious classes, who after all are the supreme bestowers of power, and who cannot be permanently humbugged or frightened. This country cannot be governed very long by any party by working on people's fears; something must be done for their hopes. The generation which was shocked by the war and still looks for the rebels in every bush is passing away or growing old. The new one cannot be led to the polls by the Hales and Blaines and Gorhams and Conklings in heavy marching order, and they are the worst enemies of the Republican party and of good government who keep pretending that they hear the cannon every time the Democrats make a foolish use of constitutional power.

LODGINGS FOR SINGLE WOMEN.

IT would be a great pity if the flippant rant of the speakers at the Cooper Union last week, denouncing Judge Hilton's abandonment of the working-women's hotel, were allowed to divert attention from the real merits of that remarkable performance. It is admitted that Judge Hilton—he nominally acts in Mrs. Stewart's name, but so nominally that in discussing the matter she may as well be left out of sight—was not legally bound to build or carry on a hotel for the use of working-women. He was, as his action has shown, perfectly free not to open the building to women exclusively at all. He might have made it what it is now on the very day it was finished, and might have tried the experiment of the women's hotel in any manner he pleased. The gorgeous furniture, the fine library, and the general elaboration of the fittings—all the things, in short, except the building itself, which made the enterprise expensive, were of his own contriving. He might have made the furniture very simple, and the accommodation of all kinds so plain that he need not have charged six dollars for rooms and board. He might, too, have put closets in the rooms and have run a rail round the cornice, on which the inmates could have hung pictures without damaging the walls, and have allowed them to have sewing-machines and birds and flowers, and even have permitted "visiting around" among guests of the hotel without any restriction. The whole matter was within his control. So that when he opened the kind of establishment he did open, and fixed the price so high that the community could not furnish enough female boarders who could pay it, and made the rooms in one way or another so inconvenient that even those who could pay the rent were not willing to live in them, the conclusion is not unfair that he never intended that the experiment should succeed. In short, he doomed it to failure from the beginning. If it had been entered on as a business enterprise, his abandoning it and converting the building to another use would be so completely his own affair or the affair of the Stewart estate that the public would have nothing to say about it. But the building was begun for a charitable use in Mr. Stewart's lifetime. What this use was his representatives have since his death explained to the world, and that Mr. Stewart imposed the execution of his designs on them as a *moral* trust, their opening of the hotel is a sufficient acknowledgment. That their opening it under such conditions that the persons for whose benefit it was designed either would not or could not avail themselves of it, would of itself raise a presumption that the executors meant to evade this moral obligation, they being unquestionably well acquainted with the habits and needs of the working-women who were expected to fill the hotel. This would be true, even if the hotel were now turned over to some other kind of charity—if, that is to say, Judge Hilton were to deal with it under what the lawyers call the *cy-près* rule, which directs that when a charitable bequest cannot for any reason be applied to the object to which the testator directs its application, it shall be applied to some object as nearly resembling it in character as possible. But when all pretence of using the building for any charitable object is given up, and it is converted to purely commercial uses, the presumption rises into positive proof of perversion—not legal perversion which can be corrected by the courts, but moral perversion which the public ought to visit with condemnation. When a man proclaims himself the holder of property left in his hands by a deceased person for a public use he virtually pledges himself to the public to execute the trust, if not in the manner the testator had in mind, in the best manner he can. He has no right to say that the testator was a visionary, and that he is going to use the money in trade; if the bequest were a legal one made in a will, the courts would not allow him to do this; when it is a mere moral legacy the community ought to see that he does not do it with impunity.

But Judge Hilton's refusal to do anything at all ought not to blind us to the difficulties of what he undertook to do. There has been a great deal of abuse heaped upon him for attempting to impose *any* restrictions on his female boarders except such as he would impose on the inmates of an ordinary hotel, and a large part of the time of the meeting at the Cooper Union the other night was devoted to showing that it was ridicu-

lous to ask women to submit to any restraints on their liberty to which men are not usually asked to submit, and that nobody *would* ask it but a conceited and tyrannical man. To this he has made an easy answer by producing the rules of the boarding-houses carried on by the Young Women's Christian Association in this city, which are in fact more stringent than his, and a correspondent showed in the last number of the *Nation* that similar rules are in force in the very successful boarding-houses of the Young Women's Christian Association of Boston. That is to say, the best women, and those who are the most anxious to help the less fortunate ones of their own sex, agree with heartless and greedy and obtuse men, such as Judge Hilton is charged with being, in thinking that if you set up a lodging-house for women exclusively, you must, in order to make it effective, conduct it in a very different manner from a lodging-house designed for men exclusively.

When one comes to enquire the reason of this opinion one finds himself treading on some very hot embers of controversy, or rather the hot embers of several controversies. One finds himself at once in danger of collision with the friends of the political equality of the sexes, and with those who think women ought to pursue all callings in common with men, and with those who think boys and girls ought to be educated together under exactly the same régime in all schools and colleges. Working-women who come to the cities now to earn their living, and for whose relief these charitable enterprises are designed, and do live now in vast numbers in cheap lodgings, have to submit to no such restrictions. The very fact of their supporting themselves furnishes them, it is said, with a valid title to decide what is necessary for their physical or moral welfare—that is, for the preservation of their health and reputation—and any attempt to supersede their discretion in the matter is an odious bit of petty tyranny on the part of those who try to help them. But the fact that women lead wholly independent lives (that is, lives exempt from surveillance) who come to great cities to earn their bread, is one of the reasons why the benevolent of their own sex are so anxious to provide them with lodgings where some sort of surveillance would be exercised. That is to say, most thoughtful women, as well as most thoughtful men, recognize that women, in their efforts to be independent and self-supporting, are weighted in the race by two very unpleasant facts: one is that a woman's reputation is a far more delicate thing than a man's, easier to damage, and if damaged, harder to restore; and that, therefore, everything that makes it easier for her to take care of it—such as the possession of a well-ordered home and the society of friends—is an invaluable aid to her under any circumstances, and if she is called on to earn her own living, it must inevitably relieve her, if she is a right-minded person, of much heavy care and trouble. By living in a properly-regulated boarding-house, and submitting to a few restrictions on her liberty, she not only obtains a very useful certificate of character, but is relieved of all sorts of small precautions, the provision of which would otherwise devolve on her. The other is, that not only is her reputation a more delicate thing than a man's, but that it is the object of persistent and yet disguised attack on the part of men; in other words, it is assailed by persons whose society is naturally and properly agreeable to her, through emotions and affections which are in themselves not only harmless, and even praiseworthy, but which constitute part of what is best and noblest in her nature. Her position, in fact, somewhat resembles that of a young man whose enjoyment of another young man's society constituted a constant temptation to commit theft which both of them had great difficulty in resisting, and, indeed, surrounded theft with an atmosphere of poetry and romance, and associated it closely with what was most beautiful and attractive in nature and art, and made music and painting and fine scenery in some sense an incentive to it. If men were tempted in this way to courses which worked either moral ruin or led to the loss of public confidence in their rectitude, there would be no more objection to their receiving aids to virtue in the shape of domestic restraints on their liberty than there is now to their being held to strict accountability through book-keeping and vouchers in money matters; and the aids would be offered, and by the wise as cheerfully accepted as an upright man now accepts the obligation to keep accounts of his dealings with other people's funds.

The growing disposition and growing competence of women to earn their own bread, even if it involves leaving their homes to seek their fortune in the world, have been undoubtedly accompanied by some modification on the part of the public in the laws of what is called "propriety," but there has been no such modification as to make the position of a working-woman earning from three to ten dollars a week in a great city, and living in such private lodgings as her means bring within her reach, anything but perilous and uncomfortable. Those who know most of the experience of women in this plight paint it in the darkest colors. That any good discipline, any preparation for better things, is to be got out of it is a delusion, and the very things that make city life attractive, the temptations to dress and amusement which it constantly offers, aggravate its evils. There could, therefore, hardly be a better use for the money and labor of the philanthropic than the provision of homes for such women, such as it was generally supposed Mr. Stewart was about to offer. Every large city ought to contain them in abundance, but they ought to offer nothing in the shape of luxury to those whose wages put luxury beyond their reach. At the same time it is not necessary that the rates of board should be high enough to pay for all that is given. There is no doubt that the only sound basis for such establishments is the commercial basis, but the basis would be sufficiently commercial for all purposes of moral training if every woman paid what her wages enabled her to pay, and if all that she received in return, over and above what she paid for, was order, care in sickness, advice and protection in difficulty, and the comforts which come from good organization and purchases on a large scale. That such a sum as has been put into the Stewart Hotel should be diverted from such an object as this, and used to add another "first-class hotel" to the large number of bankrupt or poorly-patronized concerns of the kind which the city already contains, cannot but be regarded as a great public misfortune, and it certainly calls for more serious treatment than the silly abuse heaped on Judge Hilton at the indignation meeting.

THE SOUVENIRS OF DANIEL STERN.

PARIS, May 17.

IT is quite true that few books can be as interesting as good memoirs. Truth is always, or often at least, better than imagination. I confess that I have but a limited admiration for the works of Madame d'Agoult, who wrote under the singular name of Daniel Stern. I doubt if many have read her 'Essay on Liberty,' her 'Florence and Turin,' her 'Nélida,' her 'Jeanne d'Arc.' Her 'History of the Beginning of the Republic of the Netherlands,' 1581 to 1625, shows a vigorous mind, as well as her 'History of the Revolution of 1848'—a book which is truly masculine in its accent, and is not without merit, though it hardly deserves to be ranked among the historical works of our time.

I began almost with reluctance, and certainly not without great diffidence, the 'Souvenirs of Madame d'Agoult,' and I was very agreeably surprised to find that the true woman at heart appeared in this last work. How different was this Madame d'Agoult, who lived from 1806 to 1833, from the Daniel Stern whom we have all seen, if not known, from the friend and associate of some of our most *advanced* littérateurs and politicians, who spent her last years in the society of Louis de Ronchaud, to whom the 'Souvenirs' are dedicated, of Nefftzer, the editor of the *Temps*, of Charles Dollfus, of Émile Ollivier, who tried to reconcile the Empire with liberty. Few women were seen in the salon of Daniel Stern, though she had become old, though her hair had quite turned grey, and though she never allowed the tone of her house to be anything but solemn and almost severe. Alas! she had not governed her life after the ordinary rules; she had wandered far from the paths of ordinary life; she had sinned against the laws of the world; and, as she says in her preface, "when a woman has made for herself her life, and when that life is not governed after the common rule, she becomes responsible for it—more responsible than a man—in the eyes of all. When such a woman, by the effect of chance or of talent, ceases to be obscure she contracts at once masculine duties."

Daniel Stern conceives that one of these duties is to write an autobiography. In the volume which is before me, however, the author does not attempt to explain the errors of her life. I suspect that Madame d'Agoult was not in the same mood as so many men and women who take pride in their errors; she did not triumph over the world like Madame Sand, like Jean Jacques Rousseau. Though she has a somewhat masculine style, she was after all a true woman; she was weak, or, at any rate, she knew that the world was strong. How she allowed herself to leave the paths of conventionality seems almost incredible to us; she must have been acting as in a dream, and when she woke up she found herself quite miserable. She longed for all that she had lost with an incredible longing; her whole being suffered acutely—her innate sense of decency, her intense aristocratic vanity, her family pride, her love of admiration. She felt like a queen in exile, who has lost her rank; she kept her queenly manners among the people who surrounded her, but they were not those among whom she had been born and bred. She could not conceive why

the world had been more severe towards her than towards other great ladies who had broken the ties of matrimony; she wanted the boldness of some sinners, their quiet assurance; she wanted also the support of a powerful family, as her family had turned against her and abandoned her. It is necessary to keep in mind this dramatic state of the author's mind in order to enjoy fully the reading of these 'Souvenirs.' They are, so to speak, the "super flumina Babylonis" of a wounded soul, which is looking for solace and comfort in the memories of a past and distant youth, and which is studying another and better self. A severe critic might ridicule the affectation with which this author of the 'History of the Revolution of 1848' explains the origin of her family. How she delights in saying that she can find traces of the Flavignys in an old poem of the thirteenth century, in the Bible of Guiot de Provins! The Flavignys are mentioned with the Courtenays, the Duchastels, the D'Aspremonts, the Joinvilles; they bear "échiqueté d'argent et d'azur, à l'écusson de gueules en abyme."

Her father was an officer in the French army. When the Revolution broke out he followed his brother-officers to Coblentz. Prince Louis de la Trémoille gave him the brevet of colonel in the army of the Princes, and M. de Flavigny was sent to Frankfort-on-the-Main, with the mission of organizing a regiment. He there became acquainted with the Bethmann family, and a young widow of this family became enamored of the French officer, and, after much opposition on the part of all the Bethmanns, married him. Flavigny and his wife remained in Germany till the year 1809, when they bought an estate in Touraine. They had three children, two sons and a daughter, who was born in 1805.

Madame d'Agoult tells with much charm the history of her early years in Touraine. At the age of ten, when Bonaparte returned from the island of Elba, she was taken to Frankfort, and she describes the Bethmann family, "die alte Frau von Bethmann," her grandmother, her uncle Moritz, the hospitality of the Baslerhofs, the Hollweggs. One day she was in the garden with some young friends, and saw an old man, who was accompanied by the whole family with much respect. Her cousin told her, "Es ist der Herr von Goethe." Goethe spoke to her a moment and caressed her flowing hair.

In 1816 she returned to France, and the work of her education began in earnest. This education was ended in the famous Convent of the Sacré Cœur in Paris, which is still as Madame d'Agoult describes it, though it is threatened on all sides by the new streets and boulevards of Paris. She left the convent almost with reluctance; her father was no more, she was sixteen years old, she was very handsome, she was an heiress. This is how she describes herself: "Tall, slender, with a natural nobility in all my movements, a complexion as brilliant as snow, great blue eyes, limpid, fair and abundant hair, a thoughtful smile, I looked like a princess of the legends of the Rhine or of the ballads of Schiller." Madame d'Agoult had the vanity of beauty with an intensity and a simplicity which are almost touching; the consciousness or the memory of her beauty seems to have filled all her life. But I agree with her, "that some fondness of past beauty is the most natural and the most inoffensive sentiment in the world." This young Princess of the Rhine had not yet "what was French in her—the precision in the lines of the forehead, of the nose, of the mouth, the proud walk, the easy laugh"; this came afterwards. Such as she was, she had to make her *entrée* in the world under the auspices of an adoring mother. She did not herself adore her mother. "Her presence," she says, "was not agreeable to me, though she was for me nothing but indulgence. I would not have thought of opening my heart to her. I obeyed her in all my actions; she had no hold on my thoughts." The smell of the convent was not gone yet; the young beauty had a very exalted piety, and she suffered in the thought that her mother was a Protestant. She little thought at the time that her mother would afterwards become a Catholic, and that she would herself renounce all forms of Christianity and adopt philosophy as her religion!

She was married, as she says, "à la française": she was chosen, she did not choose. I will not enter here into the theoretical question of the "mariage à la française." It is enough to say that Madame d'Agoult, if she was the victim of an unfortunate fashion, could only accuse herself. She herself says that in the world where she lived she had remarked and preferred a peer of France, General Count de Lagarde, though he was forty-five years old. The general admired her and loved her without declaring his love. He came one day, on the eve of his departure for the waters of Gastein.

"When I entered the room M. de Lagarde was taking leave of my mother. I advanced towards him, and giving my hand to him—'I am going,' said he, and I felt tears coming to my eyes—'Yes,' said he, looking intently at me; and as I was silent, 'I am going,' said he again, and he added with a trembling voice, 'I go . . . unless you order me to stay.' Stay! . . . this word so short, this word which decided all my existence, it came, as rapid as thought, to my lips; I felt it there vibrating and trembling, . . . and there it expired. It died in an incredible suicide of love and of will. . . . Somebody came. M. de Lagarde went out. I went back to my room. I heard the carriage roll slowly under the archway; all was said. I put my head in my hand and sobbed."

And in consequence of this little incident, the beautiful Mademoiselle de Flavigny, after having looked with indifference on hundreds of adorers, was conducted to the altar by a man who was chosen by her family, by Count Charles d'Agoult, Colonel of Cavalry, nephew of the first Equerry of Madame la Dauphine, allied to the ancient houses of Castellan, of Sabran, of Simiane, of Forbin-Janson, etc. The King, Charles X.; the Dauphin, the Dauphine; Marie-Caroline, Duchess of Berry; the Duke of Orleans, the Duchess of Orleans, Madame Adelaïde, signed at her contract.

The best chapters of the 'Souvenirs' are the descriptions of the society of the Faubourg St. Germain just before the Revolution of 1831, and the presentations of the young countess to the little circles of the court. They are like those charming pictures and engravings of the end of the eighteenth century, in which a forgotten world seems to revive. It was the rule that the newly-married ladies should be presented in great ceremony. They were assisted by two *marraines*, and generally took lessons from M. Abraham, the dancing-master of the court. M. Abraham gave three lessons to Madame d'Agoult; he taught her to make the proper courtesies with the court-mantle. I will not attempt to describe the toilette; Madame d'Agoult, by special favor, was first presented in the *petits appartemens* to the Dauphine. "Coming straight to me, the Dauphine looks at me from head to foot, turns to the Viscountess d'Agoult, 'She has not enough red,' says she with a trenchant air; and, without saying a word more, she goes out as she had come, with a thundering rapidity. 'How did I not see it?' says the viscountess, looking herself at me, without showing the least astonishment at the singular reception of the Princess." There was no remedy; the apartments of the King were opened, and the young Countess, with the Viscountess d'Agoult on one side, the Duchess of Montmorency on the other, in one line made her low, profound, slow, and triple courtesy to His Majesty, Charles X. "Charles X., though he was seventy years old, had a certain *air de jeunesse*, with the indescribable *je ne sais quoi* of the French gentleman, when he has been much admired by the ladies. He was thin, slender, straight. Neither in the long oval of his face, nor in his oblique forehead, nor in his vague eyes, nor even in his white hair, was there anything which spoke of beauty or true authority; but the ensemble of it all seemed noble and graceful."

The soirées of the Dauphine, to which the young viscountess was admitted, were very solemn affairs. The Dauphine used to work at some tapestry; on both sides of her chair ladies were seated according to their rank. They only spoke to their neighbors, and in a very low voice. The Princess occasionally spoke loudly, and put a question; the answer was short, and the silence began again. The Dauphin invariably played at chess with the Viscountess d'Agoult, his old friend of Mitau. In another corner Charles X. played silently at whist with three of his gentlemen; when he retired, the whole company retired. Madame d'Agoult describes admirably the daughter of Louis XVI.; the stern Duchess d'Angoulême; the Duke d'Angoulême, the hero of the Trocadero; the Duke and the Duchess de Berry (the mother of the present Count de Chambord); her relations were such pure *ultras* that she was allowed to see little of the Palais Royal, where the Duke d'Orléans received the Liberals of the Restoration. The *salons* where she lived chiefly were the *salons*, now forgotten, of the Princess de la Trémoille, of the Marchioness de Montcalm, of the Montmorencys. She was allowed to go to Madame de Duras, to the Duchess de Narbonne, to the Duchess de Maillé, and to Madame Récamier.

The Revolution of 1830 ended this first act of an existence which was so different in its beginning and in its end. The fondness with which Madame d'Agoult has described her life when she was engaged in the regular hierarchy of society, shows how she remained always attached to the world with whom she broke with so much *éclat*. She is almost spiteful in her last chapters towards Madame Récamier and Madame de Staël, forgetting that Madame Récamier, though she was always courted, led the purest of lives, and that Madame de Staël, besides being a woman of genius, was always supported by a powerful family; she offended the

world, but never left the world, which is the offence the world will not and cannot forgive.

On the whole, these "Souvenirs" are, like most souvenirs, a melancholy book; it is painful to see the best gifts of nature, beauty, fortune, eloquence, wit, thrown away at the feet of some unworthy idol. But some chapters of this last work of Daniel Stern are really worthy of preservation, as minute and exact copies of the best French society in the later parts of the Restoration.

Notes.

THE author of a 'Life of Poe,' Mr. Eugene L. Didier, has in preparation a 'History of American Publishers,' full of gossip about men and books, anecdote, and biography, for which he invites suggestions and information. It will be illustrated with portraits. Mr. Didier's address is Monumental Library, 185 Madison Ave., Baltimore.——A 'Life of John Fitch, the Steamboat Inspector,' is in the press of J. B. Lippincott & Co. ——Alfred Martien, Philadelphia, will shortly publish 'The Law of Marriage, Divorce, Breach of Promise, and Rights of Married Women in the United States.'——The Society for Photographing Relics of Old London announces as the subjects of its fourth year's series Temple Bar; Gate and Courtyard of 102 Leadenhall Street (demolished in 1875); Houses in Gray's Inn Lane (demolished 1878); Shop in Brewer St., Soho; The "Sir Paul Pindar," Bishopsgate Street; Houses in Holborn. These views are permanent, in size 10 in. by 8 in., and may be had for the annual subscription of 10 shillings sixpence by addressing Mr. Alfred Marks, Long Ditton, Surrey.——We have received the first volume of Dr. F. Ratzel's work on the geography of the United States—the physical section—and are informed that the author requests for use in preparing his second volume (on social geography, or *Culturgeographie*) any late and fresh statistical information upon population, railroads, trade, commerce, industry, education. It may be sent him direct, at the Technische Hochschule, Munich, or through Prof. Adolph Werner, at the College of the City of New York. In the *Academy* of May 25 may be found some account of another work of Dr. Ratzel's, published three years ago, and not without its interest for Americans, on Chinese emigration (*Die chinesische Auswanderung*).——A very fair portrait of Mr. Edison, showing also distinctly his phonograph, is given in the June number of the N. Y. *Revista Industrial*. Mr. Edison's latest invention—an ear-trumpet for carrying on conversations at a distance of two miles or more in the open air—he calls a telescopophone. The achievement, wonderful as it is, seems less so than the name.——American engineers who attend the Paris Exposition have a strong inducement to visit Germany also, where a cordial reception awaits them at the hands of the Society of German Engineers and the Prussian Minister of Commerce. In Paris itself the Society of Civil Engineers of France offers "a hospitality worthy of our American colleagues." A circular of particulars has been issued by Mr. Thomas S. Drown, of Easton, Pa., Secretary of the American Institute of Mining Engineers.——It appears that the cable was in error in representing the report of the British Copyright Commission as unanimous. A number of minority reports have been made.——All of the late George Cruikshank's books, a great part of his prints, and a portion of his drawings and sketches were sold at auction last month and brought high prices. Some tiny Falstaff water-color drawings brought separately as much as $150 in two instances. The oil paintings fared not so well. There will be additional sales next winter. Cruikshank's pension has been continued to his widow.——A Platt-deutsche gathering has been held this week at Stuttgart with a view to raising the sum yet required to erect a monument to Fritz Reuter at Neu-Brandenburg. The *Athenæum* states that the subscription has been dragging for four years—— In *Polybiblion* for May M. J. Vaesen begins a series of papers on the public libraries of the United States, based on the Centennial volume of the Bureau of Education.——The second number of Georg Ebers's 'Egypt Illustrated and Described' ('Ägypten in Bild und Wort') has just appeared. The work is to comprise about thirty-six numbers and be enriched with some seven hundred illustrations. We may also note the appearance of the first number of the second volume of J. A. Vullers's edition of the 'Shahname' (Leiden), and a treatise by M. Schneidewin, 'Homeric Naïveté, an æsthetic-culture historical study.'

—The centennial celebration of the establishment of the first academy incorporated in this country was observed last Wednesday and Thursday, 5th and 6th of June, by the Phillips Academy, of Andover, Mass. Though Master Moody's famous Dummer Academy at Byfield was opened to pupils in 1763 it was not incorporated till 1782; and the act of incorporation of the Phillips Exeter Academy in New Hampshire followed by three years that granted to the Andover school. Phillips Academy was founded in 1778 by Judge Samuel Phillips, a graduate of Harvard College in 1771, for a time one of its overseers, and for twenty years the president of the Massachusetts Senate. His purpose was to establish a school fitted to instruct youth "not only in English and Latin grammar, writing, arithmetic, and those sciences wherein they are commonly taught, but more especially to learn them the great end and real business of living." Of such a purpose the history of the school has been worthy. Its students have numbered more than nine thousand, and three thousand of them have entered college. A large proportion of its graduates for the last thirty years it has sent to Yale, as the Exeter school has constantly sent the majority of its students to Harvard. In the list of its alumni are fifteen college presidents, and one hundred professors in colleges and professional schools. Among them are President Woods of Bowdoin, Stearns of Amherst, Kirkland and Quincy of Harvard, Professor Young of Princeton and Marsh of Yale and Churchill of Andover. Many of its students have also become distinguished in literature. N. P. Willis was a member of the school in 1821, and Oliver Wendell Holmes in 1824-25. Of such a history the anniversary exercises of last week were abundantly worthy. The oration of the Rev. Alexander McKenzie, of Cambridge, was mainly historical, but also considered the relation of the academy to the college. The poem of Dr. Holmes was a picture of school-life on Andover Hill fifty years ago; and, although pitched on a lighter key, deserves to be placed side by side with Mr. Longfellow's "Morituri Salutamus." Dr. Holmes also delighted his audience, at the dinner, by the reading of a brief translation made when, a boy of fifteen, he was a member of the school. An alumni association was organized; and the sum of $50,000 was raised towards an endowment fund, one half of which, continuing the liberality of the family whose name the school bears, was given by Mr. John C. Phillips, of Boston.

—Theodore Thomas's concerts at Gilmore's Garden began a fortnight ago, but it is perhaps too soon to judge of the probable success of this second attempt to attract popular audiences by thoroughly good music. The attempt has been made under different conditions from those which surrounded the first experiment at the Central Park Garden. There the place of amusement was a good way off, while the hall was small and adapted to concert music. Now the building is in the centre of the city, but it is of vast capacity; it must be tolerably well filled every night to pay, and it is not well fitted for hearing stringed instruments. This difficulty has been partly got over by railing off a considerable space in front of the orchestra, where it can be easily heard, and filling it with reserved seats for those who come to hear rather than to look on. Outside, however, go circling round and round the throng who come primarily to see what is going on, and the noise which their promenading makes is not a particularly good accompaniment for the music. A screen of moderate height erected behind the band would be worth trying. The music was announced in advance as of a popular character, and in a certain sense the promise is being fulfilled. Liszt's "Préludes," Wagner's "Tannhäuser March," Gounod's "Funeral March of a Marionette," are all popular with those whose ear has been sufficiently cultivated to know good music from bad; but we greatly fear that the musical education of a majority of the audiences which go to Gilmore's Garden has not carried them farther than the appreciation of "Home, Sweet Home" and "Champagne Charlie." In deference to popular taste Mr. Thomas has wisely secured the services of an able "cornetist," M. Shuebruck, who is certainly a capital player, and whose execution of variations on well-known airs always meets with great approval. As formerly at Central Park Garden, Mr. Thomas's Thursday evening programmes are quite classical; and it is to be hoped that the evident drawbacks of the present garden will not prevent really musical people from giving a hearty support to the enterprise.

—One of the minor compositions with which Mr. Thomas has this season pleased his audiences was a minuet by Boccherini, a composer of the last half of the eighteenth century whose name is now seldom seen on programmes. It is perhaps not generally known that he wrote no less than three hundred and sixty-six instrumental works, among them twenty symphonies and one hundred and thirteen quintets for two violins, viola, and two 'cellos. Better known are the facts that Handel wrote about fifty operas, all of which are now dead, and that of Haydn's one hundred and eighteen symphonies only about a dozen are occasionally played now. Schubert wrote more than six hundred songs, about one-half of which are

unknown or forgotten. Rossini manufactured thirty-eight, and Donizetti more than sixty, operas, of most of which scarcely the names are preserved; and other similar instances could be given by the score to show that of making compositions, as of books, there is no end. Now, why is it that of these compositions so many perish, like butterflies, after living a very short season? Partly because music, being the most subjective of the arts, is therefore the most progressive, and keeps altering with the changing intellectual and social phases of society and the growing complexity of our emotional life; but still more because of the reckless over-production of which most creative musicians are guilty. Their conduct is excusable in those cases where there is or was a pecuniary motive for it, but this pecuniary motive rarely existed, as composers are the worst-paid producers in the world, and many of the works of those who were most prolific were either not published at all or only long after their departure. Nor can they have hoped by such a course to improve their chances of immortality. On the contrary, it is evident that they would have greatly improved them by writing less and making that little richer in ideas and more finished in form. Had Handel written six operas instead of fifty, some of them would now perhaps be as popular as his oratorios; and, instead of having two hundred good Schubert songs, we might have at least one hundred more if that prolific writer had made better use of the doubtless great number of valuable ideas which he threw away in the remaining three hundred songs.

—Modern composers must be supposed to be familiar with these statistics and the lessons which they teach. And yet they do not seem to heed them at all. What is apt to strike one most in looking over the new catalogues of foreign music publishers is the rapidity with which the leading musicians produce their works. Their highest ambition appears to be to get as soon as possible beyond Opus 200. The *Neue Zeitschrift für Musik* recently asked pertinently, What is posterity to do with all these piles of music? It calls attention to the fact that there are now in Germany alone at least fifty composers whose names are generally known. Among these are twenty-nine opera composers, who, however, setting aside Wagner, have not in the last twenty years produced a single opera that will live. The list of German composers is headed by Wagner, Brahms, Raff, Franz, Rheinberger, Goldmark, Bargiel, Jensen, and we may add Rubinstein, and Liszt, who, though not Germans by birth, are yet thoroughly German as musicians. France adds to these Saint-Saëns, Gounod, Deliles, Joncières, Maillard, Massé, Masseult, Mermet, Offenbach, Thomas, and a host of others whose names usually disappear as quickly as they have come into notice. Of Italians only two, Verdi and Boito, deserve mention, although the smaller opera-writers who furnish all the "one-day flies" are countless in number. Belgium contributes about a dozen, Holland 11, Sweden 10, etc. The *Zeitschrift* points out that if the chances of immortality among composers of the past were 10 per cent., of the living only about 5 per cent. can have any rational hopes that their works will be played in the next century. This consideration certainly ought to make them hesitate in their course, and induce them to elaborate their ideas more carefully. Like their literary cousins who write for our best periodicals, these musicians must sooner or later learn to express themselves always neatly and concisely, to write only when they have something new to say, and to stop short when they have said it. The slovenly form and absence of polish and directness which often affect one so disagreeably in the literature of the Germans is no less conspicuous in much of their music; and it is to be regretted that more of them do not follow Chopin as a model in this respect. Heretical as it may sound, we must add that Mozart has too long been held up as a model of musical elegance by the critics. Nothing could be more aimless often than his cold formalism; nothing more slovenly and wearisome than his constant repetition of meaningless cadences at the end of every short musical phrase.

—Gen. A. A. Humphreys, Chief of the Engineer Department, has addressed a letter to the Chairman of the House Committee on Levees and Improvement of the Mississippi, in opposition to a scheme for surveying the Mississippi from St. Louis to the Gulf, preparing plans to improve navigation and prevent disastrous overflow, and carrying the same into effect. Four of the proposed commission are to be taken from the United States Corps of Engineers, but the fifth from civil life, though he is to be president and to control the decisions of the commission, even as to what projects, plans, or estimates shall be submitted to the President or Secretary of War. General Humphreys thinks this in the interest of Capt. J. B. Eads, who has recently proclaimed his ability to deepen the low-water channel of the Mississippi to twenty feet, and would naturally like to get to work at it as director-in-chief. Not only, however, does he encroach upon the proper province of the Engineers, who are actually engaged upon the survey of the river for the objects contemplated, but he challenges anew the Department's opinion of his capacity and of his success as shown in the working of the jetties at the South Pass. Gen. Humphreys denies the practicability of the canalization which he contemplates, or that there is any information on which to base an estimate of the extent and cost of works necessary for a twenty-feet low-water channel. As for the jetties at the South Pass, he asserts that the Department's prediction has proved true already, and that the bar-growth formed under their action is more rapid than the old, and can only be kept down by the indefinite extension of the jetties (which is both difficult and extremely expensive in deep water) or by dredging. Dredging has, in fact, been resorted to, as at Southwest Pass—or, in other words, the very thing which Congress sought to dispense with by making the Eads contract. These are serious representations, and should be duly weighed before Captain Eads is allowed the relief on his contract which he has already persuaded the Senate to grant him, and still more before any consideration is given to the larger scheme above described. To get the Mississippi River out of politics is a pressing economy; the getting of it in has cost us nobody knows how much.

—The first number of *Brain*, "a journal of neurology," which is to include in its scope "all that relates to the anatomy, physiology, pathology, and therapeutics of the nervous system," has lately made its appearance in London (Macmillan & Co.) It is to discuss mental phenomena only so far as these are correlated with their anatomical substrata, and mental disease is to be studied "by the methods applicable to nervous diseases in general." It is edited by Drs. Bucknill, Crichton-Browne, Ferrier, and Hughlings-Jackson, and the long list of English and foreign contributors seems to be a sufficient guarantee for the fulfillment of its programme. The first number, however, is somewhat disappointing. The different states of the pupil as symptoms of disease, muscular sense, the rôle of the dura mater in cerebral traumatism, the symptoms of organic brain-disease, the structure and distribution of cortical cells, and skull-mapping, are by no means subjects as yet "inadequately represented in existing medical and scientific serial literature." The only article which is not less indicative of a new departure than the prospectus is that on "Brain Forcing," by Dr. Allbutt. He regards all mental activities from five strictly neurological points of view. The best *quality* of brain is "that structure of cell and fibre which corresponds more widely or intimately with outer conditions, so that by virtue of such relation the individual more readily apprehends things and conceives them. This is genius in the stricter sense." *Quantity* is "the volume of nerve force given off by the brain," without regard to quality. *Tension* is "the power in the nerve action to overcome inner and outer resistance." *Variety* is "the congregation of different centres, and the weaving of mediate strands which gives the possessor not higher or wider, but a greater number of relations with outer things. In common life this is usually called versatility." *Control* is due "subordination of one centre to another, which, if of the lower to the higher, results in obedience to the more permanent order of the universe." Goethe, for instance, it is said, had all these faculties. Schiller "had high quality, tension, and control, but was defective in endurance and in variety. In Keats we recognize quality, tension, and variety in high degrees; control in less measure, and quantity in defect." Of these quality is highest, latest, and (consisting, "as it probably does, in added ganglionic and commissural structure") is least developed, though it is most easily injured by wrong methods of education. Quantity is most—tension, which is dependent on the "tides of the blood-vessels," is least—dependent on physical vigor. Variety is chiefly innate; control is mainly the creature of education. This bold nomenclature—when compared, *e.g.*, with the Cartesianism of Professor Huxley, who prefers to express matter in terms of mind rather than the reverse—is of great significance as indicating how far physiology has come to assume the arbitration of all psychological questions. Hence, as was urged in a late number of *Pflüger's Archiv*, physiology is fast becoming, like "philosophy," too wide and comprehensive a department to be advantageously included in its whole scope by individual workers. Analogies with and possible modes of mental action which are constantly suggested already lend great interest even to the details of the microscopic anatomy of brain-structure as described by Meynert, Flechsig, Luys, and many others. We earnestly hope that the editors of *Brain*, no less than Dr. Allbutt, are fully alive to the vast problem which has made and defined the department of physiological psychology—viz., to determine how far the philosophy of mind can be restated and new-dispensed in terms of neural structure and function.

—Every number of *Nature* since its enlargement has been remarkable for its contents, but the issue for May 23 possesses a peculiar interest. Mr. Francis Galton's paper on "Composite Portraits" gives the latest result of his very original study of the laws of consanguinity and descent. By a process intelligible to any one who understands the first steps in photography he takes upon one and the same plate faint successive images of several card-portraits, arranged in a pack before the camera, and so "registered" (to use a printer's term) that the eyes of each portrait are on a line, and equidistant from an imaginary vertical line between them. For the rest the portraits must have a general similarity in attitude and size, "but no exactness is necessary in either of these respects." What follows can shrewdly be predicted from these conditions: the features which are common to all the portraits will by dint of longest exposure make the strongest impress on the negative, while the different peculiarities will leave little if any trace of themselves. The "composite" thus obtained, when printed, shows a face that would not be suspected of being other than an individual likeness, and which yet bears a resemblance to every one of the members of which it is composed. It is, in short, an abstraction or *type* of these members. Mr. Galton has had engraved, to accompany his paper in *Nature*, a "composite" derived from three components borrowed from the British "rogues' gallery." He remarks in a descriptive note:

"To the best of my judgment the original photograph is a very exact average of its components; not one feature in it appears identical with that of any one of them, but it contains a resemblance to all, and is not more like to one of them than to another. However, the judgment of the wood-engraver is different. His rendering of the composite has made it exactly like one of its components, which it must be borne in mind he had never seen. It is just as though an artist drawing a child had produced a portrait closely resembling its deceased father, having overlooked an equally strong likeness to its deceased mother, which was apparent to its relatives. This is to me a striking proof that the composite is a true combination."

—What are the uses of this discovery? They are many, says Mr. Galton. "They give us typical pictures of different races of men, if derived from a large number of individuals of those races taken at random;" or of strongly-marked selected types, as from the criminal classes: Stranger still, however, we may by means of components obtain "a really good likeness of a living person"—not simply a phase, or an expression, but the essential characteristics. In like manner, portraits of historical personages might be produced from contemporaneous coins, medals, statues or other effigies. In both these instances, however, the likeness known or presumed to be the best should "weight" the most—*i. e.*, should be allowed a longer exposure before the sensitized plate, and this is particularly the case when attempting, as Mr. Galton next proposes, "to compare the average features of the produce with those of the parentage." For example, "I should 'weight' each parent as 4, and each grandparent and each uncle as 1; again, I should weight each brother and sister as 4, and each of those cousins as 1 who inherited any part of the likeness of the family in question, etc." Finally, not only can men and women thus forecast the results of marriages, but breeders of animals may do the same for any proposed union. Mr. Galton solicits "sets of family photographs all as nearly as possible of the same size and taken in the same attitudes," and suggests as the proper size for them "that which gives one-half of an inch interval between the pupil of the eye and the line that separates the two lips." He shows how one may, by using the stereoscope, obtain the effect of two superimposed images; we can vouch for the striking results of this simple experiment.

—A correspondent writes to us from London, under date of May 18: "It is still something of an event in London when Mr. Henry Irving undertakes a new part; and I hope I shall not seem to speak brutally if I say that it is a good deal of an event when he undertakes it successfully. This happened several weeks ago, and the interval has proved the success. Mr. Irving appeared as *Louis XI.*, in an English 'arrangement,' of which I believe the perennial Mr. Boucicault has the credit, of Casimir Delavigne's rather dull and dreary drama of that name. It makes, as now performed at the Lyceum, quite what is called on the English stage (where alone the monstrosity is known) as a "one-part play." But Mr. Irving plays his one part very well, and it is probably his most satisfactory creation. In this elaborate, picturesque representation of a grotesque old tyrant, at once passionate and cunning, familiar and ferocious, he has the good fortune that some of his defects positively come to his assistance. He is an incongruous *Hamlet* or *Macbeth*, but he is a very consistent *Louis XI.* The part was a favorite one with Charles Kean, who played it with more delicacy, and, at the same time (according to my recollection), with more *rondeur*, as the French say; but certainly, in the actual state of the English stage, there is no actor capable of doing the thing so cleverly and picturesquely as Mr. Henry Irving—in spite of his always saying 'gaw' for *go*, 'naw' for *no*, etc. Mr. Irving's eccentricities of utterance, however, are very numerous, and on this point the auditor must make a large concession at the outset. Apropos of the actual state of the English stage, I may add that it has just been very oddly illustrated by the remarkable success, at the Court Theatre, of Mr. Wills's play of 'Olivia,' a pathetic drama extracted—violently extracted—from the 'Vicar of Wakefield.' The idea of making an effective play, adapted to the modern appetite, of Goldsmith's delicate and humorous masterpiece, whose charm is almost wholly the exquisite narrative style, could have originated only with a playwright desperately at a loss for a subject. Yet 'Olivia,' with all Goldsmith's humor and delicacy left out, is a great success—a success rivalling that of the cleverly-played 'Diplomacy,' at the Prince of Wales's, of which a report was some time since given in your columns. It seemed to me at the Court Theatre that the success could only be accounted for by an extraordinary apathy of taste on the part of the public, and a good-natured disposition in the well-fed British playgoer who sits in the stalls after dinner to accept a pretty collection of eighteenth-century chairs, and buffets, and pottery, with which 'Olivia' is elaborately equipped, as a substitute for dramatic composition and finished acting. The play is tame, dull, and puerile, and the acting can hardly be condemned in a piece which offers such meagre opportunities. The only opportunities, in fact—and they are singularly few—are those of Miss Ellen Terry, as the heroine. Miss Ellen Terry, whom it is greatly the fashion to admire, has a great deal of charm and an interesting, pathetic, even beautiful countenance. But, whether it is the amateurship of the piece or not, the representative of the Vicar's erring daughter seems amateurish. The goody-goody, namby-pamby element in 'Olivia' is its most striking feature, and, combined with the extreme thinness of its interest, it really makes a thoughtful spectator revert longingly to those skilful productions of the French theatre in which, if the moral tone is loose, the dramatic texture is of the finest. It provokes him to declare that the highest morality, for a play, is that it be very well made. It would be interesting to hear the judgment of a first-rate French critic—of M. Francisque Sarcey, for example—upon such a drama and such a performance as 'Olivia.'"

HUGO'S HISTOIRE D'UN CRIME.*

WHY does Victor Hugo's last volume leave on the mind even of admirers a sense of unmistakable failure? The greatest of living French writers undertakes to denounce the vilest political crime of the nineteenth century. We expect one of those immortal diatribes by which indignant virtue has three or four times within the world's history branded successful vice with eternal infamy. Æschines will for all time writhe under the eloquence of Demosthenes. Catiline and Antony will never get rid of the insults hurled at them by Cicero. No historian, charm he never so wisely, will ever persuade mankind that Nero and Tiberius were not the monsters they are painted by Tacitus. The heroes of the Reign of Terror have found their followers, their admirers, and their apologists, but no skill of advocacy has availed to heal the wounds inflicted on their reputation by the combined insight, passion, and rhetoric of the 'Regicide Peace.' Victor Hugo might, we had hoped, have left as his last legacy to his country a picture of the *Coup d'état* which should throughout all generations cover Napoleonic Imperialism with infamy. If such was the aim of the greatest living genius who has ever devoted his talents to the service of republicanism, we are forced most unwillingly to admit that he has failed of his end, and to ask again what is the cause of the failure.

The causes—for there are more than one—are not far to seek, but they are worth consideration. The most obvious is that Victor Hugo's genius, great though it undoubtedly is, is not the genius of an orator of the first class. To attain perfection in the eloquence of invective, as in every other kind of eloquence, a writer or speaker needs (in addition to passion and imagination) self-restraint and rationality. Each of these qualities Victor Hugo, in spite of his transcendent powers, lacks. An orator must be passionate, but he must not write in a passion. Throughout every page of this volume the reader feels that Victor Hugo is angry, but the rage of the writer conceals the justice of his anger. No actor (and every orator or rhetorician is to a certain extent an actor) ever

* 'Histoire d'un Crime. Tome ii. Par Victor Hugo.' Paris: Calmann Lévy; New York: F. W. Christern

carried away his audience unless he himself was cool enough to act. How great is the effect of this perfect coolness may be seen by comparing Victor Hugo with an English author as much inferior to the Frenchman in genius as he is superior to Victor Hugo in the one gift of sending his rhetorical blows right home to their mark. This author is Junius. It is safe to conjecture that the masked assailant of George the Third and his ministers was a man of no great intellectual power, of narrow sympathies, and of limited imagination ; but in the force which arises from coolness and self-restraint he ranks with the most powerful of satirists. We are no admirers of George the Third or his court, but George the Third was, we do not hesitate to assert, in comparison with Louis Napoleon, a high-toned patriot. The Duke of Grafton was not the ideal either of a man or of a minister, but even the vindictive hatred of Junius would draw a distinction between the ordinary vices of the duke and the astounding crimes of the scoundrels who planned and carried out the treacheries and atrocities of the *Coup d'état*. Yet Junius has made the men whom he denounces the objects of lasting contempt, and the secret of his success lies in the astonishing adroitness with which every blow is aimed exactly at the right point, and the equally astonishing art with which, in the midst of the most telling invective, Junius lets it appear that the crimes which he has revealed are as nothing to the unknown depth of turpitude which his indignation will, when fairly aroused, unveil for public execration. To Victor Hugo such reserve is totally unknown. He pours out an amount of abuse which under the circumstances is fully deserved by its object, but which makes it impossible to suppose that as far as Victor Hugo's knowledge goes we have not learnt the very worst which can be said of the President and his court.

The bad effect produced by a want of self-restraint is much increased by a marked want of rationality. The horrors of the *Coup d'état* hardly, it might well be thought, admit of exaggeration. Told simply and calmly by Tenot, and as they are, we must in fairness add, by Victor Hugo himself in some chapters of his last volume, they revive all the feelings of mingled hatred and contempt with which in 1852 every Liberal throughout the Old and New World regarded the President. But even the iniquities of the 2d of December provoke something like a smile when narrated in such epigrammatic bombast as this :

"Suddenly a window was opened.

"Upon Hell.

"Dante, had he leaned over the summit of the shadow, would have been able to see the eighth circle of his poem ; the funereal Boulevard Montmartre.

"Paris, a prey to Bonaparte ; a monstrous spectacle.

"The gloomy armed men massed together on this Boulevard felt an appalling spirit enter into them ; they ceased to be themselves, and became demons.

"There was no longer a single French soldier, but a host of indefinable phantoms, carrying out a horrible task, as though in the glimmering light of a vision.

"There was no longer a flag, there was no longer law, there was no longer humanity, there was no longer a country, there was no longer France ; they began to assassinate.

"The Schinderhannes division, the brigades of Mandrin, Cartouche, Poulailler, Trestaillon, and Tropmann appeared in the gloom, shooting down and massacring.

"No ; we do not attribute to the French army what took place during this mournful eclipse of honor.

"There have been massacres in history, abominable ones assuredly, but they have possessed some show of reason ; Saint Bartholomew and the Dragonnades are explained by religion, the Sicilian Vespers and the butcheries of September are explained by patriotism ; they crush the enemy or annihilate the foreigner ; these are crimes for a good cause ; but the carnage of the Boulevard Montmartre is a crime without an ostensible reason.

"The reason exists, however. It is hideous.

"Let us give it.

"Two things stand erect in a State, the Law and the People.

"A man murders the Law. He feels the punishment approaching, there only remains one thing for him to do, to murder the People. He murders the People.

"The Second of December was the Risk, the Fourth was the Certainty.

"Against the indignation which arose they opposed the Terror.

"The Fury, Justice, halted petrified before the Fury, Extermination. Against Erinnyes they set up Medusa.

"To put Nemesis to flight, what a terrifying triumph !

"To Louis Napoleon pertains this glory, which is the summit of his shame.

"Let us narrate it.

"Let us narrate what History had never seen before.

"The assassination of a people by a man."

The quotation is a little long, though it is but a fragment of the rhetoric which fills the 'History of a Crime.' But it is well worth attention. Of the exaggerations which it contains little need be said. We yield to no man in our hatred of the *Coup d'état* and its authors, but the simplest knowledge of history makes it impossible to admit that the world has never seen darker scenes than even the massacre of the second of December. What is better worth note is the strange irrationality which suggests that the slaughter of St. Bartholomew or the butcheries of September (perhaps the most cowardly series of crimes on record) admit of a kind of palliation because they arose from popular fanaticism or passion. Here we come to the very root of Victor Hugo's weakness. At bottom he adores passion. Hence insurgents or a mob have a certain half-sacredness in his eyes. At the worst, they have the inspiration of passion, even if they derive their inspiration from the devil. Hence again, and not from any meanness or want of courage, Victor Hugo, with all his daring and genius, cannot vigorously denounce the worst faults either of the people or of France. The *Coup d'état* was an infamous crime, but it never could have been crowned with success but for the apathy of Paris and the selfish cowardice of France. Yet throughout Victor Hugo's diatribe Paris must be treated as a sacred city, and the President and his co-conspirators must be made (deservedly enough, as far as they are concerned) a scapegoat which may carry off the guilt and responsibility that rests on the generation of Frenchmen who condoned the crimes of the President and admired the success of the Empire.

The same cause which weakens Victor Hugo's denunciation of popular errors accounts for the curious element of lawlessness apparent in his political views. He stood forth against the President as the righteous asserter of the law, yet you can hardly feel that he himself respected legality. He dramatically announced to his friends that come what would the President's head should not fall. To spare the life of the greatest of criminals was, he argued, to abolish capital punishment. The simple reflection that whether the President should, if vanquished, suffer death or not, depended solely on the fact whether he had committed a crime which the law punished with death, never seems to have occurred to a leader the strength of whose position lay in obedience to law. To support the law and to override it is conduct quite in keeping with the character of a man who most righteously excited the artisans to take up arms in defence of the Republic, and at the same time most absurdly refused (though risking his life) himself to fire a shot.

The want of reasonableness which runs through Victor Hugo's character has marred even the literary effectiveness of his last volume. But a second cause of that work's comparative failure is, that Victor Hugo has undertaken a task difficult in itself and singularly ill-suited to his genius. The Republican historian of the plot which destroyed the Republic must be not only the assailant of the President but also the apologist of the Republicans. A calm and candid writer would admit that the Republican leaders were, from the fall of Louis Philippe to the second of December, 1851, in a false position, and that no one of them showed anything like the statesmanship which might possibly, in 1848, have achieved the great feat, which has been achieved in 1878, of bringing over the nation to the support of the Republic. But of the calm apology which admits the faults, and errors even, of men who ultimately defended the cause of freedom and legality against lawless despotism, Victor Hugo knows nothing. The Republic is in his eyes a government by divine right. The Republican leaders are faultless heroes and immaculate martyrs. He hardly sees, and therefore cannot properly apologize for, the errors of his party. Yet, that the very success of 1848 placed the Republicans in a false position must now be patent to every impartial observer. To put the Revolution of February on the same level as the plot of December is to confound a grave error with an atrocious crime. Nevertheless, it is impossible to deny that the party who overthrew a legal government by means of the Paris mob did not stand on strong ground when four years later they attempted in vain to protect the legal government against the army of Paris. Add to this that in their dealings with the President the sincere Republicans exhibited the utmost political incapacity. Suspecting treachery, they took no single effective step for their own protection, and, though they must have foreseen that an armed attack was highly probable, never arranged any course of proceeding in case the attack should take place. But to these and the other errors committed by himself and his friends Victor Hugo is blind. Hence his narrative of the contest in which he and his associates were overpowered by force has a false ring, and the tragedy reads far too much like a melodrama. You see striking scenes, you have pictures of heroic exertion and of heroic self-sacrifice, but no part of the drama is clearly connected with the other, and you find it difficult to understand how it

happened that men inspired with genius, resolution, and self-devotion received no support from the people.

It must also be added that a narrative which does not make prominent the errors and faults committed by the Republicans in 1851 inevitably fails to suggest the lesson which those errors ought to convey. The true moral of the 'History of a Crime' is that a set of reckless desperadoes overthrew the Republic of 1848 because the nation had not been gained over to the side of the Republic. In 1878 the Republicans have shown that they are strong enough to resist a president at least as powerful and possibly not much more scrupulous than Louis Napoleon. But in 1878 the Republic has become the government not of a party but of the nation. If the historian of a crime could have told calmly the story of the *Coup d'état* he might both have covered the criminal with infamy and have shown the strength of the Republic of 1878. Victor Hugo, however, who is still at heart the Republican of 1848, if he has revived the memory of Louis Napoleon's crimes, has also recalled to the recollection of the world the follies of the Republicans which made possible the triumph of the President. One object of the work has been missed, and the book will remain for ever a monument of the failure to which even genius is exposed when attempting tasks unsuited for its powers.

Charlotte Cushman. Her Letters and Memories of Her Life. Edited by her friend, Emma Stebbins. (Boston: Houghton, Osgood & Co. 1878. 8vo, pp. 308.)—It is fit that the memoirs of Charlotte Cushman should thus early appear, succeeding at no great interval the biographies of William Charles Macready and Edwin Forrest, the two great actors from whom she learned much, and with whom for more than a quarter of a century she shared the sovereignty of the stage. Miss Stebbins's book is a better biography than Mr. Alger's ponderous 'Life of Forrest.' It brings before us distinctly the keen intelligence, the loving disposition, the faculty of making and keeping friends, the unchanging cheerfulness, the self-reliance, the clear common-sense, and, above all, the stalwart strength of will which made Charlotte Cushman what she was—in spite of trouble and trial, in spite of loss of voice just when success as a singer seemed within her reach, in spite of want of money when she was working her way along as an actress, in spite of insidious disease when at last she had gained fame and fortune. Miss Stebbins devotes most of her first chapter ("Genealogical Sketch of the Cushman Family") to a showing of the actress's descent from Robert Cushman, one of the two financiers and managers of the adventurers who set out for these shores two hundred and fifty years ago in the *Mayflower* and the *Speedwell*, and all through the book there is ample evidence that Charlotte Cushman had inherited the sturdy soul of her ancestor, and that she had her full share of Yankee grit. It is in this presentation of the character of her subject that the author has been most successful, and in her description of the life in Rome during those years when Charlotte Cushman's apartments were the centre of a choice circle—and in but little else. The interest of the reader in Charlotte Cushman arises from her having been a great actress. From this biography there is much to be learned about her as a woman. There is nothing—indeed, less than nothing—to be learned about her as an actress.

Miss Stebbins's memoir is, in fact, the least theatrical of all theatrical biographies. We rise from the reading of Davies's Life of Garrick or the 'Reminiscences' of Macready with a distinct and heightened impression of the merit of each as an actor. From this book we get what we know to be a false view of Charlotte Cushman's ability as an actress. Not that Miss Stebbins does not praise her acting; the praise is not discriminating, it is even ignorant. The author has plainly but little knowledge of the stage either internally or externally. Her book is full of blunders in theatrical history and in dramatic criticism. Here, for instance, is one of Miss Stebbins's assertions (p. 24): "Beyond the due expression and feeling given to the words, which she could never wholly omit even in study or rehearsal, the acting was left to the inspiration of the time and place." If this were so, Miss Cushman's career would hardly have called for a biography, for she would never have risen above mediocrity. No one who knew anything of the principles of the art of acting ever saw her act *Queen Katharine* without being sure that the whole conception of the part had been thoroughly thought out, and its mechanism wholly mastered. The stage is the last place where happy-go-lucky "inspiration" is likely to succeed, and this was certainly known to the writer of the letter (p. 142) which thanks a friend for speaking "approvingly of my beloved art, and all that it takes to make an exponent of it. . . . But no one knows better than myself, after all my association with artists of sculpture or painting, how truly *my* art comprehends all others and surpasses them, in so far as the study of mind is more than matter."

This very letter from which we have just quoted cites a speech of *Tisbe's* (a character in Victor Hugo's "Angelo"), which Charlotte Cushman frequently played; but no mention of the fact is made here, nor of her appearance in the spectacular play of the "Naiad Queen," in which she led an Amazonian march, marshalling her fair warriors with great success. Doubtless there are other parts in which she was successful, or which she at least attempted, not recorded by Miss Stebbins. It is impossible, for instance, to ascertain from her volume the date of the famous first performance in New York of that meretricious bauble, "London Assurance," in which Charlotte Cushman played *Lady Gay Spanker*. Dates are all too sparingly inserted; a few more of these and a full list of all parts played are greatly to be desired. Such a list would have shown Miss Stebbins that so far from Charlotte Cushman and Edwin Forrest never having played together, she supported him for two seasons at the Park Theatre, and not entirely, it is said, to his satisfaction—which was perhaps the reason why, when he brought out the "Lady of Lyons" for the first time in this city, she was cast for the comparatively insignificant *Widow Melnotte*, which she, however, succeeded in raising into prominence. It would also show us how many absolutely new parts she undertook—"created," in the French phrase. We are told here that Talfourd promised to write a play for her, and the unfortunate fate of Chorley's "Duchess Eleanour" is here set down. Charles Lamb declared that John Kemble thought all the good plays had been written, and it seems as though Charlotte Cushman agreed with him. Certainly we owe fewer additions to dramatic literature to her than to any other actor of her prominence of late years; Macready and Forrest, and even Charles Kean, have left behind them plays of which they were the exciting cause. Charlotte Cushman has left none, unless we take account of the galvanizing again into a spasmodic existence of the wretched version of 'Guy Mannering' in which she was *Meg Merrilies*. Miss Stebbins gives 1841 as the date of her first performance of this part, which is at least four years too late. The story of Braham's having been greatly astonished and delighted by her acting it seems rather apocryphal, inasmuch as she had made a success in it years before he first visited America. These things show again that Miss Stebbins has done little or nothing for the student of the stage; she knew and admired Charlotte Cushman off the stage, and it is only off the stage that she can appreciate her and makes us appreciate her.

The book is beautifully printed, and has a sufficient index. It is adorned with three permanent photographs—one of Miss Cushman's villa at Newport, another from the author's portrait-bust of her, and the frontispiece—a firm and striking photograph of late date by Gutekunst.

Dictionary of English Literature. Being a Comprehensive Guide to English Authors and their Works. By W. Davenport Adams. (London and New York: Cassell, Petter & Galpin. 1878. Small 4to, pp. iv.–708.)—The aim of this work is to present in alphabetical order the most prominent English writers, their leading works, the various pseudonyms adopted by writers, the leading characters in poetry, drama, and fiction, and a large number of familiar quotations. Biography is mainly confined to dates; but little first-hand criticism is attempted, the opinions of others being quoted freely. There are special articles on the drama, newspapers, novels, which compose the most original part of the work. The articles on the English Drama and the dramatic notices are particularly full and generally well done. The author is evidently more familiar with the later English literature than with that of an earlier period, and sympathizes with the sensuous school of which Swinburne is the most conspicuous example. Tennyson and Swinburne occupy more space than Milton and Dryden; Pope and Swift together five times as much as Chaucer; Walt Whitman as much as Mrs. Browning or her husband. In some respects the plan is faulty, and in many respects its execution is defective. Especially not worth while was it to cumber the pages of a Dictionary of English Literature with familiar quotations, many of them repeated three or four times by cross references, for but a small portion can be admitted, and there is at least one Dictionary of Familiar Quotations which makes competition hopeless. Moreover, the attempt to introduce them alphabetically gives rise to the most ludicrous inversions—*e.g.*, "Full was there! O what a"; "Human face divine, Or"; "Ripe and Ripe, We"; "Difference to me, Oh, the."

A want of fulness and general accuracy is observable throughout the work: we have made the following memoranda in a cursory examina-

tion. As regards American literature, no place has been found for Henry N. Hudson, George P. Marsh, Lewis H. Morgan, or Henry C. Lea (to mention no others), of living scholars and writers. Dickens's 'American Notes' are stated to have given great offence in America, but no reference whatever is made to the courteous note of apology which Dickens wrote after his last visit, and which he ordered printed in every subsequent edition. The London *Athenæum* is admitted, but not the *Academy*. Dodsley's 'Old Plays' is cited with no mention of the edition except in the last half of the book, where Carew Hazlitt's is referred to. The various editions of this standard collection vary so much that the mere description of "Dodsley" is wholly insufficient. Hazlitt's edition contains Dodsley's original ten volumes, his two supplemental volumes, Dilke's 'Old Plays,' Hawkins's 'English Drama,' and the plays given in Collier's 'History of the English Drama.' The lines "Apollo from his shrine Can no more divine" are referred to Milton's "Il Penseroso," when every school-boy knows that they are from the "Ode on the Nativity." Thos. Heywood's 'Apology for Actors' is called a *poem!* It is prose, and prosy enough, too, not to be mistaken for poetry. The Shakspeare Society's edition, to which reference is made, is preceded by certain commendatory poems, which the writer evidently mistook for the body of the work. The Anglo-Saxon poem of Beowulf "was edited by T. Arnold in 1876." This is a half truth that carries a falsehood, no allusion being made to the fact that there are several older and better editions. Thorkelin, a Dane, issued the first edition in 1815, and since that date editions have appeared in England by Thorpe and by Kemble; in Germany by Ettmüller (in part), Grein, Heyne, and several translations. Arnold's is the latest, but unquestionably not the best edition. Heyne's is probably the best; it contains the text, with notes and a glossary; it has recently passed to a second edition. Mr. Adams refers the 'Court of Love' to Chaucer, without any hint of the fact that the best critics do not consider it his. The Coventry Plays are referred to as being in MS., yet they were published by the Shakspeare Society in 1841. "From Dan to Beersheba" is said to be "an expression used by Sterne in his 'Sentimental Journey'"! Did the author never meet this expression in a book much older than the 'Sentimental Journey'? "'Ecclesiastical History of Great Britain,' by the Venerable Bede, translated by King Alfred, and first published about 1473." This is too gross an error to be due to mere ignorance; it is probably a misprint. Printing was not introduced into England until 1474, according to the generally received accounts. The first edition of Alfred's translation of Bede was that of Whelock in 1643; the next was that of Smith in 1722. The "Octavia" is a play said to be "adapted from the *Greek* of Seneca," and the same statement is repeated as to the "Thebais" and the "Thyestes." The writer's library must be unique if it contains a copy of Seneca in Greek.

There are numerous misprints, not a few of which are attributable to sheer carelessness. Dr. Johnson's sarcasm on Bolingbroke is turned into a bull of the first water: "Having *discharged* a blunderbuss against morality and religion, he had not the courage to fire it off himself, but left half a crown to a beggarly Scotchman to draw the trigger after his death." The quotation, moreover, is silently mutilated, though the omitted words contain the gist of the charge. Moore's song is given as "Come, rest in this bosom, my *young* stricken deer." For "young" read "own." The motto of the *Edinburgh Review* is given as "Tenui musam meditamur *avera*." Charles Fenno Hoffman appears as Charles Fenn Hoffman. Bell's edition of the poets is quoted as "Bell's *Annotationed* Edition." The old English song, "Somer is ycomen in," is shockingly misprinted, while Spenser's lines on Chaucer are thus made ridiculous:

> "Dan Chaucer, well of English undefyled,
> On Fame's eternal bead-roll worthie to be *pyled*."

For "pyled" read "fyled." Finally, foreign authors whose works have been translated into English are very arbitrarily inserted. Thus, one looks in vain for Mérimée, Manzoni, Fritz Reuter, Turgeneff, Tegnér, etc.

Synoptical Flora of North America. Vol. II., Part 1. *Gamopetalæ after Compositæ.* By Asa Gray, LL.D., etc. (New York: Ivison, Blakeman, Taylor & Co. 1878. Pp. 402, imp. 8vo.)—At length we have a first instalment of the long-looked-for continuation of Torrey and Gray's 'Flora of North America.' Forty years ago these two botanists, *par nobile fratrum*, began what was intended to be an approximately complete Flora of America, "north of Mexico." Five years and more were spent, Europe was visited to study the original specimens upon which very many American species were founded, all the active botanists of every section of the country were united in procuring new material, and two volumes of over 1,200 pages were issued between the years 1838 and 1843, carrying the work through the *Compositæ*, and leaving still a half to be done. Glancing at the list of coadjutors in that work, as given in the preface to the first volume, we can but note how they belonged to a generation that has now passed away—Nuttall, Oakes, Hitchcock, Dewey, Sartwell, Beck, Bailey, Eaton, Darlington, Durand, Schweinitz, Curtis, Elliott, Le Conte, Leavenworth, Riddell, Short, Peter, Rafinesque, Sullivant, Lapham; only here and there is the name of one who may still be seen among the living. Bigelow, Tuckerman, Barratt, Chapman, Buckley, these alone remain of the eighty or more to whom acknowledgment is made for aid received. So too of the foreign botanists mentioned—Brown, Hooker, Lindley, Arnott, Don, Lambert, Boott, Fraser, Jussieu, De Candolle, Endlicher, Fenzl, Martius, Zuccarini, Schlechtendahl, Kunth, Trinius, Bongard, Lehmann—all have joined the majority, save alone Bentham and Decaisne. Of the two at the head of the former work one has gone to his rest, honored and beloved, while the other, still in the full vigor of his intellect, unwearied and unworn by his many years of busy and fruitful toil, holds firm to his early purpose, and has given us to-day the earnest of a completed task.

The conviction that the time had not come for such an undertaking interrupted the early attempt, and the progress of events has justified that conviction. Our borders were soon afterwards extended to include Texas, Utah, and all the region westward to the Pacific. This political enlargement was followed by a gradual development of our knowledge of the flora of this vast region through the collections made by Lindheimer and Wright in Texas, by Fendler in New Mexico, and afterwards by the botanists connected with the surveys for a railroad route to the Pacific and for the location of the Mexican boundary. Later still, the State Survey of California, under Prof. J. D. Whitney, has gone far towards completing the botany of the Pacific Coast. Clarence King's survey of the 40th parallel has done the same for Nevada and Utah, while private collectors and the Government surveys under Prof. Hayden, Lieutenant Wheeler, and others, have made familiar the flora of the Rocky Mountains and, though to a less degree, that of New Mexico and Arizona. Through these means many hundreds of species have been added to those before known, and the increase still goes on at the rate of nearly a hundred each year. But at a still more rapid rate has grown the need of a systematic descriptive work that should include all that are already known. What was a want forty years ago has now become a necessity, for what was then simply confusion is now a comparative chaos.

Upon Dr. Gray the hopes of all botanists, at home and abroad, have been centred for the performance of the task, and as an acknowledgment that the fulness of time has come when such a work may rightly be expected and asked for, we have the present volume. And it is such a volume as would be looked for from the author's hands; in its typography, its arrangement, its style, as a whole and in its minutiæ, showing the care and scientific skill of a master. It does not become the raw recruit to criticise the veteran soldier, but he may call upon his comrades to note and imitate the dextrous handling of his weapons, the perfectly executed manœuvre, the entire subordination to rule. So the botanist, or any scientific man in fact, while he may not hope for that keenness of insight, that power of delicately balancing conditions and quick judgment which characterize the man, may wisely study the principles and methods which he follows in a matured work like this.

The part now published completes the gamopetalous division of the dicotyledons, beginning where the original work ceased. The remainder of the volume, in two similar parts, will include the other phænogamous orders and the higher cryptogamia. The first volume will be given to a complete revision of the ground gone over in the earlier volumes, which are not only now out of print but have long been out of date. Thus well begun, a few years will doubtless see the whole completed—complete in itself, but still only the first division of a still greater work that shall include the whole of the essentially one and continuous flora occupying the northern temperate and arctic zones. For the parts relating to Europe and Northern Asia, American botanists are in no way responsible; but it will be to the credit of American science that in its own finished portion it will furnish a model from a master's hand, worthy of imitation.

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, JUNE 20, 1878.

The Week.

As we go to press, Congress is still in session, having twice put off the day of adjournment from the impossibility of despatching business. The completed measures are the General Deficiency Bill, which passed the Senate as it came from the House without debate; the River and Harbor Appropriation Bill; the important bill to reorganize the Life-saving Service; and the Army Bill, which emerged from the conference committee substantially as the Senate amended it, but with the posse-comitatus clause restored to suit the temper of the House. The penalty for violating it was put back, and so was the word "expressly" with reference to the authority of the Constitution or the laws for using the army as a police. Unquestionably this provision will operate as a check on abuses like those which marked the last days of carpet-bag government at the South, but events alone can test its capacity to impede the collection of the revenue or the suppression of communistic disturbances. By the happy failure of the Post-Route Bill in the House the John Roach subsidy and the franking privilege have been effectually disposed of for this session, for which the country's thanks are chiefly due to Speaker Randall.

One of the measures whose fate is uncertain as we write is the bill which passed the Senate on Thursday by a vote of 45 to 19, and which authorizes the sale of United States 4 per cent. bonds for legal-tender notes, and makes the latter receivable for import duties after October 1. The immediate effect of this bill would, of course, be to relieve the pressure in the gold market which has been caused by the large demand for gold in settling for United States bonds sold by the Treasury. But after October 1 it would wholly deprive the Treasury of its coin revenues, and if the interest on United States bonds is to be paid in coin the Treasury would be forced to go into the market and buy not far from $100,000,000 each year. Moreover, if when Congress reassembles in December the Resumption Act is repealed (and it has already been emasculated), the public finances will not then be on even a silver basis, and we shall have an irredeemable silver-paper currency, which will be a worse condition than any during the long years of trouble since suspension. Perhaps the most shocking feature of this whole business is that the bill is only the embodiment of suggestions made by the Secretary of the Treasury himself, ever ready as a politician, for the sake of harmony, to make concessions of the most dangerous character. To him more than any other public man do we owe the silver curse.

The House on Friday last settled the question of the President's title by two votes. Before the Judiciary Committee reported their resolution on the subject, Mr. Burchard of Illinois, from the Republican side, introduced one reciting the electoral count of the two Houses of the Forty-fourth Congress, and declaring, as a consequence, that

"No subsequent Congress, and neither House, has jurisdiction to revise the action of such joint meeting, and any attempt of either House to annul or disregard such action or the title to office arising therefrom would be revolutionary, and is disapproved by this House."

This rather took the Revolutionists by surprise, and, after some hasty deliberation and consultation in the lobbies and aisles, they determined to support it, and the vote stood 215 to 21. Shortly afterward, Mr. Hartridge, of Georgia, brought in the Committee's resolution, that

"The two Houses of the Forty-fourth Congress, having counted the votes cast for President and Vice-President of the United States, and having declared Rutherford B. Hayes and William A. Wheeler to be duly elected President and Vice-President, there is no power in any subsequent Congress to reverse that declaration, nor can any such power be exercised by the courts of the United States or any other tribunal that Congress can create under the Constitution."

And this was adopted by a vote of 234 to 14. Whether the minority will carry on the revolution any longer seems to be doubtful.

The way the pessimists now dispose of their alarm about "the revolution" is very amusing and somewhat cool. After telling the whole world for some weeks that an enquiry into the Louisiana and Florida frauds would "logically" result in an attack on President Hayes's title, and that this would "necessarily" lead to an attempt to displace him by force, and this again to a general civil war, in which the Republican farmers all over the country ("in every school district" one of them said) would stab and shoot the Democratic farmers, and the Democratic farmers the Republican, and after reproving severely the levity of those who ridiculed this crazy stuff, they now turn round and call the whole thing "a farce," and say that the scheme roused such indignation among the people that the Democrats had to disavow it promptly. But, brethren, your whole prophecy rested on the assumption that the scheme would not disgust the Democratic voters, and that when the rank and file of the party were told by the Congressmen to rise and fight to put Tilden in the Presidency they would promptly obey. The Democratic Congressmen could not themselves make a civil war. Your notion was that half the American people would begin to skewer the other half on a signal from Washington, and all about half a Presidential term. You now see that you were either grossly mistaken or have been engaged in a piece of humbug. The mere accusation from you that the Democratic Congressmen thought of an attack on the President's title has been sufficient to procure from them a full repudiation of it. And now, after having given the civilized world this deplorable account of the politics of your country and the prospects of its Government, ought not the most prominent of you to go to Europe or some place of retirement until the affair is forgotten? Is it decent for you to turn round and laugh and say you never meant it, or to change the subject and pretend with a far look in your eyes that you do not remember much about it?

The enormous mass of testimony taken by the House Committee on Naval Affairs relating to Mr. Robeson's administration of the Navy Department has resulted in a report recommending the indictment of the ex-Secretary and three of his subordinates. There does not appear to be any distinct proof of actual corruption on the part of Mr. Robeson, but for maladministration, waste, reckless disregard of law, and a system which seems only to have been designed to furnish opportunities for corruption there has been no such evidence since Tweed's accounts were overhauled. During Mr. Robeson's administration $182,000,000 were expended on the Navy; between $40,000,000 and $50,000,000 which should by law have been turned into the Treasury were expended on the Navy Department; "every protective and prohibitive enactment" made to guard the public purse was steadily violated—contracts, for instance, for $20,000,000 having been made by three heads of bureaus "without any regard to the requirements of the law in the manner of making them." The prices paid for supplies were, in consequence, in many cases "enormously excessive"; competition in bidding was always "discouraged and resisted by the department"; vast quantities of unneeded and useless stores were bought; vessels costing $26,000,000 were sold for less than $1,000,000; in the case of the *Puritan*, a volunteer proposal of a contractor, without plans or specifications of any kind, "to build an undescribed vessel for a stipulated round sum of money" (this is the language, not

of the Committee, but of the report of two naval officers on the subject) were accepted on the spot, "without enquiry, competition, or any provisions guarding the interests of the Government"; to keep up the supply of money, Government property, though sound and fit for use, was sold for prices far below its value; and, finally, a vast system of illegal "barter and exchange" of stores was kept up, which led to a general confusion of accounts, while, as a result of all this, the Navy is in the worst possible condition. A great deal of the evidence has been furnished by Mr. Thompson, so that it is to be hoped that the report, though the Republican members of the committee refused to join in it, will be followed by indictments. Mr. Robeson has found himself so occupied with professional duties that he has not been able to appear before the committee.

The Potter investigation is at its anti-climax, and the little it has accomplished during the week is hardly worth recording. The principal witness was C. B. Darrall, Republican ex-Congressman from Louisiana, who, like most of his class, thought the country owed continuance in the public service to politicians who could no longer command a constituency. Darrall's ambition was to get the collectorship at New Orleans, and although Packard was aiming for the same place, they were on such good terms that Packard declared there was no one except himself whom he so much wanted to have it as Darrall. Accordingly, as the hopes of the one were chilled those of the other were kindled; but, not feeling sure that Packard's endorsement would have due weight with the Administration, Darrall conspired with Anderson to "cause Senator Matthews to render efficient assistance" by threatening him with the terrible documents whose contents are now known to everybody. Subsequently he learned through Mr. Matthews himself that Anderson was negotiating for the sale of these documents to Tilden and his friends, and that under these circumstances it was idle to look for efficient assistance based on their proposed surrender or destruction. That was the nearest that Darrall came to his collectorship. The notary before whom the Anderson-Weber agreement was executed and the two witnesses to the signatures agreed in identifying the paper which Anderson disavowed as a counterfeit, but they could not decide which was the first to sign, or whether Weber was really present or only a substitute. The Florida sub-committee returned simultaneously with the arrival from France of Gov. Noyes, who tells the reporters that had he been better informed as to the nature of McLin's testimony he should have thought it unnecessary to come over to vindicate himself. On the Committee's motion, the House has formally asked the Senate's leave for Senator Matthews to attend before it.

Republican conventions have been held in Ohio and Michigan. In the former State the platform was read by a gentleman referred to as "Mr. Richard Smith," whom we take to be no other than the "truly good deacon" whose struggles with his "wicked partners" the *Sun* follows with such care. In this case he seems to have obtained, if the platform is indeed his composition, a less complete victory over them than usual; the concessions to their wickedness of which traces are observable here and there must, however, have been made only after a terrible struggle. The platform first "reaffirms" everything that ought to be reaffirmed, and leaves unreaffirmed everything that ought not to be reaffirmed. Secondly, it acknowledges an eternal debt of gratitude to the soldiers (we must observe that no mention is made of the sailors), and denounces the Ohio Legislature for an act of unusual baseness, described in rather vague terms, but which was "intended and calculated" to drive soldiers' orphans out of an Orphan's Home, or else to rob soldiers' families of their pensions. We think this law should have been given in full. Third, it opposes all "further agitation" of the financial question as likely to produce "evil results." Fourth, it "cordially greets" such citizens of the South as have accepted the results of the war, and have treated the electoral count as a finality. Fifth, it demands a revenue tariff, incidentally protective, and "sufficient appropriations" to carry on the work on "all public buildings," and condemns the governor of the State for "prostituting" to a "mere partisan purpose" the "mining interests of Ohio." Sixth, it denounces the Democrats for their Mexican attempt at revolution, and endorses Mr. Hayes's Administration in an unqualified manner. Seventh, it "points," but not "with pride," at the present Legislature, as an awful "warning," the members having "subordinated" the welfare not only of the able-bodied citizen, but of "the blind, the mute, and the orphans to the interests of the Democratic party." Eighth, it denounces the redistricting of the State.

The Michigan Republicans begin by declaring that "after twenty years of unbroken control of the State government" they "invite the most rigid scrutiny" into the manner in which they have discharged the trust, and "point with satisfaction and pride" to the faithful regard shown for the public faith and the general happiness and prosperity. They resolve further that among the sacred obligations of a government founded on such principles as those of the Republican party is the duty of securing a free and untrammelled suffrage, and of protecting every citizen who leads "an honest life"; that the country is to be congratulated on the revival of business and on the immediate prospect of specie payments; that what is now needed is "stability upon which to build confidence"; that the early adjournment of a Democratic Congress is a matter for public congratulation. It denounces "repudiation"; insists on convertibility of Government paper into gold and silver; declares that the doctrines of the Greenback party, the socialists and the communists are deadly to public safety and honor, and must be opposed uncompromisingly by Republicans; that the count cannot be reopened, and that the State administration entitles the governor to the confidence of the people.

The question of convention or no convention continues to agitate the Republican press and politicians of New York. The Albany *Express*, with great candor, admits that the "pivot" this year is, "Shall Roscoe Conkling be returned as U. S. Senator from the State of New York?" or, still more narrowly, "Whether an Assembly shall be elected that shall be favorable or unfavorable to return Roscoe Conkling to the United States Senate." It further admits that there are some Republicans, "or at least men who call themselves Republicans," who will prefer to vote the Democratic ticket in order to defeat Mr. Conkling. But it expresses its belief that, whatever these traitors may do, "enough honest and intelligent Democrats, knowing that Mr. Conkling is an able and faithful representative of his State in the United States Senate, will vote for candidates for members of Assembly who are pledged or will vote for him in the caucus, to upset all the disaffection there may be in the Republican ranks." This is pretty plain language. The number of honest and intelligent Democrats who are in the habit of casting their votes to keep a Republican Senator in his seat is, as a general thing, small; in fact, we have never known a single honest and intelligent Democrat to do it, unless it was expressly ordered by those having the care of his political soul, or because he was cheated into doing it. The prediction of the *Express* may, therefore, be taken to amount to an admission of an understanding between the Conklingites and Tammany Hall. The machinery on the Republican side is now all in the hands of Conkling, and his friends maintain that whether a convention is held or not it will remain so. Curiously enough, on the Democratic side, Tammany Hall is opposed to a convention, but according to the Brooklyn *Eagle* there must be one, because last year's convention ordered one; a fact which it says will be found on the minutes, "if the minutes were properly kept," though it adds reflectively that, "by the way, they rarely are." The order appears to have been not an affirmative one, "but a negative vote "refusing to entertain the proposition not to hold" a convention. A judge of the Court of Appeals is the only officer to be nominated.

The price of gold, as expressed in United States legal-tender notes, fell during the week to 100⅜; in other words, the gold value of the Government's promise to pay one dollar advanced to $0.99375. The price of silver in London was steady at 53½*d.* per ounce, and about $1.16½ per ounce 1,000 fine in New York, making the bullion value of the 412½-grain silver dollar $0.9010. Little progress has been made in getting the new silver dollars out of the Treasury; in due time, however, they will be forced out, and their appearance will as certainly drive out gold dollars as legal-tender notes have driven gold out of use in the last sixteen years. The demand for Government bonds has not abated, and there are as ready buyers for them as at any time in the last three months. At the Stock Exchange there was a fall during the week in railroad stocks, owing to the breaking up of the "pooling arrangements" between the Western roads which gather up the Eastward freights for the trunk-lines. The relations between the trunk-lines themselves are said to be critical, and another open war is not improbable. The crop outlook is on the whole excellent for wheat, the estimate being that the crop will reach four hundred million bushels. The prospects for corn are not so good. General trade continues dull.

The selection of names for the commissioners who are to represent this country at the International Silver Conference is most extraordinary. General Francis A. Walker is in every way qualified for the place, but ex-Senator Fenton's title to fame consists simply in his having long been the head of the anti-Conkling faction in this State and being a very shrewd and dexterous politician. Mr. Groesbeck's knowledge of finance was never heard of until he was put on the Silver Commission, and he has since identified himself with the worst greenback inflationists. He has never given the slightest sign of fitness to discuss coinage questions with European experts. The worst of it is, as the *Commercial Bulletin* has pointed out, that Mr. Fenton probably owes his nomination to a desire to dispose of him as an applicant for the Collectorship of this port.

The Congress has at last met at Berlin, after the publication by the London *Globe* of a surreptitiously-obtained copy of the preliminary agreement arrived at between England and Russia. The agreement as it stands shows a substantial maintenance of the Treaty of San Stefano, and has consequently been received by the Conservatives with something like consternation, and by the Liberals with a chuckle, to meet which the Duke of Richmond announces that the published copy is inaccurate. We have commented elsewhere upon its leading provisions. There is every variety of rumor about what has happened at the meetings up to this writing, the principal one being that Lord Beaconsfield had opened the proceedings by demanding the withdrawal of the Russian troops from the neighborhood of Constantinople, which Prince Gortchakoff had vehemently refused. Another is that the first question coming up for discussion will be the propriety of admitting a representative from Greece, which is advocated by England and Austria, but will probably be opposed by Italy and France, as Mediterranean powers not relishing the prospect of a revived Greek empire in the Levant; but it is safe to say that none of these rumors is or will be worth much attention. It is unfortunate that the two principal antagonists at the Congress, Lord Beaconsfield and Prince Gortchakoff, are old and infirm men, each having the discomfiture of the other the highest object of his personal ambition, and neither expecting to live to see the Eastern question finally settled. The English Liberals are making a strong point of the fact that the presence of the two principal members of the Cabinet at the Congress will prevent those who remain at home from assuming any real responsibility on any subject, so that for the time being England will really be governed from Berlin.

Although Count Andrássy has declared in a vague way that it is the interest of Austria that Turkey should continue to exist, it is less and less likely that she will find any warm defenders in the Congress, owing to the course of things at Constantinople, where "politics" seems still to consist in harem intrigues. A desperate but unsuccessful attempt, headed by an adventurer named Ali Suavi, to extract Murad, the late Sultan, from his retirement, threw the present one into a panic, and caused him to break up *à la Francx* the new-fangled ministry which he had established a couple of months ago, dismiss Sadyk Pasha from the Presidency of the Council, abolish the office, and restore the old Vizirat in its stead, with Mehemet Rushdi Pasha as Vizir, and Mahmoud Damad, the Sultan's brother-in-law and an ignorant old Turk, as Minister of War. This is going straight back to the old régime, and shows that there is nothing to be hoped for in the way of policy from the Pashas, and that if Turkey is to be maintained, even in Asia, it must be by close European supervision. There is apparently not even enough fanaticism left among the Mussulmans for a successful revolt and the trial of a new sultan. The financial condition at Constantinople grows worse and worse, but the Asiatic Turks still continue to be drafted into the army, and a force of 200,000 men is now again said to be collected and respectably armed in the capital and its neighborhood. It is curious and suggestive that the talk of a "protectorate" of Asiatic Turkey, originating probably in the Foreign Office, begins to be heard in London; but the Liberal papers have no difficulty in showing that a "protectorate" would speedily impose the alternative of assuming the direct government or else supporting the pashas in massacre and pillage, which are their favorite instruments of government when times become at all troublous.

The strike in the English cotton districts seems near its end, and with the usual result of strikes in times of depression—the submission of the operatives. What made this strike more than usually hopeless was that it aimed at not merely a rise in wages or resistance to a lowering of wages, but at the control of the employers' general business policy by the operatives. Submission to this pretension might have been possible, though by no means probable, on a rising market and with bright trade prospects; but in times like these, when manufacturers are threatened with ruinous foreign competition, it was useless to put it forward, and the riots and destruction of property by which it was supported have made it ridiculous. If the masters' account of the apparent future of British cotton industry be correct, there is only one remedy for low wages, and that is emigration. The recovery of the markets now lost through low wages is, of course, the most dismal possible plan for the working class, and this is all the employers have to suggest. Improvement in processes may help, but this is a mere possibility, the effect of which at best would be only temporary.

The fact that the Senate which will be in existence when the Constitution comes to be revised and definitively settled will be elected in the fall of this year and that of 1879 is once more causing a perceptible revival of apprehension among the French Republicans and of activity among the various sects of Monarchists, and the Republican organs have begun to give warning of the necessity for extraordinary calm and moderation in the Republican ranks. The efforts of the Monarchists, as the *Temps* points out, will be more than ever directed to showing that the Republic is "an impracticable régime, full of agitation and menace," "unstable in its policy, unjust in its procedure, at the mercy of intriguers, and without compass or helm," and for this purpose they will seek to create the facts of disorder on which they will rely. As usual under such circumstances, the army and its commander, the Marshal, begin to be studied carefully, and the selection of generals for the great commands to be closely watched. Some alarm has already been excited by a slight change of tone on the part of the Minister of War in the Chamber towards the Left, and Gambetta's organ, the *République Française*, openly denounces the recent appointment of a General Wolff to the command of the Thirteenth Corps, as a defiance of the Legislature and "an aggressive movement in the direction of personal government."

THE INTERNATIONAL MONETARY CONFERENCE.

THE acceptance by France of the invitation extended by the United States to the countries of Europe to join in a monetary Conference having for its purpose the establishment of international bi-metallism, makes the Conference possible. Without France it would have been a foredoomed failure and mockery. Any number of countries under an indefinite suspension of specie-payments, like Russia, Austria, and Italy, must have failed to give weight or even seriousness to its deliberations, while the petty nationalities of Switzerland, Greece, and Holland would have cast but a dim light on the momentous problem to be discussed. France, on the other hand, is the great storehouse and reservoir of metallic money in Europe, and she is again upon a specie basis. Her voice and her vote in a conference of the kind proposed will be more potent than the combined influence of all the other countries that have yet accepted the invitation. Her accession makes the presence of England in the Conference not improbable, although there is no likelihood that she will come there with any view to secure bi-metallism for the British Islands. Her Asiatic possessions furnish sufficient reason for her presence in any conference whose deliberations are likely to affect the value of silver. France, and France only, can give importance enough to the Conference to make it worth England's while to send delegates to it.

The Conference being now a fixed fact, its action will be closely scrutinized by the civilized world. It may be assumed that the European delegates will be men who have given their lives to the study of monetary science—perhaps the most intricate of all the sciences—and who will know at a glance what will be the effect upon their own and other countries of every proposition laid before them. It is to be regretted that this country is not to be so represented. The three delegates nominated by the President are Reuben E. Fenton, of New York; W. S. Groesbeck, of Ohio, and Francis A. Walker, of Connecticut. Mr. Fenton is a weather-beaten politician, accomplished in all the arts of the caucus and the custom-house, and triumphant on those fields until a superior artist appeared in the person of Mr. Conkling, when he was driven into private life by the loss of patronage. He has been in want of "recognition" of some sort for a long time, and, the International Monetary Conference being the only thing available, the chairmanship of the American delegation has been allotted to him upon the same principles of catch and toss which governed in the original assignment of the English and German missions. As minister resident at some second-rate capital where deportment is the only requisite of any consequence, Mr. Fenton would perhaps be above the average of American representatives abroad. In any place where ends are to be gained by pipe-laying and log-rolling he would be a master-mind; and if the Conference turns out to be a game of "beggar-my-neighbor," or an exhibition of the art of imposing one's own silver on other people, Mr. Fenton might be useful if he had ever had any training as an economist. In an assemblage composed of such men as De Parieu, Léon Say, Feer-Herzog, Jevons, and Malou he will be simply lost, and his votes and acts will be governed by the sole consideration of gaining temporary popularity at home.

Mr. Groesbeck will appear to scarcely better advantage. A year or two ago he was put upon the Silver Commission because he had no ideas upon the subject, and was therefore, like a good juryman, perfectly unprejudiced. The kind of ideas he has picked up in the interval may be gleaned from his recent discourse before the Social Science Congress. It appears from this exposition that Mr. Groesbeck considers bi-metallism mainly a legal question, and that, silver having been remonetized in this country, it is the prime condition of a sound monetary system that everybody should bow to the decision of the majority! As regards the International Conference, he considers that well enough in its way, but holds that its action is not necessary to the success of our experiment. In his opinion we are sufficient unto ourselves. We are "strong enough to uphold and maintain any policy intrinsically sound and just." This must mean, if it means anything, that we are strong enough to hold silver and gold at par with each other at the legal ratio of sixteen to one. Being strong enough to do this, he throws out a caution against entangling alliances with foreign countries, but concludes upon the whole that there is no great danger to be apprehended from the Conference if it confines itself to "a few simple recommendations that can be adopted without embarrassment." These conceptions will be deemed excessively novel by the majority of the delegates, coming from the mouth of a representative of the country at whose solicitation the Conference is assembled, and whose legislative action limiting the coinage of silver meanwhile is based upon the idea that no country is alone strong enough to hold silver and gold at par with each other at any legal ratio whatever.

The third member of the Commission, Mr. Francis A. Walker, is not only unobjectionable but has special qualifications for the position. He belongs to the class of professional economists; he is already known abroad by his labors in this field of enquiry; and he seems inclined to bi-metallism, and is therefore entitled to represent a country whose recent legislation requires the assistance of other countries to prevent fatal results to itself. In truth, our position is that of the fox in the fable who lost his tail. Our only escape from silver depreciation and silver mono-metallism is international bi-metallism; and, accordingly, every delegate from this country should not only believe in it but be able to discuss intelligently the various methods and ratios for obtaining it which may be brought before the Conference. Probably the Conference will result in nothing at all. Probably the countries that have any legal-tender silver will aim to "unload" it without loss, and will direct their efforts in the Conference to plans having that ultimate purpose. Unless a ratio can be adopted something near the present commercial ratio of the two metals, say 17½ to 1, it will be extremely hazardous for such a country as France to open her mints to free coinage, even with the concurrence of her specie-paying neighbors and the United States thrown into the bargain. At the old French ratio of 15½ not only the silver of Germany but that of Asia would hasten to Paris to be exchanged for gold, and the same thing would happen at the American ratio of 16. It is not impossible that a new ratio approximating very closely the relative market values of the metals might be made permanent and safe. In the event that such a plan is proposed by France or accepted by her representatives, it would not be edifying to see the American representatives contending for the ratio of 16 on grounds of constitutional law, or through fear of "entangling alliances" or loss of popularity at home. The fact, however, that such a ratio would be hateful to nearly all the remonetizers in this country adds another element of discord and uncertainty to the task of the Conference, whose conclusions can be put in force only by the subsequent action of the governments represented. It is not to be supposed, in any event, that our ratio of 16 will be adopted by the Conference, since it represents neither market value nor the law and custom of the silver-using countries of Europe. If any agreement is reached it will be something different from the ratio of 16. To commend to this country a new and useful departure in its monetary system, the very best talent and learning on the part of the commissioners will be required. To set a bad one going, any disabled politician will answer; Mr. Evarts can find plenty such in this State. But to explain ratios and produce the reasons why a change of ratio is necessary, if necessary it be, some reputation gained in the particular department of learning to be brought in requisition would have been desirable, not in one merely but in all the persons charged with duties of such importance.

THE AGREEMENT OF ENGLAND AND RUSSIA.

THE understanding arrived at between England and Russia, and which it is positively asserted, and not denied, has taken the form of a written agreement, has been published, though probably in an inaccurate form, and seems not unlikely to have an important effect, not only on the deliberations of the Congress, but on the domestic politics of England. To estimate its importance correctly one has to bear in mind that the Treaty of San Stefano, between Turkey and Russia, was expressly styled

by the Russians themselves a "preliminary treaty"—that is, an outline of arrangements which Russia acknowledged would have to undergo revision by the Powers, and some details of which, such as the conditions of the passage of the Dardanelles, were expressly left wholly to the Powers. The objections to it were formulated by Lord Salisbury in an elaborate despatch, which opened by a sort of précis of the negotiations relative to the submission of the Treaty to a European Congress. From this it appeared that, so early as the 25th of January, immediately after the Turkish collapse, the Russian Government gave a formal assurance that "it had no intention whatever of regulating separately the European questions raised by the peace." The British Government then gave notice that it could not recognize as valid any arrangement between Turkey and Russia "in so far as it modified European treaties or touched English interests, unless it was submitted for the formal concurrence" of the signataries of the Treaty of Paris. To this Prince Gortchakoff replied that "the bases of peace then agreed on were only preliminary, and not definitive, in what concerned Europe," and "that the questions affecting European interests would be debated and settled with the European Powers." It was then proposed to hold a conference, and Lord Derby asked whether each article of the Treaty would be submitted, not for acceptance, but for examination, to which Prince Gortchakoff replied that "the Treaty would be communicated textually to the great Powers before the meeting of the Congress, and that in the Congress itself each Power would have full liberty of appreciation and action." He explained afterwards that he would only accept discussion on the parts of the Treaty which touched European interests, but that every Power would have its full and entire liberty of criticism and action, and Russia could not be expected to surrender this when the others claimed it. Lord Derby again said that "the articles of the Treaty must be submitted, not necessarily for acceptance, but to see what articles needed acceptance and agreement on the part of the other Powers, and what articles did not need it." Russia was then asked what she meant by "liberty of appreciation and action," and Prince Gortchakoff defined the phrase in the following terms: "Russia leaves to the other Powers the liberty of raising in the Congress such questions as they shall think it desirable to discuss, and reserves to herself the liberty of accepting or not accepting the discussion."

When one considers what a Congress is, it is impossible to see in what particular this definition was defective. A Congress of the Powers is and always has been a meeting for the purpose of *coming to an agreement* by discussion. It is not a tribunal, as Lord Beaconsfield and the *Pall Mall Gazette* tried to make out, before which one Power appears as a suitor. It is an assemblage of equals seeking concord, in which a decision to be binding has to be unanimous, and in which the majority has no right whatever to impose its will on the minority. If the majority determines to do so, it does so not as a part of the Congress but as an armed alliance determined to carry out its wishes through war. When Russia submitted the Treaty, and agreed to listen to discussion of it, she fulfilled the whole duty imposed on her by usage. She was no more bound to accept the decision of the majority on any one point than England was. She was not to appear there as suitor or petitioner, but as an equal member of a council. This seems so plain that when the British Ministry refused to be satisfied with the Russian answer, and began to make extensive warlike preparations and declare themselves the "defenders of European law," Europe was greatly puzzled. Lord Derby resigned in March, partaking, as he confessed, of the general bewilderment, and Lord Salisbury's circular was sent out about the 1st of April; but from that time until now all efforts to get the Ministry to explain what it was they wanted Russia to do have proved vain. Troops were brought from India, the reserves were called out, the "Jingo" excitement rose higher and higher, and the vituperation of Russia became more and more bitter; but nothing could induce Lord Beaconsfield or any of his colleagues to say precisely on what point they had broken with Russia, or what they would seek in the impending war. If their aim was to make her bring the Treaty to the Congress and accept the decision of the Congress on it, whatever it might be, it would, of course, have been easy to say so; but such an aim would have been absolutely unprecedented. No first-class power has ever been called on for such a concession through deliberation. An invitation to a Congress is, and must from the nature of the case always be, an invitation to come and see whether we cannot agree. An invitation to come and abide by my will is a declaration of war, and has never been offered except as such. The Liberal accusation, therefore, that the Ministry were seeking war and standing in the way of settlement by negotiation, was really justified by the facts of the case—that is, both by what was known of the situation and by the failure to communicate anything more.

The revelation which is now made of the new and separate agreement between Russia and England points to one of two conclusions: either the Ministry have been worn out by the Russian refusal to surrender, and have gradually come to see the untenableness, even in the eyes of the English public, of the position they took in April about the terms on which Russia was to come into the Congress, or this position was really a mere arrangement of stage scenery, in preparation for Lord Beaconsfield's great *coup de théâtre* in bringing the Indian troops into Europe, and, the fumes of excitement caused by this having passed away, he has betaken himself once more to the plain routine work of diplomacy. The latter is the hypothesis which will probably find most favor among those of his enemies who have studied his history and character most carefully. He was not long in office before he made it apparent by his bestowing the title of Empress on the Queen, and sending the Prince of Wales to India, that that region had secured a powerful hold on his imagination, and was looked on by him as furnishing admirable materials for startling effects, and there is certainly nothing violent in the supposition that he arrested the settlement of the Turkish complication for three months in order to show the world how with a wave of his wand he could fill the half-empty British *cadres* with swarms of what his organs call "dusky warriors," and go to the Congress with the reputation of a first-class wizard.

This supposition, too, derives a good deal of support from the reported terms of the agreement which, in the last resort, he has had no difficulty in entering into with Russia in advance of the Congress. Lord Salisbury complained of the Treaty that it erected a powerful Slav state with ports on the Black Sea and in the Archipelago, which would give Russia a preponderating influence in the two seas, and would swallow up a considerable population which is Greek in race or in sympathy. For this England agrees to substitute two principalities, one north and one south of the Balkans, but both are to be permanently freed from Turkish rule and the presence of Turkish troops, and the creation of them is fatal to the Turkish Empire in Europe. How they are to be kept free from the preponderating influence of Russia, to which they will owe their existence, it is hard to see, though doubtless the southern one is expected to provide for the non-Slavic population of Rumelia. The Treaty of San Stefano stipulated that the organization of the new Bulgaria, as well as the introduction of reforms in Thessaly and Epirus, should be conducted under Russian supervision, but there was not the slightest reason for supposing that Russia would insist on retaining this supervision exclusively, if the Congress show any wish to divide it. Lord Salisbury complained, too, that the new Bulgarian state would cut the Turkish Government off from the remaining Greek, Albanian, and Slavic provinces of the West, and render the administration of them difficult or impossible; if so, a similar result will follow the division of Bulgaria into two principalities. He objected to the retrocession of Bessarabia as likely to strengthen Russian influence on the Danube; he now agrees to this retrocession. He protested against the proposed annexation in Armenia for analogous reasons, and also to the magnitude of the indemnity, but there never was any good reason for believing that Russia would not have abandoned her pretensions in both these cases in the Congress; nay, there was good ground for supposing that she made these demands for the purpose of having something to yield. The most important stip.l.-

tion of the treaty for her on the Asiatic side was the port of Batum, and this it appears is now to be conceded to her. Finally, Lord Salisbury declared that the combined effect of the provisions of the treaty would be "to diminish the political independence of the Government of Constantinople, and almost to make it a vassal." The effect of the proposed arrangement will be the same. In short, it is by no means surprising that the English Liberals are entirely satisfied with the turn things have taken, but it will not be very surprising if the "Jingo party" do not conclude by the time the treaty is ratified that they have been the victims of an immense mystification, and that they have been singing their war songs and clashing their tumblers at the command of a juggler with no higher aims than the production of a brilliant *mise en scène*.

EDUCATION AT THE NAVAL ACADEMY.

THE report of the Superintendent of the Naval Academy at Annapolis, recently issued, is interesting as showing one phase of the contest between the "practical" man on the one side and the spirit of the age on the other. In the present case the contest is modified by being a triangular one, in which no two of the three contending parties have any common ground on which they can unite. First, we have the progressive party, who recognize the fact that the great revolution now going on in the methods and appliances of naval warfare necessitates a corresponding revolution in the education and in the intellectual qualifications of the men who are constantly to judge and use them, and who, therefore, desire to see all young officers subjected to such a course of intellectual discipline that they may be able to make themselves masters of any situation that may arise. They also hold the view that the naval officer of the present and future has many other than military duties, and that a liberal education is both necessary for these duties and perfectly consistent with his entire efficiency as a naval or military officer. Second, we have the old naval party, the "practical" sailors, whose views are set forth so strongly in the Report of the Board of Visitors for 1866 that we cannot do better than quote them:

"After mature deliberation upon this subject [that of the higher branches of education], which engaged a large share of our attention, the Board finds itself unable to subscribe to the opinion that it is the chief or even a considerable part of the work of the Naval Academy to perfect the education of its pupils in literature or in theoretical science. Its business is, in our judgment, to supply to the naval service practical seamen, men who can navigate our ships and fight their guns. . . . If, in addition to this, they could also be sent forth as gentlemen, qualified by their culture and polish to shine in the foreign circles in which they may represent the intelligence and worth of our nation, we should welcome the achievement. In our opinion, however, it is impracticable to effect this, even in a very moderate degree, within the limits of a course of four years, without doing injustice to the strictly professional branches which are indispensable for practical seamanship."

Finally, we have the political party, if we may call it so, of which the nucleus is formed by the friends and relations of the young cadets who have failed to get through the Academy, and who besiege Congress and the Navy Department to have them reinstated. The object aimed at by this party is necessarily a popular one, to a greater or less extent, because every one would like to see as large a proportion as possible of those who enter get safely through. So it naturally draws in all who think the discipline unnecessarily strict, the requirements too severe, and the subjects taught too foreign to the duties of a naval officer, and all who are in any way dissatisfied with the general management of the institution.

Of the three parties we have mentioned, the second, or old naval party, has during the past ten years so waned in numbers and influence that it may be doubted whether it will be worthy of being counted hereafter. Indeed, we may safely say that the public at large has very little knowledge of the improvement which has taken place in the intellectual standard of the Academy, as well as in its scientific spirit since 1865, when Admiral Porter acceded to the superintendency. From causes not necessary to consider in detail, the Academy had fallen into disrepute with both the naval and the popular parties. The former asserted that cadets graduated at the Academy without knowing the duties which young officers were expected to perform on shipboard, and without having learned the elements of the sailor's profession. The latter complained of the severity of the examinations, and raised a general outcry against the professors. There was no one to complain of any deficiency in the scientific instruction; on the contrary, both parties agreed that there was too much of it. Admiral Porter was appointed to make things right generally, and commenced with a radical change in the organization of the establishment. Several of the leading professors were removed, and their places filled, not with other professors, but with officers of the line, most of them of the rank of lieutenant-commander, who were expected to fill them for the usual term of shore duty, and return to sea again, to be replaced by others. By thus placing all the departments of instruction under the direction of sea-going officers it was expected to do away with the complaint that sea duties were neglected in the course of education, and at the same time satisfy the popular party that there would be no more dismissals on account of failures in "high science."

It was while these ideas were in the ascendant, and were supposed to be those of the superintendent, that a Board of Visitors took the strong ground against attempting to give the cadets anything like a scientific or liberal education which we have already pointed out. To make the new policy permanent, a law was passed prohibiting further appointments to the grade of professor in the Navy. The contest over staff rank in the Navy now commencing was not without its influence at this juncture. The party which looked upon officers of the line as alone entitled to military rank, and considered education outside the Navy as entitled to no recognition, were very naturally pleased with the plan of placing all the departments of academic instruction under line officers, while permanent professors appointed from civil life represented the ideas of those who desired that the quasi-military rank of surgeons and other officers educated at their own expense should be recognized.

All efforts to make the new system permanent proved unavailing. The heads of the departments of instruction were chosen from the best educated young men of the Navy, and were themselves among the first to recognize the superiority of permanent instructors and the difficulties attending a system which required frequent changes of all the heads of the departments of instruction. Before Admiral Porter's term expired it was concluded to extend the term of an officer's service at the Academy to four years, nominally because he could then see one class through the entire course, but, we conceive, in reality that changes might be less frequent, for the classes changed every year, and no one head of department had a class more than one or two years of its course. Admiral Worden succeeded Admiral Porter in 1869, and it gradually became understood that he favored the idea of returning to the old plan of permanent heads of departments. All active opposition to this course slowly died away, and the revolution which discussion failed to effect went on of itself with scarcely an effort. In 1873 the appointment of naval professors was again authorized, and the heads of departments became once more permanent officers of the institution. In the following year the superintendency was assumed by Rear-Admiral C. R. P. Rodgers, whose whole policy has been to elevate the standard both of education and morals. Measured by the merely scientific standard of the curriculum it may still fall somewhat short of West Point, but if we take account of the development of the spirit of originality among the pupils we should not be surprised to find it fully abreast.

One of the most suggestive results of the new order of things is a discovery which has lately been made in other branches of technical and practical education, viz., that the workshop is not the best training-school, and that familiarity with the details of the profession of seamanship can be best acquired by a course of training which bears the same relation to the profession that the studies of a law-school do to practice in a lawyer's office. On the old-fashioned system the midshipman was put aboard a cruiser and trained for no emergencies except those which might chance to arise during his voyage. With fair weather the voyage might be completed without his learning any more than the ordinary fair-weather routine. On the new system he is not sent to make a cruise, but to learn every possible manœuvre which may be necessary in the various accidents to which a ship can be exposed. Though the training-ship remains near the coast, the cadet can thus learn more about her management in all emergencies during a single season than he could in ten years of actual sea-life on the old plan.

As a result of the new plan a complete revolution is being effected in the intellectual tone of our Navy, which can now boast of officers who are equally at home on the quarter-deck of a ship, in the chemical or physical laboratory, or in the astronomical observatory. But the problem of keeping up this standard is beset with more than one difficulty. One of these arises from the fact that the Academy graduates more officers than are really necessary to supply the losses from death and resignation. During the last twenty years this annual surplus has been spent in filling up the lower grades to the number authorized by law, and, this being now done, future graduates must remain midshipmen through a course of years be-

fore attaining even the grade of ensign. Of course this does not interfere with the higher education at the Academy, but it does prevent the Navy from getting the benefit of that education, because the better class of officers will not remain in the service if they have to wait many years for their first commission. The result in prospect is that only those who have not the capacity to make a living outside the service will remain in it, and its average will thus be lowered. The only apparent remedy is to retain no more graduates than are necessary to fill vacancies, selecting them, of course, from the top of the list. Those who are dismissed will certainly have no cause of complaint, because, whether their stay at the Academy be two or four years, they will have the advantage of a most thorough discipline and education free of cost, while the Government on its part will dismiss only those whom it does not need, and will, therefore, be no sufferer. The question how far the Government may find it advantageous to become an educator is of course left open—we have to take the existence of the Naval Academy for granted, and can only enquire in what way it can best dispose of its surplus cadets. If it receives a class of sixty or eighty every year, and only needs thirty for its own service, it must lose some of them, and the only question is whether it shall lose them by dismissal or by resignation. By dismissal of the surplus from the bottom of the list it retains the best of the class ; by attempting to retain all it loses the best by resignation. A simple raising of the standard has not effected the weeding-out which will be required, for statistics presented by Admiral Rodgers show that the proportion of graduates is as high under the higher standard as it was under the lower one. So, unless the heroic process is adopted, and it is understood that only a given number of each class are to be permanently retained in the service, our Navy must hereafter be recruited rather from the lowest than from the highest of the graduates of the Academy.

THE LOUISIANA CERTIFICATES.

WASHINGTON, June 15, 1878.

THE Republicans have already begun to recover from the effects of Anderson's testimony, and to assume a more confident tone as to the results of the investigation. The somewhat inconsecutive character of the examination has tended, too, to produce the impression that the Democrats are not meeting with the success they expected. The evidence, however, they have brought out with regard to the forged Louisiana certificate is curious, and may hereafter become important.

In Louisiana, in 1876, there were two sets of electors, one Republican and the other Democratic ; one known, it will be recollected, as the Kellogg electors (Kellogg being at the head of the list) and the other as the McEnery electors. There were necessarily, therefore, in the case of this State "double returns," one set for Hayes and the other for Tilden. But it appears from the testimony already taken that Mr. Ferry, the President of the Senate, received four sets. Of these the fourth was a burlesque return which was opened and read, but may be dismissed as of no further consequence. The remaining three are those on which the case turns. Of these the first, called No. 1, is a Kellogg certificate, received by mail. Of course there was a duplicate of this sent by messenger ; but it appears from Mr. Ferry's testimony that this was returned to the person who brought it (Thomas C. Anderson). The explanation of this is that Mr. Ferry, who seems to have acted with great caution during the electoral proceedings, finding before he had received many of the returns that there were likely to be informalities in the outside certificate and the sealing, determined in all cases to call the attention of the messenger to any irregularities that might exist. This being done, if the messenger chose he could take the returns back to have the irregularities remedied ; if he insisted, however, on their reception, Mr. Ferry received them. In the case of Louisiana, the messenger, on his attention being called to the fact that on the outside there was no certificate by the electors, took his package away, and it was never seen again. Its duplicate, however, which had come by mail, of course remained in Mr. Ferry's hands until the count. The disposition of this set of certificates, which we may call Kellogg No. 1 (and which there is no question were the only *bona-fide* Republican returns in the case), was as follows : one certificate may be assumed to be deposited in the official archives of the State ; one was brought to Washington and taken away by the messenger who brought it ; one was received by mail (the postmark showing that it was mailed from New Orleans on the 9th of December, 1876), and, when the State was reached on the count, was opened by Mr. Ferry and went to the Commission. Now, this certificate is defective in two respects. It does not contain as required by the Constitution (12th Amendment) distinct lists of the persons voted for as President and Vice-President, and on the outside there was merely an endorsement signed by Kellogg as to the contents, instead of a certificate signed, as the Revised Statutes require, by all the electors. The second (Democratic) set of certificates, which may be called McEnery No. 2, came in duplicate by mail and messenger, were opened by Mr. Ferry, and went to the Commission. The third set, which may be called Kellogg No. 3, came by mail and messenger. It is on the difference between these last certificates and the Kellogg No. 1 certificates that the evidence recently taken turns. There is no doubt that the last set were forgeries. It is to be observed that No. 1 were defective not merely by reason of the absence of "distinct lists," but because there had been no distinct voting for President and Vice-President on separate tickets, on which distinct lists could be based. Therefore no revision of the certificates was possible without a new meeting of the Louisiana electors and a recast of the vote. But no meeting of all the electors was ever held, and the signature of A. B. Levisee, one of the electors, proves to have been forged on the No. 3 certificates—in all eight times. Formally, however, these certificates were in strict conformity with the Constitution and laws. The mailed duplicate of the last set did not reach Mr. Ferry till January 3. The documents which went to the Commission, therefore, embraced the original but defective return, and the formally correct but forged return; and the decision of the Commission, sent to Congress, expressly rests on what are referred to in it as "Nos. 1 and 3."

So far all is simple enough. Anderson, the first messenger, on finding that the first set of certificates were irregular on the outside, put them again in the possession of Kellogg. Not being able to withdraw the mailed duplicate, he determined to remedy the defects, and so the No. 3 certificates were prepared and sent to Washington. The defects in No. 1 appeared to be covered by No. 3. But now comes a curious piece of evidence. The two sets are totally unlike, so that it would be impossible to compare them without discovering the dissimilarity at once; and the Commission, in its decision just quoted, refers to them as two different papers. Notwithstanding this the printed record of the proceedings of the Commission makes them identical. There are two volumes containing the proceedings, one in octavo, known as the 'Electoral Count,' and the other in quarto, in the form of the 'Congressional Record.' In both these are printed what purport to be copies of No. 1 and No. 3, but they are duplicates, and duplicates of No. 1, the defective but genuine certificate. Now if both sets were really considered by the Commission, it is very singular that no one ever heard of the discrepancy between them at the time. The Democratic theory appears to be that the Commissioners, following their usual practice, sent all the papers to the printer without examination ; that after being printed a substitution was made by some person or persons unknown ; and that then No. 1 was kept back, and two papers went to the Commission which were in reality the No. 3 duplicates. The conspirators, however, not liking to have the suppression of No. 1 appear in the record, had the genuine certificates printed there, this time making Nos. 1 and 3 duplicates of No. 1. The Republicans, on the other hand, pooh-pooh this theory, and say the whole thing is the result of the carelessness of the printer or custodian of the papers. The testimony of Orlando H. Brewster, one of the electors, and of Clarke, Kellogg's private secretary, have not materially affected the case as to the count, one way or the other.

This is as much as has been actually proved, and I think it is a mistake to assume that the object of the testimony with regard to these certificates is to lay a foundation for an attack on Mr. Hayes's title. Although one of the sets of certificates is partly forged, and the other irregular, there is no question that the Republican electors did actually cast their votes for Hayes and Wheeler ; and to make any real flaw in their titles, it is necessary to go much deeper. The object of the testimony, as far as it has gone, is rather to show that the whole management of the election and of the count was in the hands of a gang of desperadoes, who hesitated at nothing. Manufacturing bogus election returns is an offence of a rather serious character, and the further history of Kellogg No. 3 certificates will probably be interesting.

RENAN'S "CALIBAN."

PARIS, May 31.

RENAN has composed a sequel to Shakspere's "Tempest," under the title of "Caliban." He himself calls it a philosophical drama. He was inspired to write it at Ischia one fine morning, "when the vines were covered with dew, and when the sea was like a whitish silk." He had left Paris, its noise and its quarrels, and was able to enjoy the silent beauty

of light and form. But his mind could not divest itself of the problems of the time. "Caliban" is, after all, but an idealized ".Rabagas." It is a philosophical study of democracy.

Democracy has always appeared to me like a huge body without any nervous centre. You can prick it, and try satire and irony against it; it does not feel. It opposes to all your efforts its portentous ignorance. It works, it digests, it consumes, it produces, it has appetites, it has instincts; but where can you find the *nodus vitæ*, the point which, touched, suffers acutely? Where is the seat of conscience? Where is responsibility lodged? A despotism has a nervous centre in the person of the despot, in his pride, in his vanity, in his personal and traditional sentiments. It is possible to wound even a Louis XIV. or a Napoleon. Those who do it do so at the risk of their life's happiness, sometimes at the risk of their lives. Fénelon had to pay by a long exile at Cambrai for the timid advice which he dared to give Louis XIV. Chateaubriand was never pardoned for throwing up his diplomatic post after the assassination of the Duke d'Enghien. Despots do not like reproach. They see it sometimes even in the most trifling objects. A Russian of my acquaintance told me that he was for a week in mortal fear of disgrace and of exile because the Emperor Nicholas, just before the Crimean war, met him in the Nevskoi Prospekt dressed in an English pea-jacket. Still, it is a joy and a consolation to think that you can go and seize the powerful and wicked man on his throne at the height of his glory, and that you can tell him the truth and force him to hear it. From his island of Jersey Victor Hugo hurled forth his "Châtiments" on Napoleon III., and did not Napoleon feel the shaft when he heard such verses as these:

> "Ah! tu finiras bien par crier, misérable!"

Despotism, wrapped up in all its magnificence, surrounded with its armies and battalions, affects to ignore the existence of the intellectual worm; but the pen is, in the long run, mightier than the sword. Then, your despot is not always a moral monster. He is often—too often—a very weak man, and in this very weakness there is a resource, if he can be approached by good, moral, high-minded advisers. The influence of man over man is nowhere so great as in countries governed by traditions, with monarchical and aristocratic institutions. It is almost painful to see in the immense collection of the letters of Richelieu how much care this great minister had to take in order to preserve the confidence of his young king, to give him truly royal ideas, and to separate him from low, debasing, selfish influences. He succeeded, however—at least, to a great extent. The poor and sickly king, so proud and so shy, so brave in battle, so timid in his court, so afraid of his best friends, and so willing to abandon them, was, nevertheless, what I have called a nervous centre. His qualities as well as his defects afforded a definite ground for the exercise of the faculties of a master mind like Richelieu.

But how are you to direct democracy? You can only do it in an indirect manner, by education, by changing the current ideas of a generation. But so long as this educational work is imperfect you must feel quite helpless. It is with democracy as with parties: you can only lead parties by following them. The general comes behind. The general is the man who feels most keenly, and who can express with the greatest force the most popular notions and ideas.

Renan supposes that *Prospero*, triumphing by his magic art over all his enemies, is replaced on his throne at Milan; he goes back to Lombardy with *Ariel* and *Caliban*. In his philosophical drama *Prospero* represents the aristocratic spirit, the dilettante, fond of art, of science; he inhabits the Certosa of Pavia, where he continues his experiments, caring but little for his subjects. *Ariel* represents pure idealism, the Hellenic spirit of love, of beauty. *Caliban* represents the democratic spirit, or rather the democratic instinct; he embodies the longings, the brutality, the inexperience, the strength of the masses. He is the same *Caliban* who says in the "Tempest" to *Trinculo*, speaking of *Prospero:*

> "As I told thee before, I am subject to a tyrant;
> A sorcerer, that by his cunning hath cheated me
> Of this island."

He says no more to *Trinculo:*

> "I'll show thee the best springs; I'll pluck thee berries;
> I'll fish for thee, and get thee wood enough.
> A plague upon the tyrant that I serve!
> I'll bear him no more sticks, but follow thee,
> Thou wondrous man."

Caliban has found out that he has the same rights even that *Trinculo* has; he complains of his bondage. "*Prospero* is an usurper; I was the first occupant." *Ariel* tells him in vain that he is happy at Pavia, that he has plenty of good wine. "Yes," says he, "but I am exploited. Vile valet, don't you see that to be exploited by another man is the most insupportable thing? Have you no honor? No mortal has a right to make a subaltern of another. In that case, revolt becomes the holiest of duties." *Ariel* explains in vain that *Caliban* owes everything to *Prospero*—the faculty of articulate language, even his human form; *Caliban* answers that it was a folly to teach him to speak, since he can use the faculty of speaking against *Prospero*. He has been deceived long enough; the monsters with which his master frightened him were inventions, lies; he will serve no more.

In the second act we are in the gardens of the Palace of Milan; the court is assembled, and the courtiers exchange their views on all sorts of matters. Some want reform, and some laugh at reform; they are all happy and amiable and highly polished. *Caliban* is a witness of the feast behind a bush, and he asks himself why he was not invited. "Is it just that I should not be one of them? The rights of men are the same for all men." The feast begins in earnest when *Prospero* arrives with *Ariel;* he shows his guests the "gods of the future." Immense giants appear, all in polished steel. Their joints are formed and moved by powerful mechanical articulations; the oil flows in each joint; an incandescent tube is their soul. They seem to eat coal. In another part of the garden a table is spread round which sit the gods of flesh—the Olympian gods. The gods of steel attack the gods of flesh, kill them, smash them. An immense confusion ends the scene.

Prospero is delighted, but his prefect of police tells him that he ought to remain for the night in Milan, that the city is in a state of fermentation. *Prospero* disdainfully returns to his laboratory in the Certosa. The revolution takes place after his departure. *Caliban* is proclaimed the head of the government, and carried in triumph to the palace. He immediately discovers and tells the people that "Order is necessary. Leave your arms, return to your houses; crown your victory by your moderation and by your respect for property. Vive Milan!" The revolution is ended. *Caliban* finds himself in *Prospero's* bed; he is kept awake by his own triumph. In the deep silence of the night he thus soliloquizes:

"No, I would not have believed it could be so sweet to reign. I would not have believed that reigning makes men so mature. In the journey from the communal square to this palace I have changed more than during the rest of my life. Ten hours have passed since the people brought me here in their arms, and I don't know myself. I was unjust to *Prospero;* slavery had embittered me. Now, lying in his bed, I can judge him as colleagues judge each other. There was some good in *Prospero*, and in many things I feel disposed to imitate him. Is there anything more odious, for example, than this inopportune impatience of the people, this succession of impossible petitions with which they annoy me? What avidity for enjoyment! what subversive pretensions! . . . A government ought to resist. I will resist. After all, the established people and myself, we have common interests. I am established as they are; this ought to last. Property is the ballast of society; I feel in sympathy with the proprietors.

"Then, after the useful comes the brilliant. The brilliant is necessary. I will repair my wrongs. I was jealous at the feast yesterday, because I was there uninvited. Well! feasts, the fine arts, palaces, courts are the ornament of life. I will favor the artists. The men of letters are the distributers of glory; I will not neglect them. Who was the centre of this fine assembly of yesterday night? It was Imperia; I will court Imperia. . . . Ah! if I were only beloved I would be good and happy. A new world opens. The good exists. I see it for the first time. *Prospero* always spoke of making the happiness of humanity. It was not his destiny to do it. If, perhaps, it were mine. . . . "

Here *Caliban* goes to sleep.

Prospero has left Milan after his great feast and returned to his dear Certosa. A friend comes the next day and brings him the first proclamation of *Caliban*. *Caliban* gives himself out as a moderate. The men of order in Milan, frightened at first, already group themselves round him, and call him the saviour of society. Some of them call him the great citizen. *Prospero* comes out of his scientific dreams; he laughs heartily; he cannot even hate *Caliban*. He calls *Ariel;* the time has come for *Ariel* to show what he can do. They must get rid of this brute of a *Caliban*, so as to be free to pursue their noble researches. *Ariel* goes forth, and he soon comes back; he falls from heaven heavily, like a bird blown by a hurricane. "Oh! my master, our art is vanquished; it is powerless against the people." Where *Caliban* can do every thing *Ariel* can do nothing. In the enchanted island of the "Tempest" *Alonzo* was accessible to *Ariel's* charms. Now all is different; the revolution is realism. What is ideal, not substantial, has ceased to exist. "When the people says 'this does not exist,' all is finished. I tremble for the day when this terrible method of reasoning shall touch God. He will be summoned, and if the Eternal stays proudly behind the clouds he will be struck off the catalogue of existences. As for kings and dukes, we know

what will become of them. The people is positivist." While *Prospero* is discoursing with *Ariel* and a few friends on the triumph of *Caliban*, on the moderation of *Caliban*, on the best way of dealing with the people, enters *Fra Agostino*, of Ferrara, who reads an indictment of the Holy Inquisition accusing the Duke *Prospero* of heresy, calling him to account for his impious experiments, his witchcraft, and finally ordering him to follow him into the prisons of the Holy Office. The Milanese friends of the Duke become very angry, and one of them, *Gonzalo*, says to the Duke, "You see, Monseigneur, *Caliban* has one more quality: he is anti-clerical." *Prospero* laughs, and says: "Well! Vive *Caliban!*"

We come now to what may be called the moral of the piece. *Caliban* makes a visit, as Duke of Milan, to the Certosa; he is received by the friars. The organ prays for him, as he is sitting in the choir on the *sedes dueis:* "O eternal, Thou whom nothing can trouble, irritate, or console, pure and holy being, crystalline light which goes through the world without a stain, we praise Thee with our voice, and proclaim Thee just, perfect, and good. Those who believe, those who hope, those who love, are those alone who do not err." The legate of the Pope denounces the dissolute *Prospero*, "the mortal enemy of your Highness," but *Caliban* feels now equally proud and generous. He refuses to deliver *Prospero* into the hands of the Inquisition, and says: "I am the heir of the rights of *Prospero;* I will defend him. *Prospero* is my protégé. Let him work at his ease with his philosophers, his artists, under my patronage. His labors will be the glory of my reign." He calls those who have the tradition of government, and names *Gonzalo* member of the Council of State. *Gonzalo* says: "Sir, I have counselled all my lifetime: I will die counselling; I thank your Highness."

The ceremony is finished. The prior of the friars is in his cell; he prays, and says:

"The world, which I did well to leave, is an eternal illusion, a comedy composed of acts without an end. What happens proves, what nobody would believe, that *Caliban* is susceptible of progress. Yes, all civilization is the work of aristocrats. Aristocracy has created the grammatical language (how many blows have been necessary to make grammar obligatory!), laws, morals, reason. . . . Well-combed, well-washed will become presentable. There will, perhaps, some day be medals 'to Caliban, protector of sciences, letters, and arts.' *Prospero* can live, at least for a while, under this régime, and he may even take the direction of it with prudence. . . . As for the extreme delicacy of tender souls, moved by a personal sentiment of loyalty, it has not much place left in this order of things. Such souls have nothing to do but to disappear. 'I have loved justice and hated iniquity,' said a great pope. You can still love justice; but to hate iniquity! . . . It is easier said than done. Where is iniquity? The best minds search for it, and in the end are much embarrassed."

Ariel dies, and *Prospero* hears from his cell the last accents of his ideal friend:

"*Prius mori quam foedari.* . . . This human life is strong but impure. I want chaste kisses. Every idealist will be my lover. I will be the virgin snow on the neck of the young girl, the fairness of her hair. I will bloom with the rose; I will be green with the myrtle, perfumed with the pink, pale with the olive-tree. Adieu, my master. Remember your little *Ariel*."

Correspondence.

"AUDI ALTERAM PARTEM."

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Will you, in the cause of truth and right and justice, insert in your next number an explanation of the following, which appears in your number 676, page 380, dated June 13, 1878?

"Testimony was also given of the ballot-stuffing in Leon County, Florida, at precinct No. 13, by Inspector Bowes, who holds a position in Washington, D. C. He put in 73 or 74 'jolly jokers,' and made his count to correspond, and boasted that he had saved the State to Hayes."

The 73 or 74 small tickets ycleped "Jolly Jokers" found in the ballot-box at precinct No. 13, Leon County, Florida, were legitimate ballots for the Presidential election of 1876, cast by legal voters, and proven to be legitimate at the counting of the ballots, and which can be truthfully proven again if the Committee will summon Inspector Bowes—by no means a difficult task, for he is in Washington, D. C. The difficulty experienced at elections by the colored voters in Florida, partly owing to large area, sparse population, and poor roads, has been to obtain true Republican ballots to vote with, and for that purpose many devices, such as designated colors, have been adopted, but always counterfeited by their active, unscrupulous, and alert enemies, notwithstanding the secrecy which Republican leaders had heretofore adopted. On this last occasion a very small-sized ballot was adopted as the Republican device, and the ballots were sent by safe messengers to the several districts. Knowledge, however, being obtained during the night before the election by the Republican leaders that their last device, a very small-sized ballot, had again come into possession of the enemy, through the leakage of a boy employed in the printing-office, it was deemed necessary to recall the whole of them and issue other ballots, which was accomplished except in one outlying district (twelve miles distant), which could not be reached during the night, and consequently those Republican voters voted the small-sized ballots ycleped "Jolly Jokers."

The above statement was corroborated as true at the time of the election, and can be truthfully proven so again whenever an "Investigating Committee" or the country wishes to hear the truth of the Florida Presidential election for 1876. Very respectfully,

Thomas W. Lion,
222 Second St., N.W., Washington, D.C.

[We merely summarized the evidence taken during the week.—Ed. Nation.]

Notes.

G. P. PUTNAM'S SONS announce 'Sibyl Spencer,' a novel, by James Kent; 'Six to One: a Nantucket Idyl'; and 'The Crew of the *Sam Weller*,' by John Habberton.——Harper & Brothers have met vigorously the cheap competition in the fiction market, of which the "Seaside Library" is perhaps the best example. Their "Franklin-Square Library" offers in the first four numbers Trollope's 'Is he Popenjoy?' Hugo's 'History of a Crime' (complete), 'The Russians of To-Day,' and Harwood's 'John Knox, Pitman.' These numbers are quarto in form, composed in triple columns, and clearly printed, without covers, and sell at ten or fifteen cents according to the number of pages. They ought to clear the field of all rivals, as well as check the demand for the baser sort of literature. Another new enterprise of this house is its "Library of American Fiction," in the regular novel form, with an appropriate and taking cover.—In Prof. Baird's 'Annual Record of Science and Industry' for 1877 (Harper & Brothers) the wise plan has been adopted of omitting the abstracts of papers in scientific journals, and of making the volume consist wholly of summaries of progress in the several departments by recognized authorities. The bibliography and necrology, and of course the index, are retained.——Prof. Baird's Report as U. S. Fish Commissioner for 1875-1876 has issued from the Government Printing-Office. It is principally devoted to a history of the American whale-fishery, for which the illustrations have been borrowed from Capt. Scammon's authoritative work. From the Engineer Department, United States Army, we have received Vol. ii. of the Report of the Wheeler Survey. It relates to astronomy and barometric hypsometry, and is illustrated by plans of the observing stations, and by the usual tables of barometric curves.——It may be doubted whether the excessive cost of Dr. Russell's 'Diary of the Prince of Wales's Tour in India' was a damper on would-be readers of the work in this country; but they can now get an inviting reprint of it in one moderate octavo volume for a correspondingly moderate price, and with cuts that at least give a great many aspects of the Prince (New York: R. Worthington).——Macmillan & Co. have brought out a second volume of the *Daily News* war correspondence from the fall of Kars to the conclusion of peace. It will be long before critical history overtakes and supersedes it. Place may well be made on the same shelf for C. B. Norman's 'Armenia and the Campaign of 1877' (Cassell, Petter & Galpin), of which the specially-prepared maps and plans of battles will partly supply the only defect of the *Daily News* volumes.——'The Hand-book of Mount Desert' (New York: T. Whitaker) challenges comparison with a Portland guide-book to the same fortunate isle; and if it lacks the rather elegant typography and photographic illustrations of the latter, it is worth adding to it both for its matter and its sketch-maps.——The second edition of 'Harvard and its Surroundings' (Cambridge: Moses King shows an improved arrangement of the heliotype views, some substitutions not always for the better, and some valuable additions, like the interior view of commons in Memorial Hall.——The cartoons in the last number of the *Harvard Lampoon* (June 7) are unusually ambitious as designs, and fairly fulfil the desire of this journal to serve as a comic review outside the range of college interests.——The second number of the *Ameri-*

can Journal of Mathematics will appear about the first of July.——The promised portrait of William Harvey appears in *Nature* for May 30. The engraving is by Jeens after the painting in the Royal College of Physicians.——The Haarlem Society of Sciences has awarded its biennial medal for exceptional distinction in some branch of science during the past twenty years to Prof. Simon Newcomb as an astronomer.——The Rhode Island Medical Society, as trustee of the Fiske Fund, offered a prize of $200 for an essay on any one of four subjects, and it has been awarded to a layman, Col. George E. Waring, Jr., who wrote incognito on "The Causation of Typhoid Fever." The paper will be printed by the trustee.——One of the twenty scholarships recently established in the Free School of Political Sciences in Paris has been allotted to the University of Virginia.——M. Henri Martin, the historian, has just been elected over M. Taine as Thiers's successor in the French Academy; and M. Renan over M. Wallon, as the successor of M. Bernard. The vote was alike in the two instances.

—Prang & Co., the Boston chromo-lithographers, have issued two parts of "an important, popular, and low-priced work on 'The Native Flowers and Ferns of the United States,' by Prof. Thomas Meehan, of Philadelphia"; the plates printed in colors from designs by Alois Lunzer. The issue is to continue fortnightly, in parts containing four plates and sixteen pages of letterpress, in imperial 8vo. The announcement from which we have quoted rightly characterizes the work. With Sprague's 'Wild Flowers,' published by Houghton & Co., we could find no fault, except with the price. The present publication is remarkably low-priced, and therefore it would be ungracious to complain that the plates, though sufficient for the purpose and generally good, are not exquisite. The artist shows capabilities which are not yet fully developed, and the lithographers are doing their share well, wonderfully so for the price. So that the enterprise is really hopeful, as to the illustrations; and the typography and paper are excellent. Mr. Meehan is the very person to conduct the undertaking, having a genius for popular exposition, knowing enough of the technical botany, everything about cultivation and the habits of plants, being acute in observation, quick to philosophize, and with a gift for ready writing which may be equal to the demands of the rapid issue promised for this work.

—An important change in the composition of one of our leading publishing firms was announced last week. Mr. Andrew C. Armstrong, who for more than thirty years has been connected with the house of Scribner, and who thus links together the original firm (1846) of Baker & Scribner, the subsequent Charles Scribner & Co. (1850), and the late Scribner, Armstrong & Co. (1871), has disposed of his interest to the senior partner, Mr. J. Blair Scribner, and his brother, Mr. Charles Scribner, who assume the firm name of Charles Scribner's Sons. Mr. Armstrong's interest is also extinguished in the associated firms of Scribner & Co. and Scribner, Welford & Armstrong. The book-loving public must view with favor the maintenance of the business from generation to generation in the same family; but Mr. Armstrong's friends may also express a hope that his long experience and ability as a publisher will not be lost.

—Mr. T. W. Higginson's "Some War Scenes Revisited," in the July *Atlantic*, confirms what the candid have long known about the material progress of the blacks in the seaboard States, and the changed attitude towards them of their white fellow-citizens. It even draws a contrast between the degrees of equality secured the colored people in South Carolina and Virginia and in Rhode Island and Connecticut, to the decided advantage of the late slave States. The personal interest of Mr. Higginson's narrative lies in the fact that he viewed after an interval of fourteen years localities and persons familiar to him during the war as a colonel of colored troops. He traces the career of several of his subordinates, like Corporal McGill, who is "de most populous man in Beaufort," being proprietor of a well-equipped livery-stable. He "rarely met an ex-soldier who did not own his house and ground, the enclosures varying from five to two hundred acres," and he adds that "it will hardly be believed that the men of my regiment alone sunk $30,000 in an impracticable building association, and in the purchase of a steamboat which was lost uninsured." Mr. Moncure D. Conway has a pleasant paper based on one of our countrymen's, Col. Joseph Chester's, genealogies, and entitled the "Romance of a Family." The family in question is that represented by Mr. P. A. Taylor, the well-known radical member of Parliament, and Mr. Conway quotes freely from the family letters reproduced in the volume. Nothing is more unexpected and amusing than Rebecca Taylor's account of a spiritual séance in London in 1762, with one knock for yes and two for no, quite in the modern fashion. The performance was a lame one, and Rebecca remarks in a postscript: "I was much pleased with one clergyman who sayd it was a Damd Lying spirit." This reminds one of the lady who said "Thank you" to the gentleman who swore at the train they had both missed by half a minute. Mr. Henry James, jr., begins a new story in this number, and whereas he has just shown us "The American" in Europe he now shows us "The Europeans" in America. But we imagine his subject is still his countrymen, whom he prefers to describe in contact with foreigners, rather than in their common action and reaction upon each other. The difference now, therefore, is mainly in the change of scene, and here Mr. James has to draw from memory at a great distance in time and space. His local color in consequence seems to gain in charm without losing in realism. The story opens in a room at the Tremont House in Boston, twenty years ago, and we need only say that those who begin it will take a new dislike to the practice of continued stories.

—The *Portfolio* for May (J. W. Bouton) gives a large, spirited etching by Richeton after Luke Fildes, the artist who came into sudden prominence with the "Casual Ward"—remembered by every visitor to the Centennial with the sensation that Dickens was somehow still alive, and that one of his chapters of London life had just appeared. Mr. Fildes has been visiting Venice, and his contribution to the *Portfolio* represents "Marianina," a water-carrier. This picture of a robust but dreamy girl is Dickensish too—conceived from an inveterately foreign standing-point, painted with strong light and shade, but in English idiom—one of the "Pictures from Italy," in fact. Other plates are a reproduction by Durand of one of Dürer's etchings—those rare and precious forerunners of the art—and a bad copy in aqua-fortis from Piloty's "Galileo" by a German etcher. Mr. Atkinson's papers on "Modern Art in Germany," which this last plate illustrates, would be improved by the infusion of a little criticism in the place of obvious remarks about Cornelius being classical and Piloty a colorist. Mr. Hamerton's page on Turner fills its place in the series merely in a perfunctory way, and the number altogether gives signs of editorial lassitude.

—William Cullen Bryant died on Wednesday of last week, in the 84th year of his age, in consequence of exposure at the unveiling of the Mazzini monument in Central Park, of which occasion he was the orator. He leaves behind him a great reputation earned in the not generally connected fields of poetry and daily journalism. It is as a poet that Mr. Bryant's fame is likely to be most enduring. He will stand in the history of American letters as the first of our poets who secured what could be properly called a national reputation, and who succeeded in expressing in verse thoughts and feelings with which great numbers of his contemporaries were in sympathy. When he began to write he had no rivals, for Mr. Dana, though some years his senior, was of too fastidious a temperament to produce enough to win that prolonged popular attention which his genius might otherwise have claimed. America was longing for distinction in letters, and Mr. Bryant's verses could be cited as performances that were free from provincial limitations, and that would deserve respect even in England. He had studied good models; he had learned early much from Wordsworth. He expressed simple thoughts in plain and elevated language. His poetry made up for what it lacked in imagination by a pure moral tone. He put into verse reflection and sentiment which were distinguished only by form from those which were common in the best circles of New England. If he never stirred the passions, he at least moved the gentler feelings. Men who read his poetry were the better for it. It was full of a pensive optimism which suited the fireside. He had no great skill in narration of human interests, but he could describe the external aspects of nature in sonorous and decorous verse, and connect them with familiar associations of human life. His eye for nature was not keen; he had no greater insight into her moods than into those of man. For him Cole was a great painter whose canvas was "glorious." He was a moralist in verse much more than a poet, and as the great majority of readers care little for poetry, but much for well-expressed moral feeling, his popularity had a sure foundation. The most remarkable feature of his long career is the equality of his verse at every stage and the unity of feeling and of style that pervades it all. His "Thanatopsis" happened to be one of his earliest instead of one of his latest pieces, but between that and the "Thirty Poems," published more than half a century afterwards, there is an evenness of sentiment, expression, and finish very rare in the history of any poet. Occasionally Mr. Bryant reached in his later years a freer swing than in his earlier productions. His "Robert of Lincoln," for example, has a true charm of unconcernedness for aught but

the bird itself. Still, the poems which will be most read and most esteemed hereafter doubtless belong to his early manhood. Among these should be named "The Waterfowl," "The Hurricane," the "Forest Hymn," "The Prairies," the "Hymn of the Sea," and, what may be thought to outrank them all in beauty, "June," with its prophetic

> "—thought that when I came to lie
> At rest within the ground,
> 'Twere pleasant that in flowery June,
> When brooks send up a cheerful tune
> And groves a pleasant sound,
> The sexton's hand my grave to make
> The rich green mountain turf should break."

Mr. Bryant's editorial connection with the *Evening Post* covered a period of fifty-two years, and thus, though he was not the founder of the paper, his removal from it has for the public of to-day the same significance that the death of Raymond, or Bennett, or Greeley had. It is some years since he laid aside the real editorial burden, but as a more or less frequent contributor of political articles down to the last days of his life, he may fairly be said to have died in harness. For the rest, his career as a journalist was, like that of all journalists, uneventful. Yet, in a period when journalism was at a low ebb, his paper was invariably respectable, and he stood uncompromisingly by free-trade when it had few other advocates at the North, and by anti-slavery doctrine when it was most denounced and despised.

—The ingenuity of managers has been tasked for several years to devise some means of filling the Grand Opera House with paying audiences. The late James Fisk, jr., was, as the inhabitants of New York have reason to remember, a devotee not merely of commerce, manufactures, and transportation, but of art as well, and it is no wonder that his plans for the development of New York should have embraced them all. If the licentious press and addle-headed reformers had not stopped him it was, we believe, his intention to have developed Twenty-third Street into a great transverse highway—a sort of East and West Broadway—the ferries at either end (possibly converted to bridges or tunnels) making it the great viaduct between the grain-fields of the West and coal-fields of Pennsylvania and "tide-water," the dwellings converted into busy stores and warehouses, while overtopping all were to be the offices of the great broad-gauge double-track Erie Railroad and Opera House, run and managed by those two well-known impresarios, Jay Gould and James Fisk, jr. It was a magnificent idea, and as it could not be all carried out at once, the Opera House was first bought, as a home for art, around which were to cluster gradually afterwards commerce and manufactures. Transportation was already represented in the person of Fisk, whose private stairway enabled him to seek refuge from the cares of railway management in the proscenium box of the theatre, where the present generation of New-Yorkers will long remember him sitting and encouraging his imported company of players with signs of benevolent satisfaction. The hand of the assassin, however, struck down the enterprising Fisk, and his untimely death nipped in the bud his plans for the development of the city. The new managers of the Erie Railway had no taste for art, and moved back to their old offices; the great highway remained what it was before, and the Opera House sunk into a melancholy decline, which manager after manager depleted his pockets in vain attempts to relieve. It is still the best house for comic opera in the city, and its failure has been solely due to its situation.

—The Hess English Opera Company have at last succeeded in filling it. The "Chimes of Normandy" is a pretty literal translation of the "Cloches de Corneville," and for any one interested in music or the stage this opera is well worth hearing, if only for the sake of comparison with the French version of the Aimée troupe. There can be no question that the musical resources of English singers are much greater than those of the French. They have finer voices, sing with greater accuracy, and fill the large theatre easily. Indeed, the Aimée troupe had hardly a voice among them, Aimée making hers do its work only by the most delicate and careful management. The English company, too, act better than any English troupe that we remember to have seen, Miss Melville and Mr. Peakes being particularly good. And yet there could be no question after hearing both versions as to which was the real thing and which the imitation. In the French version everything was in good taste from the beginning to the end, and if it was not precisely an opera suited for Boston in Anniversary Week, there was nothing vulgar or clownish in it. The tenor, for example, was a fat fellow, who off the stage would probably not present nearly as fine an appearance as Mr. C. H. Turner, and his part was one in which there were neither graces nor virtues. Nevertheless M. Mollard made it a pleasing part, while Mr. Turner makes it that of a circus-clown. The acting, though good, is immeasurably inferior to French acting. It may fairly be doubted, we think, whether a race which, like the Anglo-Saxon, has entirely abandoned gesticulation in private life, can do much for the theatre, where gesticulation is an absolute necessity for expression; and it is curious to see in this respect the awkward attempts of the Hess company. Miss Melville is a born actress, but the rest of the troupe have little more idea of the connection between feeling and gesture than if they did not know there was any such connection. Mrs. Seguin, for instance, whose beautiful voice made the part of *Germaine* musically almost perfect, has a favorite gesture which consists in extending her arms with a sinuous motion and then turning the palms upwards. It looks like a feminine attempt to imitate the feathering of a pair of sculls, but what it means we confess we do not know. You might go to the French opera for months without seeing a single unmeaning gesture. On the other hand, you might go there for years without hearing such a voice as Mrs. Seguin's; and you might, if you confined yourself to the English stage, wait for a generation before you would see again as good English opera as her company is now giving.

—The entertainment now given at the Park by Mr. Horace Lingard and Miss Alice Dunning consists of a legitimate comedy, succeeded by "sketches" of the Concert Hall variety. Mr. Lingard is, it seems, going through a natural process of evolution from the concert-hall level to that of the real stage, and to realize the progress he has made it is only necessary to see him in *Perkyn Middlewyck*, in Byron's "Our Boys." The part is low comedy of a rather delicate kind, and is acted in too broad a way by Mr. Lingard, who does not bring out any of the nicer shades in the relations between the vulgar, hot-tempered, but good-hearted butter-man and his educated son. Mr. Lingard's *Middlewyck* is simply a comical figure. His acting, as far as it goes, however, is genuine comedy, which is more than can be said for Miss Dunning, whose histrionic abilities are of the slightest. The play is one of Byron's best, abounding in witty and bright dialogues, but with the usual amount of slowness in the development of the plot. It depends greatly for its success on the skill with which the actors bring out the play of character and make their "points." It is very much above the range of Miss Dunning, and slightly above that of Mr. Lingard; but the latter is evidently *lancé* in the legitimate drama, and his progress in the last four or five years has been so great that there is no saying what he may accomplish in the future.

—As railways are extended, and railway travel becomes more a daily matter, the inconvenience of the differences of time at different places becomes more strongly felt. So far as the traveller is concerned, any system by which the same time was used on every road would remedy the evil. But we are here met with the requirement that railway and local time shall correspond, at least in the principal cities, and it is too much to expect that a whole community will abolish local time in the ordinary avocations of life. The only practical way out of the difficulty seems to be to establish two recognized measures of time: the one railway time, corresponding to some one meridian, say that of Washington, and the other the local time of each place, and to construct clocks and watches so as to show both times, either by having two pairs of hands or two dials. The former would be used on all the railways, the latter in domestic and business life. An ingenious modification of the standard or universal time has recently been proposed by Mr. Sandford Fleming, Engineer-in-Chief of the Canadian Pacific Railway, which is worthy of at least a thought. Instead of having the hours counted from noon or midnight of some one meridian, he proposes to designate them by twenty-four letters of the alphabet. Hour A might be made to commence at Greenwich noon, then hour B would mean one o'clock P.M., Greenwich time, C two o'clock, etc. F would then mean Washington noon, and the relation of the lettered hours to the local time of any place would be readily acquired. Ingenious as this suggestion is, we doubt whether the plan would be so readily introduced as would that of adopting the time of some standard meridian. The great drawback would be that the number of hours before a train started could not be so readily determined as by the numbered hours. If, for instance, a traveller was told that a train was to leave at V hours and forty minutes, and found it to be now N hours and fifty minutes, he would have to turn his letters into numbers before knowing how much time he had for business. In justice to Mr. Fleming we must say that his letters are intended partly to do away with the troublesome division of the day into A.M. and P.M., but we cannot help thinking that a continuous numbering of the hours from 0 to 24 would be found more convenient.

WILLIAM FRANCIS BARTLETT.*

THE careers of the professional soldier and of the volunteer generally arouse quite different feelings in our mind. From the days of Sidney and Bayard to those of Havelock there are no finer or more interesting lives than some of those furnished by the profession of arms; in them the interest, as time goes on, is generally heightened by the fact that the military service is not a brief episode of an otherwise peaceful career, but is chosen with all its heavy responsibilities from the outset; that these men face death as others face life, as part of their daily duty. The volunteer is the hero of an hour; he takes great risks for a great occasion, and for his gallantry he is well rewarded in praise that rarely overtakes the professional soldier who merely does his duty from day to day, and he generally is able to retire, after his service is over, to private life with memories of his adventures which grow into pleasant reminiscences as time goes on. Now and then, however—and it was frequently the case in our civil war, which lasted so long and was waged in so deadly a manner as to make veterans of its rawest recruits—we find the two lives of volunteer and professional soldier mingled in one career; the impulse which drives citizens into the trenches being discovered in some one who has by nature the professional temperament and ambition of the soldier. Such a union of qualities ought to produce results of no ordinary character, and in General Bartlett's life they did produce results which no one who is familiar with his short but memorable career will soon forget.

The story told in Mr. Palfrey's pages is a deeply interesting one. The outbreak of the war found General Bartlett a mere boy—a junior at college, not twenty years of age; not fond of hard work or ambitious of college honors; probably, from his biographer's account, regarded as a young man more likely to amuse himself with life than to enter into it seriously for several years to come. On the 17th of April, 1861, he had joined the Fourth Battalion of Massachusetts Volunteers, and by the end of June he had been offered a commission in the Twentieth Massachusetts, then under command of Colonel William Raymond Lee. Early in July he was appointed captain. It was not long before he justified this selection by his coolness and admirable management of his men in the bloody affair at Ball's Bluff, in which his regiment was nearly cut to pieces. Out of twenty-two officers engaged thirteen were reported by Bartlett (as senior officer of those saved) killed, wounded, or missing; out of three hundred and eighteen men, one hundred and forty-six killed, wounded, or missing. The action is graphically described in a letter from Bartlett to his mother. The position attacked was on the further side of the Potomac, and must have been nearly impregnable, being protected by a high, precipitous bluff, washed by the river at its base. The end of the fight he thus describes:

"The field now began to look like my preconceived idea of a battlefield. The ground was smoking and covered with blood, while the noise was perfectly deafening. Men were lying under foot, and here and there a horse struggling in death; coats and guns strewn over the ground in all directions. I went to the colonel, and he was sitting behind a tree, perfectly composed. He told me there was nothing to be done but 'surrender and save the men from being murdered.' Most of the men had now got down the bank. I thought it over in my mind, and reasoned that we might as well be shot advancing on the enemy as to be slaughtered like sheep at the foot of the bank."

He called upon his men for one last rally, and as they reached the top of the bank they came upon two fresh companies of the enemy that had just come out of the woods.

"Both sides were so surprised at seeing each other—they at seeing us coming up with this handful of men, we at seeing these two new companies drawn up in perfect order—that *each side forgot to fire*. And we stood looking at each other (not a gun being fired) for some twenty seconds, and then they let fly their volley at the same time we did."

This fire was too hot to stand against, and they were driven back again down the bank, when he ordered all who could swim to take to the water and escape as they could, while he stayed with those who could not swim, and, expecting rather more to surrender than to escape, started up the river with some eighty men and their officers. On the edge of the river they found a boat under water, which had been already passed by as worthless by a party of officers shortly afterwards taken prisoners, and on this skiff, carrying five at a time, were ferried slowly across to Harrison's Island, whence they made good their retreat to the camp. From the time of this bloody engagement Bartlett's rise was very rapid. The battle had cost his regiment in killed, wounded, and missing its colonel, major, adjutant, assistant-surgeon, four captains, five lieutenants, and a hundred and fifty non-commissioned officers and privates, and left Bartlett the second officer present for duty, in which position he continued during the following six months, while he remained with the regiment in the field. In these six months he made himself "a most efficient and accomplished second officer." As an instance of his conscientious and minute thoroughness at a time when conscientious officers were few and far between, his biographer mentions that he learned even to sound the infantry calls on the bugle.

In 1862 he went through part of the Peninsular Campaign, and on the 24th of April received a wound from a sharpshooter's rifle which cost him his leg. It was amputated four inches above the knee, and he was forced to go home; but on the 6th of September he had so far recovered that he was offered the command of a nine-months regiment, the Forty-ninth Massachusetts. It is a strong proof of the impression which his character made on every one with whom he came in contact that his hold on the men of this regiment, in which the colonelcy was elective, seems to have been as strong as in the Twentieth, where no right of election was recognized. He soon had a larger and more responsible command, being put in charge of a force of several thousand men left behind in New York when General Banks sailed for New Orleans. On the 24th January, 1863, the regiment sailed for New Orleans, and early in the spring the march toward Port Hudson began, a march distinguished for disorder and plunder. There is no more trying position for a good officer than to take part in a campaign in which discipline is not generally enforced, but in which he feels obliged, by a sense of duty, to enforce it on his own men. If he insists on discipline, he is looked upon for the time, not merely by his own men, but by his fellow-officers, as a martinet; if he does not, he knows his force will suffer for it. Colonel Bartlett had little trouble, however, probably because he let it be understood that it was his intention (as he says it was, in a letter) to shoot the first man he found doing it.

On the 27th of May the first disastrous assault on Port Hudson was made. By this time the loss of his leg had caused him a great deal of suffering, but with the aid of an artificial leg he was able to lead his regiment on horseback, and in this ill-fated attack against impregnable fortifications he was obliged to take part, in his own words, mounted "or not at all." From the description of the field, consisting as it did of abattis of felled trees, among which it was almost impossible to move, the attacking troops were doomed to slaughter from the first, and there was certainly little reason to hope that he, the only mounted officer in the assault, would come out of it alive. It will be remembered that at the time the newspapers published a story that the gallantry of a mounted officer slowly leading his men against the works under a pitiless storm of bullets so impressed the Confederate officers that they ordered their men not to fire at him. An extract from a letter from a staff-officer confirms this; but though the orders were no doubt given, the fire was too hot to permit anything like complete safety, and Colonel Bartlett fell from his horse, wounded in the wrist and right foot. He suffered greatly from one of these wounds, but was able when his regiment was mustered out at Pittsfield, in August, to ride at its head with his arm in a sling. Early in 1864 he took command of the Fifty-seventh Massachusetts, in what proved to be his last campaign. With the Ninth corps he crossed the Rappahannock on the 5th of May, and on the next day his regiment went into action and lost two hundred killed and wounded. Notwithstanding the short time he had been in command, his control over his regiment was already established. A regiment was lying in front that would not move. General Hancock ordered him to charge over it. The order was obeyed, he says, "in perfect line." In this fight (the second day of the Wilderness) he was wounded above the right temple, and was forced to go back to Washington. While there he was promoted, at the age of twenty-four, to the rank of brigadier-general. On the 19th of July he went to the front, taking command of a brigade. On the 30th the mine in front of Petersburg was exploded, and his division stormed the enemy's works. The first and second lines were carried, but our troops were driven back from all their positions, leaving Bartlett and a small party of men in the crater of the mine, the two flags flying within seven feet of each other. Here this little remnant of the attacking party fought on, the ammunition on both sides being reduced to bayonets and glass bottles, which were finally resorted to as missiles, until, seeing it was hopeless to continue the fight, and his wooden leg having been crushed to pieces by a lump of earth, he surrendered to General Mahone. Ill and greatly suffering, he was taken to Danville, and thence to Libby Prison, in Richmond, where he remained during the summer. His fate seemed to spare his fortitude no tests, and in Richmond he was subjected to the cruel disappointment of being taken

* 'Memoir of William Francis Bartlett. By Francis Winthrop Palfrey.' Boston: Houghton, Osgood & Co. 1878.

down to the landing to be exchanged, and being brought back a prisoner at night. It was not till the end of September that he was finally exchanged, so ill, as he says in his diary, that he could hardly stand. This was the end of his active service, though he remained in the army until July, 1866.

The wounds which he had received, and particularly the loss of his leg, had already begun to cause him great pain, and the remaining years of his life, though brightened by a happy marriage and the devotion of his friends, was a constant struggle with ever-increasing suffering. His indomitable spirit enabled him to go through, without murmur or complaint, what would to other men have been unbearable. It is gratifying to know that his services and character attracted the attention that they deserved. Office after office in his own State was offered to him; and his excellent speeches and letters on public affairs made his name familiar to the whole country. It is not often that a born soldier has the gift of eloquence, but when he has, the effect of it is more moving than the speech-making of civilians. There was eloquence in the mere presence of General Bartlett, and we doubt whether any one ever heard him make one of his short addresses from the time when, on taking command of the Fifty-seventh Regiment and receiving the colors, he replied to Governor Andrew, "I hope, sir, we shall do the flag more credit in action than we can do ourselves in speech," to his speech at the New England Society's dinner in 1875, without feeling his blood stirred by it.

But his death was already decreed, and was, indeed, probably hastened by his own generosity in giving up a fortune bequeathed to him by a relative and which would have enabled him to abandon work and give his health the care it needed. Reverses in business added to his anxieties, and his suffering from his wounds slowly but surely undermined his constitution. He died on the 17th of December, 1876, at the age of thirty-six.

Among all the officers of the Volunteer army to whom the war brought early distinction and rapid promotion, General Bartlett is conspicuous by his coolness and gallantry, and the beauty of his character. The fatality which attended his military career, as his biographer points out (he was disabled in every action but one in which he took part), prevented his having any opportunity of showing what he could do with a large command; but there can be no doubt that the same qualities which stood him in good stead at Ball's Bluff would have made him an excellent general officer. The major-general's uniform in which he was buried was far more than earned. It is a satisfaction, too, to think that, as time goes on, his name will probably become more rather than less familiar to his countrymen. As the noise and confusion produced by the war dies away, and we think more and more of what we really gained and what we lost by it, the lives of the men who, on the field or in civil life, showed themselves equal to what the occasion demanded will more and more strongly present themselves as the most priceless possessions we can hand down to our children; and among these, if we are not mistaken, General Bartlett's name will hold a very high place. The grief of those who knew and loved him cannot but be tempered by the pride that comes from the conviction that, as long as unflinching courage and modest devotion to duty are respected in America, there is no danger that oblivion will overtake the name of the boyish lieutenant who saved the retreat at Ball's Bluff, or the general officer who led his regiment against the works of Port Hudson on horseback because otherwise he "could not have led it at all."

Walks in London. By Augustus J. C. Hare, author of 'Walks in Rome,' etc. 2 vols. (London: Daldy, Isbister & Co. New York: Geo. Routledge & Sons. 1878.)—Mr. Hare, in attempting to do for London what he had done for Rome, has produced a book that will be found very useful, and that, without having the charm of coloring of the 'Walks in Rome,' will yet appear entertaining and readable even to persons not consulting it on the spot as a guide-book. We must add, however, that the exercise of a little finer sort of art might have made this lively compilation something better than a mere modified itinerary. Mr. Hare's descriptive powers are rather meagre, and he gives his readers fewer pictures by the way than might have been expected from a writer at once minutely familiar with London and addicted to observing the pictorial aspect of things. The author writes, indeed, as if he were but partially familiar with the great city by the Thames—as if, in fact, he had not been much of a walker there. His book has a rather perfunctory and done-to-order air—a quality much less apparent in the volumes of Messrs. Peter Cunningham and John Timbs, whom one feels to be genuine Londoners as well as antiquaries. But if Mr. Hare has "got up" his London, he has got it up very well, and to those American tourists who, on the long spring days, emerge from the by-ways of Piccadilly with an oppressive sense of long distances, accumulated cab-fares, and historic associations, he may be recommended as an edifying companion. About a place that has been so enormously lived in as London there was plenty to be said; the only thing was to gather it together. Mr. Hare has been able to make a great many quotations, for though London has not figured so largely in literature as Rome, yet most English writers, at least, have paid their respects to it in some shape or other. Mr. Hare divides his walks into districts, beginning with Charing Cross and moving thence Cityward. It is in the eastward direction, of course, that associations and memories are thickest—along the line that stretches from Charing Cross to the Tower—and Mr. Hare's first volume, which covers this large expanse, is accordingly the more interesting, though the second contains two very copious and detailed chapters upon Westminster Abbey.

We have not the space here to tread in our author's footsteps, and we are afraid, we confess, that even the very appreciative American sight-seer, proposing to himself to grapple with the great commercial Babylon, will sometimes find his energy failing him. The modern tumult and uproar of the City, the daily press and jostle, are sadly hostile to contemplation. The spirit of historical enquiry is merged in the baser instinct of self-preservation. The love of research must be mighty within you to enable you to hold your ground for the purpose of staring at the front of a house in which a British Classic was born, when a death-dealing hansom-cab is bearing straight down upon you. It is only on Sunday, as Mr. Hare says, that you can really look at the City, and give yourself an idea of what it contains. Then, indeed, in the blank, empty streets, among the closed shops, with only the tall policemen stationed at intervals for landmarks, you may discover how much curious and interesting detail lurks amid the general duskiness and ugliness. It must be added, however, that no one will have a right to accuse you of bad taste if you succumb to the depressing influence of Sunday-morning street scenery. A Sunday's worth of London City vistas is not an entertainment to be lightly recommended. Among other discoveries, on such an occasion, you come to a sense of the very large number of the City churches, and of the fact that some of these structures have a good deal of architectural merit. Most of the time, with the great human tides surging in front of them, and their steeples lost in the week-day smoke and fog, you are hardly aware of their presence. During the Great Fire (in 1666) there was an immense destruction of places of worship, and in the course of the next thirty or forty years there went forward a wholesale building and rebuilding of churches. Sir Christopher Wren alone built more than a hundred. The best that can be said of most of these buildings is that they are of varying degrees of badness. Here and there, however, is a success, as in the case of the beautiful steeple of St. Mary-le-Bow—the famous tower of Bow-bells—which is such an odd mixture of the *baroque* and the conventional, and yet is so light and graceful. Within, some of the older churches—those that escaped the Fire—are rich in curious monuments. It is worth the long pilgrimage from the West End any day to visit such a museum of quaint sepulchral records as St. Helen's, Bishopsgate, or to examine so grand a relic of Norman architecture as St. Bartholomew the Great. We should rank this latter edifice, which forms a part of the mass of buildings of St. Bartholomew's Hospital (itself, in its well-ordered antiquity, well worth a visit), as second only in impressiveness to the Abbey and to St. Paul's. Empty and desolate, yet magnificently solid, it suggests to the visitor, once he stands within it, that he is a hundred miles away from the vulgar industrial bustle of the modern Smithfield on the other side of the door.

Mr. Hare reconstructs in a measure "the great palaces of the Strand"—the noble residences of immense proportions that once edged the water-side of the great westward thoroughfare. As regards the destruction of the last-removed of them (Northumberland House, at Charing Cross), he indulges in something like an imprecation. The present aspect of Charing Cross is certainly most discreditable; but we hardly agree with Mr. Hare that Northumberland House was a great architectural honor to London. It must have seemed to foreign visitors a sad proof of architectural poverty that this low, plain, meagrely-Jacobean structure should have been counted as a gem. The stiff-tailed little lion on top was always amusing; but the building itself did hardly more than contribute its part to the incongruous ineffectiveness of "the finest site in Europe," as Trafalgar Square has been properly enough called. The thought that in the Strand there were once other palaces as large as Somerset House, and that at Whitehall there was a great royal residence, only increases

the shame of what modern London has contrived to make of her naturally magnificent river front. Temple Bar has gone the way of Northumberland House; but it must be confessed that Temple Bar was practically rather a nuisance. It was incontestable that, so far as you could ever stop to look at it—a difficult achievement, in the force of the current beneath it—it was a rather "thin" and unbeautiful piece of antiquity; and at present, in compensation for its disappearance, rises beside its site the mighty pile of the new Inns of Court, which bids fair to be, in mass and general effect, one of the most splendid and imposing modern buildings in Europe. No real lover of London—and London may be sturdily loved—can fail to take satisfaction in the thought that his swarthy metropolitan Dulcinea is at last waking up to some sense of the desirableness of beautifying herself.

That some such process is greatly needed we are vividly reminded as we turn those pages of Mr. Hare's book which treat of the West End. The author is very fond of the adjective "frightful," and in speaking of these regions—regions in which a Baker Street and a Harley Street have become possible—he has frequent opportunity to use it. There is, however, every reason to believe that in regard to architectural dreariness London has touched bottom and done its worst. Harley Street and Baker Street cannot, in their own peculiar way, be surpassed, and it is not likely they will be imitated. London is the most interesting city in the world, and is wonderfully well adapted for becoming the handsomest. The climate, the atmosphere, the manner in which a population of four millions reacts upon the natural local conditions, all contribute to the picturesqueness of the place. Nowhere is there such a play of light and shade, such a confusion of haze and cloud and smoke, such a mystery and variety of perspective. If all this is striking in an ugly London, what would it be in a stately and beautiful one? It will be seen that we speak appreciatively; our appreciation has been quickened by Mr. Hare's full and agreeable volumes

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The Invention of Printing. Illustrated. By Theodore L. De Vinne. Second edition. (New York: Francis Hart & Co. 1878.)—The success of this work is a good sign, for the common art of printing is still an entire mystery even to some of those who most profit by it. The corrections on authors' proofs show incredible ignorance or obliviousness of the fact that the thickness of a type cannot be compressed, and that the width of a line, of a page or column, cannot be expanded. It is not, of course, with matters like these that Mr. De Vinne concerns himself; but any one whose interest he succeeds in awakening will probably desire to see how types are cast, how composed, how stereotyped, and how printed from, and in gratifying himself will learn what it is very useful to know. The present history, however, though thoroughly popular in conception and literary execution, cannot be sold cheaply because of its bulk and its typographical beauty. It is more bulky than it need be to convey all the essential facts, or than it ought to be to make a clear and sharp impression on the memory. But its diffuseness and its elaborate consideration of all the legends that obscure the origin of printing convey at once an idea of fairness and of thoroughness which is certainly captivating to the purchaser, already charmed by the abundance of fac-simile and other illustrations of early printing and printers. Mr. De Vinne's task was in the main a candid compilation from the best authorities, but his conclusions are sometimes legitimately determined by his practical knowledge of the art. In disposing of the Coster legend he rather rashly argues that its falsity "is abundantly established by the dissimilarity of the many engraved likenesses which from time to time have been presented as portraits of Coster"; forgetting that this test would make a myth of Columbus, to cite no other instance.

Mr. De Vinne has revised away a number of doubtful or erroneous statements which disfigured the first edition, but the text still falls somewhat behind the typography in point of accuracy. For example, on p. 89, he adopts unsuspectingly Ottley's translation of an Italian document, which imposes a fine and orders that "one-third shall go to the state, one-third to Giustizieri Vecchi, to whom this affair is committed, and one-third to the accuser." From this the unlearned reader would infallibly infer that "Giustizieri Vecchi" stood for a man's name, instead of meaning a particular tribunal (literally the "old judges") before whom the information was to be laid. As it happens, Mr. De Vinne exposes on p. 91 a blunder the reverse of this, by which a man's name has been confounded with that of his craft. On p. 121 Col. Henry Yule's 'Marco Polo' is ascribed to Henry *Vale*. On p. 233 the title of the block-book 'Ars memorandi notabilis per figuras evangelistarum' is rendered "How to Remember the Evangelists"; but "How to Remember" simply, or "Aids to Memory," is the correct version. Compare the equally famous 'Ars Moriendi,' p. 235. On p. 254, "Donatus pro *puerilis*" is an obvious misprint. On p. 265 there is a reference backwards to "the illustration at the beginning of this chapter," which really stands on the succeeding page; and in the description of it the compartment on the left is spoken of as being on the right. These are trifling blemishes in a work on the whole so acceptable to English readers.

Memorial and Biographical Sketches. By James Freeman Clarke. (Boston: Houghton, Osgood & Co. 1878. 12mo, pp. 434.)—The nineteen essays, articles, sermons, and addresses which make up this volume are marked by the sterling qualities, the common sense, manliness, earnestness, and tenderness which have given Dr. Clarke his enviable reputation in his native city and State. The volume, as might be expected of an eminent clergyman, is of special interest to the author's own denomination; nearly half the papers are devoted to memorials of prominent Unitarians, such as Dr. Freeman, Dr. Gannett, Dr. Channing, Theodore Parker, Dr. S. G. Howe, and Gov. Andrew. There are also some interesting personal reminiscences of his residence in Louisville—George Keats (brother of the poet), Dr. Breckinridge, the elder Booth, and Geo. D. Prentice; and three articles upon subjects of more general interest, Washington, Shakspere, and Rousseau. The best piece in the volume, as it is the longest, is that upon Gov. Andrew, a parishioner and intimate friend of Mr. Clarke. It is after all but a brief sketch, but it brings back to the mind most sadly what we all felt at the time of his death, and what his pastor expressed in his funeral sermon—that he was "the one man whom it seems as if we *could not* spare, because the *one man* to whom this whole distracted, divided, betrayed nation could look in any coming hour of danger as a leader in whom all might unite, North and South, East and West, Radicals and Conservatives" (p. 56). And this because he occupied and would have continued to occupy a middle position—not of compromise, but of harmonizing; because more than any other man he united the strength and calmness of conservatism with the sympathetic ardor of radicalism. The closing paper, upon William Hull, the grandfather of the author, is a pleasant sketch of the life of a man whose name will always be associated with disgrace, but whose career as a whole is here shown to have been an honorable and even in some respects a brilliant one. Whether he can be fully exonerated from blame in his surrender of Detroit or not, it is well to be thus reminded of his earlier services. This first disaster of the war, coming with a shock upon the overweening confidence of a young nation, impressed itself upon the popular imagination far more than any subsequent defeats; just as Bull Run, in the war of the rebellion, for a time covered a meritorious soldier with something akin to disgrace.

Elements of Geology: A Text-book for Colleges and for the general reader. By Joseph Le Conte. (New York: D. Appleton & Co. 1878.)—Nearly all that can be said in favor of a text-book may be said of this, for in it the author has given us a laborious compilation of the well-established facts of the science of which it treats, as well arranged as such heterogeneous matters can be, the whole informed by the broad spirit of a naturalist who has done that share of personal research which is necessary to give a writer the capacity for judgment in such matters. There is, moreover, throughout the work a certain stamp of individuality which without often giving it too much personality yet relieves it a little of the dictionary flavor which is the common quality of most such works.

In the details of this text-book, as in all such works, each special student will find abundant ground for criticism. Many matters which are still in debate are given with a little too much affirmation, and a good many important opinions are not presented at all. In the account of glacial motion, for instance, no reference is made to the important hypothesis of James Croll concerning the cause of such motion. The phenomena of erosion and deposition are treated with rather less completeness than their importance justifies or the good work of investigators would seem to require. These slight defects are, it is fair to say, more than compensated by the really admirable way in which some important matters that have hardly had a place in such books are presented. The accounts of Sorby's researches into the microscopic structure of rocks, of geyser action, of earthquakes, and of many other matters, are very models of condensation, completeness, and accuracy. The part of the book devoted to palæontology is less satisfactory than that which concerns the physical history of the globe. This defect is common to all the best text-books on the subject, as it in good part arises from the difficulties that beset all efforts to make a brief presentation of any subject depending as much

on matters of detail as do these relations among animals of successive periods.

The illustrations are abundant, and more than usually original, or from books not hitherto drawn upon. The only objection that can be raised against them is that in certain cases the illustrations of physical geology are neither diagrammatic nor entirely graphic, but mix the two qualities so that the student would be puzzled to say how much was from nature and how much interpretation.

It may be fairly said that this work makes the third of the really good manuals of general geology in the English, or it may even be said in any, language; for, while filling a place of its own, it is up to the level of Dana's great manual or the third edition of Jukes's admirable book. But when he has said this, every well-wisher of geology who knows its best interests will be inclined to protest against that over-use of such books which their very excellence is sure to bring about. Neither learning nor literary skill will serve to relieve them of the disproportion, the want of perspective, the coarse sense of certainty, which they inevitably give to the facts of the science. They cannot be otherwise than great heaps of facts which may be learned to the letter without giving the student the very least of the true good of the science. Unless used with great care—with a care that is almost never given—they lead the student straight away from the road of enquiry which is the only true scientific path. They tend to fill our schools with teachers who, knowing absolutely nothing of research, sit with their fingers between the leaves of a *good text-book* and confidently expound the universe. Half a hundred years of experiment with such farcical teaching of science will do more to set the world against it than all the resistance that ancient beliefs can arouse. If it is used only as a *vade mecum* by the student who seeks the body of the science in the facts themselves, or in monographic works, such a book can be of great help. We regret that the one before us does not contain references to original authorities on the various subjects treated in its pages, for they would, to a certain extent, help to lead the student into the science by suggesting the real breadth of the field that has been tilled by investigators in this department.

Behaving; or, Papers on Children's Etiquette. By the author of 'Ugly Girl Papers.' (Boston: D. Lothrop & Co.)—This is a sensible and honest little book, which exhorts young America to decency and depicts his (and her) barbarisms of behavior vividly. There is hardly anything in the book to find fault with, save some provincialism of language and uncomfortably vague views on the use of the verb *come, e. g.*, "walk right away," "*come* to think," "no ribbon *come* untied." The chapter on "Little Gentlemen" is very good, but one stands aghast at the condition of things implied by such directions as are here given. It is as if in a book addressed to practical builders the author should affectionately urge them to get the walls of a room as nearly as possible at right angles with its floor, or should beg them just to try once and see what advantages there are in building chimneys hollow. An active and permitted resistance to the simplest principles which make human society possible is implied as the normal condition of American children.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Authors.—Titles.	*Publishers.—Prices.*
Clifton Picture: a Tale	(J. B. Lippincott & Co.)
Dufferin (Lord), Letters from High Latitudes, new ed.	(R. Worthington) $1 50
Holly (H. H.), Modern Dwellings in Town and Country	(Harper & Bros.)
Hugo (V.), Le Pape, swd.	(F. W. Christern)
Huntington (W. S.), Road-Master's Assistant, revised ed.	(*Railroad Gazette*)
Huntington (Rev. F. D.), Fitness of Christianity to Man	(Thomas Whittaker) 75
James (H., jr.), Watch and Ward: a Tale	(Houghton, Osgood & Co.) 1 25
Klemm (L. R.), Geschichte der Deutschen Literatur	(Henry Holt & Co.)
Liddell & Scott's Greek English Lexicon, 6th ed.	(Harper & Bros.)
" " abridged, 17th ed.	" " "
Meehan (T.), Native Flowers and Ferns of the United States, Parts 1 and 2, swd.	(L. Prang & Co.)
Ratzel (Dr. F.), Die Vereinigten Staaten von Nord-Amerika, Vol I., sd.	(B. Westermann & Co.)
Sauveur (L.), Vade Mecum of the Latinist, swd.	(Henry Holt & Co.)
Savage (Rev. M. J.), Bluffton: a Tale	(Lee & Shepard) 1 50

Fine Arts.

MÉRYON AND HIS WORK.

MR. FREDERICK WEDMORE, whose interesting book, entitled 'Studies in English Art,' has been reviewed in these columns,* contributes to the current number of the *Nineteenth Century* an article entitled "Méryon and Méryon's Paris." This is just so far a misnomer that little is to be found in it about the beautiful and the picturesque buildings which the Second Empire thought itself bound to sweep away, and which Méryon lamented and tried to commemorate. But the article otherwise is interesting, and contains valuable information. The author has felt himself more free to relate the sad and strange incidents in the life of his hero than previous writers have been. When Mr. Philippe Burty published in the *Gazette des Beaux Arts* his well-known essay and catalogue, Méryon was living. He had recently left Charenton; his friends hoped and believed that he was restored to perfect reason and health and to years of happy work. When Mr. Hamerton was printing 'Etching and Etchers,' in 1867–8, Méryon was once again an inmate of the asylum, and his sad life was nearly at an end. These admirers and critics could hardly write freely of his character and life, and, although he had long been dead when Mr. Hamerton's second edition was published, two years ago, there was no sufficient reason for changing the nature of the previously published essay, which had to do chiefly with the characteristic merits of the etchings, and only indirectly with their author. Mr. Wedmore writes more fully and more freely of the man; he is familiar with his more important work as well, and enthusiastic in his admiration of it, so that his paper is well worth reading. But it is to be regretted that a biographical and critical essay, otherwise so good, and in spite of all so useful, should be nearly spoiled by being written in a most unfortunate style; in the worst of styles—that which lacks simplicity and directness. It is perhaps not affected, though it seems to be. Perhaps the peculiarities that annoy us so much are natural weeds, and need only plucking up, instead of carefully-nurtured exotics.

Charles Méryon was born in 1821, and died in 1868, in the *maison de santé* at Charenton, leaving behind him about one hundred etchings as the chief, and perhaps the only, result of his splendid gifts and of his forty-seven years of life. It is very probable that some drawings remain never used in his engraved work; but what a lover of art means when he says *Méryon* is a little lot of small etchings, of which about twenty-five are much more important than the rest. All but one or two of these twenty-five are architectural studies, the greater number being views in Paris, first drawn in 1850 and the next year or two, and engraved soon afterwards. He entered the naval school at Brest at an early age, and there received some instruction in drawing. He was commissioned in 1842, and sent on board the corvette *Le Rhin*, which had been detached for a long cruise in the Pacific to protect French commerce and whale-fisheries there, and perhaps to explore and to make scientific observations. At New Zealand, New Caledonia, and other places the young *enseigne de vaisseau* had opportunities for making drawings of scenes and objects which interested him. These opportunities he improved, and twenty years afterwards a few of these drawings reappeared in etchings. In 1847, soon after his return to France, he resigned his commission and undertook the formal study of art. In 1848 there was exhibited in Paris a cartoon of his for a large painting. At about the same time he learned the technical processes of engraving, and it seems that he became aware that he could not hope to excel as a painter, that he was even deficient in the power of judging aright of color; that his work as an artist must be in form, or in light-and-shade, or in both. So that, in 1853, when his first important etching was made, he had fairly abandoned the one branch of art for the other, and from that time forth may be considered as having found, at thirty-two, his true vocation, and as needing nothing to make him the greatest original engraver of his time except employment and sympathy, or, in default of these, so much robustness of nature as would enable him to work cheerfully on in despite of neglect and poverty.

What were his first attempts at engraving is of little moment. The print alluded to above is entitled "L'Arche du Pont Notre Dame," and is as well known as any of Méryon's works, none of which are common. It shows in the immediate foreground the heavy abutments and dark archway of a bridge, through which as through a frame are seen the *Pont-au Change* and the towers of the *Palais de Justice*. We have thought it well to ascertain what prints of the master can be found and examined in New York, at least, by those who are willing to take exactly as much trouble as it will involve to visit the museums of the future. The print under consideration can be seen at "Goupil's," in Fifth Avenue, and at Mr. Wunderlich's rooms in Broadway. The copy of a part of it, contained in the second edition of Mr. Hamerton's book, loses much from the combined effects of copying and cutting down, and is not to be cited as an example for study. In this year, 1853, were etched—first, the print named above; second, "Le Stryge" (the vampire), one of the grotesque stone demons who sit upon a lofty gallery of the Cathedral and contemplate Paris, taken by Méryon as the spirit of lust, a point which Mr. Hamerton seems to miss; third, "La Galerie Notre Dame," a splendid piece, a view of the interior of the Gothic arcade, high up on the towers of the church, with the distant buildings along the Seine and beyond,

* The *Nation*, Vol. xxiv., p. 17.

seen between the columns; fourth, "Le Pont Neuf"; fifth, "Le Petit Pont, en 1850," which, though not dated, seems to be of this year (1853); and sixth, a print which was used long afterward in the *Fine Arts Quarterly*, "Rue des Toiles, Bourges." These etchings were printed by Méryon himself, or by Delâtre, who had not yet left Paris for London, and offered for sale, without any announcement of a series of views of Paris, in which, however, all but the last were destined to be included. Of the above-named prints several are to be seen in New York; the second, third, fifth, and last at Wunderlich's; and the third at Keppel's, in Broadway, opposite the Park. To describe and distinguish the "states" would take more space than we can give. All are worthy of study, and all are rare enough to be looked for eagerly. Of all Méryon's coppers only a half-dozen exist; the greater number, and nearly all the fine ones, were destroyed by the artist himself.

In the next year, 1854, were engraved about twelve plates of the Paris set, some of them full-sized views, and others quaint little *culs de lampe* and head-pieces. Of the larger views several are to be seen in New York; the "Pompe Notre Dame" at Sabin's, in Nassau Street, in an early unpublished state; and at Wunderlich's, in the published state, with title; the "Pont au Change" and the "Eglise St. Étienne du Mont" at Wunderlich's. The little bits are either much more scarce or are considered less desirable by the New York dealers, for they are seldom seen. If some future Loan Exhibition includes a worthy show of modern prints, it would probably be possible to make a nearly complete collection of Méryon's work, and that would be the occasion for careful criticism.

In 1855 the artist did less. Discouragement must have begun to limit and confine his power of work, never, it would seem, very great. The sale of his etchings was confined to a few personal friends and the not numerous buyers whom they could influence. Of the many dealers of Paris none would buy the etchings, and no patronage or reward reached him from the Government. In 1856 he etched one or two portraits, and the splendid San Francisco, which was an order from two French bankers resident in that city, and was a composition made up from photographic views. The plate of this exists, and copies can always be had. Soon after this time his discouragement and weak health, together, began to break down his reason. In 1858 he was taken to Charenton; but it seems that a short residence there was so beneficial that he was at work again in 1859, and in that and the following years he worked for bread. He copied drawings, he executed portraits, he made illustrations for various books, and began to reproduce in etching the sketches of New Zealand and other South-Sea subjects, made fifteen years before. After he had produced a half-dozen of these last, he designed a cover to contain them; an odd title, enclosed in a fantastic border: "Diverses Pièces Gravées; Collecte, Gain, Butin de Course et de Chasse: Faits au mouillage et à la Mer, pendant le Voyage à la Nouvelle Zélande accompli de MDCCCXLII. à XLVI. sur le Navire *Rhin*, sous les ordres de Mr. le Capitaine de Vaisseau (mort Contre-Amiral en 1852), A. Bérard, commandant la Station à Akaroa, Presqu'île de Banks. 1866." These South Sea pieces are interesting but far from adequate specimens of Méryon's art. In 1864 was etched one print with the old feeling for picturesque Paris: "Bain-Froid Chévrier, dit de l'École," a view of the *Pont Neuf*, with the quays and the statue of Henri IV. beyond, and the floating-bath on the right. This was exhibited at the Salon of 1865, and the same year there appeared in the publication of the old *Société des Aqua-Fortistes* another etching of the same character, "Le Ministère de la Marine." This print, with its fantastical figures, on earth and in the air, is to be seen at several of the shops. With health, and a measure of pecuniary success, the old task might have been resumed, and a series of architectural etchings produced which would have been unequalled and unapproached, but it was too late. After another year of desultory and nearly fruitless effort Méryon became once again an inmate of Charenton, where he died early in 1868.

Time must elapse before an adequate analysis and judgment of the whole body of his work will be possible. The extraordinary praise awarded to it by the French critics, their reiterated ascription to Méryon of the first place among modern etchers, the rank of "maître incontesté" claimed for him by the very same men who have made famous not only the French etchers but Haden and Edwards and other Englishmen—all this is to be weighed, and the force of such competent criticism fully admitted, but it is not to be accepted without consideration. There are awkward, ungainly, unskilful passages in Méryon's work. As a landscape draughtsman he was not highly accomplished; the studies of pure landscape can never satisfy one who knows the best landscapes of Rembrandt or Haden. The chief, the unequalled thing in Méryon's etchings is their unity, their perfect artistical harmony—a charm which grows on the student with every day of familiarity with these wonderful designs. Compared with this rarest of virtues, all the defects of these prints are as nothing. Imperfect draughtsmanship, exaggerated depth of shadow, insufficient technical skill, disappear from the beholder's mind after a moment has elapsed, and nothing remains evident but the perfect beauty of the designs. More skilful work is common; equally artistic work is almost wholly unknown to our time. The exact rank of these etchings in the whole hierarchy of art it is hard to fix, and we do not try here to assert it. They are certain to hold one of the highest ranks for ever.

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, JUNE 27, 1878.

The Week.

CONGRESS adjourned at 7 o'clock on Thursday morning. Its last hours were marked by the usual reckless legislation, indecent haste, and disorder. The House, either not able or not content to pass the Senate bill in relation to greenbacks, passed that portion of it which makes them receivable for customs dues after October 1. When this reached the Senate, Mr. Voorhees succeeded in getting it read once, when objections were made to its further reading under the rules, and so the measure fell dead for the session. Another measure designed to make capital for its originator was a pension-grab bill, introduced by Mr. Haskell, of Kansas, which would have cost the Treasury upwards of $30,000,000. It passed the House by 161 to 62, but was smothered in the Senate. The same fate overtook a Post-Route Bill, identical with the Senate's, but with the jobs cut out. Mr. Thurman's bill for auditing the Pacific Railroad accounts was made law, and the Fisheries Award was voted as a part of the Sundry Civil Appropriation Bill. The Omnibus Bill was enrolled under such pressure that an urgent appropriation in regard to the Government property at Hot Springs, Arkansas, was omitted. Of the Enrolling Committee, only Mr. Rainey, the colored member from South Carolina, was able to perform its duties, and he labored with praiseworthy diligence and endurance.

The adjournment of Congress was followed by an advance in United States bonds in London as well as in New York, owing to the prospect that the country will have a respite for a few months at least from discreditable legislation, and that no more available securities can be had for the employment of money that would be idle until autumn, and that cannot be lent on call in other ways above 2 to 2½ per cent. The bill to cut off the entire coin revenue of the United States Treasury by making import duties payable in legal-tender notes fortunately failed to become a law. There is cause for satisfaction in the fact that small savings are going to a large extent into the United States 4 per cents, for in proportion as these bonds are widely distributed there will be more general resistance to the repudiationists. It is not at all satisfactory, however, that the price of silver has fallen during the week to 52¾*d.* per ounce in London, and that at the close of the week the new silver dollar, in which United States bonds are payable, principal and interest, possessed a bullion value of less than 89 cents gold ($0.8894).

Among the smaller but meaner offences of the late Congress, for which Republicans, especially in the Senate, were as much to blame as the Democrats, was the refusal to vote $8,000 for the expenses of the Commission sent by President Hayes to Louisiana, the money having been previously advanced by a bank. Everybody must admit that the President, having to decide which of two claimants was the real government of the State, could not do it without enquiry on the spot; and as he could not make this enquiry himself, he deputed a body of very well qualified agents to do it, who served without pay. The result of their labors was that the Legislature abandoned Packard and went over to Nicholls, which we believe to have been one of the most fortunate things that has ever happened; but it has made many Republicans furious, and they show it in what is at best a bit of petty spite. We believe the members of the Commission stand and have always stood ready to pay their own expenses, and one of them has sent in his check for his share; but Mr. Sherman has refused to receive it, on the ground that Congress will probably yet vote the amount, and if not, the President will pay it out of his own pocket.

The Potter Committee has occupied itself with the testimony of Mr. and Mrs. T. H. Jenks, of Louisiana, a couple of adventurers whose mode of living is well expressed in the husband's statement concerning his wife, that she was "kind of prominent among the politicians there, and took some interest in politics; she knew all the leading politicians down there." Mr. Jenks was one of the witnesses whom Mr. Sherman desired to produce to prove intimidation, and his testimony was to the effect that the Republicans of East Feliciana were thoroughly intimidated into not voting, that Anderson took pay of the Democrats for signing the returns, and wanted to disavow a protest he had signed. He denied all knowledge of the Sherman letter till January last. Mrs. Jenks is perhaps also to be considered Mr. Sherman's witness. Her story, recited with calculated dramatic effect and with the playful impudence of a female lobbyist, is as follows: That Weber had told her that Anderson wanted guarantees for adhering to the cause, and that they had written a letter to Secretary Sherman demanding some; that Weber entrusted her with it to deliver; that, not finding Mr. Sherman in the hotel-parlor, she "quite unconsciously" bit open the letter, mastered the contents, and concluded to suppress it; that she then, in a room occupied by other persons not named, including some of the "visiting statesmen," "dictated" a suppositious reply, which was signed with the Secretary's name; that this being enclosed in an envelope she delivered it to Weber at his hotel, and congratulated herself that by thus fooling him and Anderson she had "maintained the dignity of the party." She would not admit that she actually wrote the letter, nor tell who did, and she coquettishly defied the Committee to make her. Ex-Marshal Pitkin testified in contradiction of Anderson on sundry points, but of greater interest was his statement that he had informed Senator Conkling of the nature of Anderson's papers, at a time when he (Pitkin) was angry with the Administration on account of his dismissal; and his admission that Republican witnesses were brought to New Orleans in shoals by his deputies at the expense of the Government, to testify before the Returning Board, while the Democrats had to pay for their own witnesses. He did, however, only what he was required to do by law in deference to the superior orders of the Chief U. S. Supervisor of Elections.

It may be said of all the oral evidence taken as yet in the Louisiana investigation that it is untrustworthy. Anderson was not credible on oath; neither is "Captain" Jenks nor his interesting wife, Mrs. Agnes D. Jenks, nor Congressman Darrall. Neither will the estimable Kellogg be, when he comes to be examined, nor Packard, nor Pinchback, nor any of them. Nobody of any party seriously believes or has believed or would believe a word they say. When Jenks contradicts Anderson, but admits that he has long been his intimate friend, it makes one laugh. And so when Mrs. Jenks says she wrote the so-called Sherman letter, we are still in as much doubt as ever whether any such letter is or was ever in existence. No rational person spends a minute trying to reconcile their stories. If they had produced no documents the time spent on them would have been wholly wasted. What the investigation is doing is not fastening guilt on any person not hitherto suspected, or revealing any flaw in the President's title, but letting the world know what kind of people they were who had charge of the State government and worked the political machine from 1868 to last year. To say that their manners and morals, and the stories they tell of each other, read like a little chapter of jail-yard gossip, and that every one of them ought to be in the penitentiary, is putting the case mildly. It is no exaggeration to say that it was an awful thing to have left the government of a civilized community in such hands so long, and lamentable and alarming that the scamps should have been able to palm themselves off so long on good people at the North as suffering friends of the black man.

Another little circumstance, but a very important one, the futile character of the investigation must not lead us to forget. What has kept up the trouble and dissatisfaction about the President's title, and given color to the attacks on it, is the fact that his friends, the Visiting Statesmen, who went down to Florida and Louisiana to see that the count was fair, were bound to act judicially, but did not do so. They were bound to see that whoever got the Presidency he got it in a manner that would satisfy the whole people; and for this purpose they ought to have avoided the position of prompters or advocates of the Returning Boards, and ought to have acted in harmony and conjunction with the representatives of the Democrats. They did none of these things, but "worked" night and day to get the Presidency for their own man. After having got it, they ought to have as religiously refused any reward for their exertions as if they had awarded it on the judicial bench, and Mr. Hayes ought to have religiously refrained from giving them anything; instead of which every man of them took anything he could get, thus creating the suspicion that when they were watching the count which discredited hands were making they were really looking after their own fortunes. It is this which has kept the question alive, and filled the country with strife and misgiving, and it was neither moral nor decent nor judicious. It is very disagreeable also to find Mr. Sherman's perceptions so blunt that he thinks he can justify himself by showing that there was violence at the election in East Feliciana. He might almost as well try to set himself right after having taken a large present from a plaintiff in whose favor he had given judgment on the bench, by offering to bring one hundred witnesses to show that the defendant was a bad fellow. The assertion, therefore, that his character is a sufficient answer to the charges against him is mere gabble. It would have been if Wells, Anderson & Co., when they were throwing out votes, and when he was writing a glowing eulogy on them, were not really giving him the Secretaryship of the Treasury.

One of the gloomiest of the Pessimists tries to meet our ridicule of the alarm about civil war by producing "an editor out in Indiana" who is furious because Congress has refused to impugn the President's title. But we never said that there were no editors ready for civil war. On the contrary we have never doubted that if all the wars projected, promoted, or predicted by this martial body of men had really been waged, the civilized world would now be a waste place. Moreover, if they were more numerous, and found a leader worthy of them, they would probably enter on a career of conquest which would give Jenghis Khan, by comparison, the air of a philanthropist. "Heureusement," as Marshal Bugeaud said of the British infantry, "il n'y en a pas beaucoup." A muscular and wiry sheriff in each county is sufficient to protect mankind against their ruthless ambition. The real danger of bloodshed just now lies in a different direction. The relations between Gail Hamilton on the one side and Mr. Carl Schurz and the Rev. James Freeman Clarke on the other are now, as every one must have observed, exceedingly strained; the situation around Constantinople presents nothing like them. Nothing but extreme prudence on the part of these gentlemen can prevent a collision at any moment, and should such a thing occur, we should be plunged in a crisis the like of which has not been seen since Mrs. Julia Ward Howe "declared war against Bismarck" in 1870. Moreover, there would be too much reason to fear that Matilda Fletcher and Judge Hilton, hearing the sound of the guns, would rush into hostilities also, and then we confess our Government would be in real peril.

Mr. Schurz has drawn up a circular with regard to campaign assessments which has, it is said, been adopted by the President as a guide for all the executive departments and Government bureaus throughout the country. In this the employee is first reminded that he receives his salary not as a member of a political party, but for "certain services rendered"; that this salary "belongs" to him, and, unless taxed by law, is "in no sense subject to any assessment for any object whatever," the only return expected being a faithful performance of his duties. And here the Secretary calls his attention to the provision of the Revised Statutes that executive officers and employees of the Government

"are prohibited from requesting, giving to, or receiving from any other officer or employee of the Government any money or property or other thing of value for political purposes; and any such officer or employee who shall offend against the provisions of this section shall be at once discharged from the service of the United States, and he shall also be deemed guilty of a misdemeanor, and on conviction thereof shall be fined a sum not exceeding $500."

In the second place, he is informed that he is as free as any other citizen to spend his "spare money" in any legitimate way he pleases, and as his "political principles" or "public spirit" may suggest, provided the law is not violated; and, third, that his "contributing or not contributing" will not affect in any manner his "official standing or prospects" in the Interior Department. This is as strong as the most ardent civil-service reformer could desire, and we have no doubt that in Mr. Schurz's department it will be acted upon to the letter. In some of the others we fear that the carrying of the fall elections will seem to the Secretaries more important than "doctrinaire" views about conducting the Government on "business principles."

Nothing more amusing in the way of stump-oratory has been heard for a long while than Judge West's latest speech to the Ohio Republicans. The judge was their candidate for the governorship last year, and filled them and the whole country with consternation and secured his own defeat at the polls by coming out as a blatant Communist and sympathizer with the strikers. He solemnly denied that he had ever owned any bank stock or Government bonds, evidently wishing it to be understood that he considered a man who had put his savings in bank stock or Government bonds a disreputable person, and he went so far as to demand the legal regulation of the wages of railroad employees, and, if we remember rightly, of mill and mining operatives. In fact, as well as one could make out, there was hardly any scheme of social reform conceived by a tramp by his evening fire, when full of stolen chicken and whiskey, that this worthy jurist would not have backed up. He now says, with a touch of impudent humor, that "last year some of us were for Paul, some for Silas, some for Cæsar, but mighty few for Christ." He then—the sorry wag that he is—blackguards the Democrats for binding the hands of the Executive power of the nation in its police force, thereby inviting a repetition of the revolutionary scenes that we witnessed last year, "which in God's name," says he, "may we never see again." "Here's richness," as Mr. Squeers justly remarked. He also reprehended the Ohio Democrats for demanding that "a Socialistic organization, productive and distributive, should be established by the national Government," and was very severe upon all who encourage "turbulent spirits." What should be done with politicians like the judge it would be impossible to say without a commission of enquiry. Like the tramps and Communists, they constitute a problem in themselves.

The Iowa Republican platform "demands" that every qualified elector, not in Iowa only but in all parts of the Union, shall vote "undisturbed by force and unawed by fear" at the place appointed by law—once but not more than once—and that every person elected to an office shall be freely inducted into it, and effectively supported in the discharge of its duties; but declares that in five Southern States this desirable state of things does not exist. It also affirms that the Republican party stands pledged, through the recent amendments to the Constitution of the United States, to "the *complete* protection of all citizens in *all* their *civil*, *political*, *personal*, and *property* rights," which seems to indicate that in the opinion of the Iowa Republicans the United States courts have concurrent jurisdiction with the State courts, and that any cause, civil or criminal, can be tried in them, and that the distinction created in the Constitution,

previous to the adoption of the late amendments, between the powers bestowed on the Union and those reserved by the States, has by these amendments been completely obliterated, the recent decisions of the Supreme Court to the contrary notwithstanding. Now, when we consider that this platform was drawn by native Americans, and not by Frenchmen, and by educated Americans, and not by rude Crackers or Pikes, and was produced in one of the most intelligent States in the Union, it must be pronounced an amazing document and one well calculated to set people thinking. We think it would be well worth the while of some person of means who is interested in reform to offer $1,000 as a contribution to the campaign fund of the Republican party in any State which is dissatisfied with the President's "policy," or with the present condition of affairs at the South, on condition that the Convention will state clearly and exactly in its platform what it would like to have done at the South, either in the form of legislation or administration. If the malcontents or "stalwarts," as they are called, would draw up a paper containing, not "wind of doctrine," but a programme capable of enactment by Congress and execution by the President, it would clear the brains of thousands and put new life into politics.

After chastising the Democrats, and giving the President a sharp hit for his comparison of the North and South to "Greeks," the platform eulogizes the soldiers, but passes the sailors over in ominous silence; condemns "lawlessness in whatever form" and "the organized raid on the Treasury" to secure payment of rebel war-claims; demands a tariff for revenue; praises the financial administration of the Republican party; denounces attempts to assail the President's title, and ascribes the abandonment of the Potter attempt on it to "the firm attitude of the Republicans"; calls loudly for "good men" in office; approves of "personal temperance," of rigid economy, and of honesty and efficiency. There is, however, not one word in the whole platform against lying or unchastity.

There has been a good deal of commotion during the past fortnight in "municipal circles" over the indictment of fifteen aldermen of this city for permitting the erection of "obstructions" in the streets. This is an offence prohibited by the charter, and the indictment found against the aldermen is based on an ordinance or vote passed by them allowing the erection of a news-stand at the corner of two of our "leading thoroughfares." Judge Barrett has now quashed the indictment on the ground chiefly that inasmuch as a news-stand is not necessarily an "obstruction" or nuisance, the mere passage of a vote authorizing the erection of one may not be in any way illegal, and partly that the Recorder misdirected the Grand Jury as to the law. It cannot be said that this last attempt to improve the government is encouraging. There is no more patent and notorious fact than that the streets of New York are full of illegal obstructions of all kinds; yet the first test case that is brought is so wretchedly mismanaged that the indictment is quashed at the outset. Judge Barrett has, *à propos* of this, some very judicious remarks in his opinion, on the subject of bringing criminal process into contempt by resorting to it on trivial occasions.

We have more news from Europe about the prospects of the International Silver Conference. M. Victor Bonnet, the well-known French economist, has an article in the *Revue des Deux Mondes*, in which he makes fun in a most offensive way of the greatest financier on this planet, Senator John P. Jones of Nevada, and goes on to protest against France taking any part in the Conference, as no good can come of it, the Latin Union having already repudiated the double standard in principle. "In truth," says he, "the invitation is very credulous or very presumptuous. Credulous if one supposes that upon a question so long debated among ourselves, and which is in these days subjected to experiments, light is to come to us all of a sudden from beyond the Atlantic; or presumptuous if it be thought that the example of the United States will suffice to drag in other nations and pledge them to do the contrary of what they wish to do." M. Bonnet has evidently not read Mr. Halstead's "sixteen silver articles a day," or heard the stirring notes of the Medill trumpet, and is probably not aware that Mr. Groesbeck has pronounced the adoption of the double standard a perfectly simple matter. The best thing remains to be told, however. The *Economist* reports that "in well-informed circles in London" it is said that the American envoy has urged on the notice of the British Government the magnitude of the vote by which Congress went back to the double standard in support of the proposal that England shall change her whole monetary system. We have no doubt the "well-informed circles" smiled a good deal over this. Even here, in New York, the news that multitudes of Congressmen favor a financial measure only causes alarm and anxiety. It is hardly likely to cause any emotion in London so respectable as fear. A nation which laughs at John P. Jones is not likely to have reverence enough to listen in a proper spirit to the majority of the House of Representatives.

The Italians have at last achieved a surplus after wandering in the wilderness for sixteen years. The revenue this year exceeds the expenditure by $2,000,000, and it is proposed to make nearly $5,000,000 reduction in the taxes. The Government rentes have accordingly risen eight per cent. on the quotations of last year, fifteen per cent. on those of 1873, and twenty-three per cent. on those of 1870. In other words, the Italian bondholder has now become "bloated" to an extraordinary degree, and it must seem to many of our financiers as if some plan of cheating him would now surely engage the attention of Italian statesmen. Why should the bondholder make twenty-three per cent. on his investment when the wages of the poor man and the soldier's pension remain as low as ever?

The full text of the preliminary agreement between Russia and England has been published, and it shows the substantial accuracy of the version which first appeared in the London *Globe*. It foreshadows the division of Bulgaria which is now said to have been finally agreed on at the Congress—that is, a semi-independent Bulgaria proper north of the Balkans; and a Rumelia, with a Christian governor and an administration like that of the British colonies, south of the Balkans, the governor to be named with the acquiescence of the Powers for a term of five or ten years. The Memorandum substantially, though not formally, concedes the withdrawal of the Turkish troops from the latter as well as the former, with simple privilege of re-entry in case of insurrection or invasion. The scheme as it thus stood was so very like that provided by the Treaty of San Stefano, and so completely disposed of the Turkish Empire in Europe, that it seems to have filled the Tories with consternation. Acting on this hint, Lord Beaconsfield has been making desperate, and it is reported successful, efforts to have the Turks allowed to hold and fortify the Balkan passes, and his organs are giving out that this is a crushing blow for Russia. But if the Music Hall people can be imposed on in this way they are simpler in their liquor than they were supposed to be. If Sofia, as is reported, is to form part of the northern principality, the passes will not be worth holding, as they can be turned at any moment. But even if Sofia is retained in Rumelia, with a growing Christian province south of the mountains, and an independent Servia on their flank, and a hostile Bulgaria and Rumania on their front, the Turkish occupation of the passes will be a mere sham, like the garrisoning of Belgrade, and they would probably be evacuated as soon as another war broke out. Russia gets Batum and Bessarabia, and, in fact, yields in nothing but in details in which she was undoubtedly always ready to yield. She is to occupy Rumelia and Bulgaria for six or nine months longer. But Lord Beaconsfield seems to have been waving his arms and shouting a good deal, Blaine-fashion, in the Congress. The chances of Greece for an extension of her front er improve.

THE CAUSES OF CONGRESSIONAL FAILURE.

THE Congress which has just gone home has retired amidst the maledictions of the Republican press and the very faint apologies of the Democratic press. According to the former, it was the worst Congress that has ever met, and the latter has really nothing to say for it that is worth saying. In the world outside politics—the business world, for instance—it has been regarded as a severe national affliction, sent for some wise but inscrutable purpose, and its adjournment has been hailed as a great relief. If we apply to its performances the very conclusive test of asking in what respect the country would have suffered if it had never met, we find that beyond question its meeting was at least useless, and that we should probably have been far better off than we are now if it had sat for one week only, and spent this in passing the appropriation bills. But then this is an old story. We make bold to say that the adjournment of every Congress since 1868 has been throughout the country a subject of great congratulation, and that that of 1868 would have been no exception to the rule if Andrew Johnson had not been considered by a large number of good people a dangerous person who needed to be watched by the legislature, and if it had not given the finishing touches to the process of Reconstruction. Since then legislation and attempts at legislation have been a weariness to the country and a great obstruction to business, mitigated solely by the reductions made in the internal-revenue taxation. Not that legislation is not needed and that great changes in the modes of administration as well as in the body of the law are not plainly called for, but no Congress that meets now shows either much interest in these changes, or any capacity for carrying them out. In fact a kind of paralysis seems to have overtaken Congress. It has not even energy and force enough to work mischief. It threatens mischief, and prepares it and puts it in bills, and talks over it, but is unable to execute it. Six thousand bills were introduced in this last, and only four hundred passed. Of all the dreadful things which were anticipated from the majority during the past winter—an assault on the President's title, the dissolution of the army, the payment of Southern claims, the issue of unlimited paper money, and the repudiation of the national debt—not one has been accomplished, though every one of them has been attempted in a feeble sort of way. The good, also, which many people half expected it to achieve—the provision of a better mode of electing the President, the reform of the tariff and of the civil service, and the restoration of a sound currency—has not been forthcoming, though efforts after it have not been wanting. The only thing, in fact, in which real power to legislate has been displayed, has been the remonetization of silver; but even this, probably, could never have been carried out if it had been preceded by the proper amount of deliberation and enquiry. The bill was passed, not because the legislators were well informed as to its probable effects, but because very few of them cared what its effects would be.

Paralysis of the legislative power in a community as energetic, self-reliant, and self-helpful, and possessing already as good a body of law as this one does, is not as mischievous and alarming as paralysis of the executive power, for this would mean a rapid approach to anarchy; but it does mean a total cessation for the time being of progress and improvement, and a very great stimulus to popular weariness and indifference to questions of government. The causes of it just now are worth serious attention, and the following may be set down as the principal:

I. The disappearance of parties since the war; meaning by parties political organizations seeking the adoption of a definable policy on certain questions of absorbing or very great public interest. The loss of control over the South by the Federal Government—we do not give that name to the support of the carpet-bag governments by small bodies of troops—has removed the last real division of opinion on a question of policy between Democrats and Republicans, and there is now no test by which they can be distinguished. It would be impossible, for instance, to say to which party General Butler belongs by examining his course with regard to any leading question of the day. That there is a certain theoretical difference between Democrats and Republicans might, perhaps, be proved by a comparison of some of the platforms, but this difference is not operative in practice, owing to the complete denial by the politicians on both sides of any controlling force in the platform. It binds to nothing, and gives no indication of the course the so-called members of the party will follow in Congress.

II. The confusion of mind and helplessness caused by the loss of party organization among the ordinary run of members of Congress. Party means leadership—that is, the direction from above, by one or more of the prominent men of the party, under the general guidance of the party principles and platform, of the course to be followed on all questions of moment. In the absence of this the average Congressman tries to find out as well as he can what effect his vote will have on his prospects in his own district, and his success in ascertaining this depends, of course, a good deal on his own perspicacity and ability. The result is apt to be a kind of *débandade* in which every man looks after his own safety, and in which the merits of the question are the last thing thought of. We believe it is no exaggeration to say that not over ten per cent. of the members of Congress take the trouble to inform themselves about the probable effect of any measure; they inform themselves simply about some other person's feelings or wishes about it. It may seem at first sight as if this made no great difference after all, but the fact is that no one can long resist the demoralization that comes of drawing money for doing sham work; pretending, for instance, to deliberate, rapidly converts the best man into something of a charlatan.

III. The diminishing control of constituencies over the choice of candidates, and consequently over the quality of their representatives. Public opinion about a legislator's fitness is declining rather than growing in power, and that of the caucus growing rather than declining, and the caucus principle of distribution and rotation has little or nothing to do with possible or needful legislation. If Mr. Conkling, for instance, were to give an honest lecture in explanation of the process by which he controls the Republican party in this State, he would hardly have a word to say touching the questions by which the popular mind is now agitated. He would have to say that his candidates for Congress and the State Legislature were not supposed or expected to trouble their heads about these things. The powerlessness of the public against his machinery was well illustrated by the total failure of the revolt against him last fall. The general result is that members of Congress go to Washington to engage in strange work, for which nothing has prepared them, and the conscientious performance of which might nevertheless ruin them. It probably would amuse Conkling, for instance, if he were told that he had secured Fenton's appointment on the Silver Commission because he thought him a good man to discuss it with foreigners; it would amuse him also to hear a man's election to Congress urged because he had studied certain subjects. To him and all his kind a reflective and well-informed man is "a doctrinaire." As long as the electing process is in this condition it is useless to find fault with Congressional shortcomings, no matter which party is in the majority, and the electing process will continue in this condition as long as the election of a better class of men is not the prime interest of the public—an interest so strong as to dominate all others. Profound interest such as is felt in Iowa, for instance, about the government of the Southern States, however laudable it may be, is a serious hindrance to good government at home. There is not political virtue enough in any Northern State for itself and the Southern States besides. It is no less true in politics than in private life, that one's concern about other people's morals may become so deep as to cause serious detriment to one's own; and that the contemplation of Southern wickedness has done much to exhaust Northern political morality we think no thoughtful and observant person can deny.

THE CRIME AGAINST THE SUFFRAGE IN WASHINGTON.

THE manner in which the present Congress has dealt with the government of the city of Washington is an interesting illustration of the way in which—small though the progress may seem

at times—practical common sense gradually gets the better of "high priori" theories of government. When the Republican party found itself in possession of the city, and charged with its renovation and adaptation to the new order of things at the close of the war, these "high priori" theories may be said to have had complete control of the government. The ballot had been exalted into a kind of talisman or fetish, the mere possession of which elevated a man instantly, morally and intellectually. It was supposed that the mere bestowal of it on the freedmen would give them at once the political qualities and capacities which the foremost races of the world had only acquired through a thousand years of painful toil and bitter experience. Accordingly, the city was rapidly filled with newly-emancipated and very ignorant freedmen, who flocked into it from Virginia and Maryland in search of work, or of the excitement of urban life, and they were at once converted into municipal voters who, though hardly knowing what municipal government was, were charged with the power of appropriating the property of the residents in the form of taxation. The situation of Washington, in fact, very much resembled that of this city during the last twenty-five years, for here, too, there has been a vast accumulation of poverty and ignorance attracted by the masses of wealth concentrated at this point, and by the power and privilege of sharing in the division of it without the owner's consent, and, indeed, in defiance of him. There is probably no sweeter experience in the world than that of a penniless laborer in a city like this, when he learns that by casting his vote in the right way he can strip the rich merchant or shipowner of a portion of his gains and convert it into easy work for the poor man under the superintendence of a kindly "boss" from among his own friends.

The government of Washington, then, was very much like that municipal Utopia described by the excellent governor of this State in his last annual message, in which there are "three co-ordinate departments, each separate and independent within its own sphere (to wit, the legislative, executive, and judicial)"; and in which the legislative is composed of two houses, the aldermen and common council, and in which primaries are frequent and well attended, and repeated elections secure "responsibility to the people." But, owing to causes with which we in New York are familiar, evil crept into this Arcadia. Why repeat the tale? Good men ceased to attend to their political duties, and allowed bad men to absorb the functions of government. The result was the same in the two cities. The "three co-ordinate departments, each separate and independent within its own sphere," gradually became less co-ordinate and separate and independent and abstract, until at length they assumed in New York the form of a Boss named Tweed, and in Washington that of a Boss named Shepherd. But though Tweed and Shepherd were bad men, they did not attack the suffrage. We voted in New York under Tweed, and the Washingtonians voted under Shepherd. We may not always have liked the ticket put up, and sometimes we may have resented the alteration of election returns necessary for the election of candidates who had not received a majority of votes. But neither Boss ever attacked the suffrage. Every one voted as usual, whether he knew what he was voting for or not.

It was when Shepherd had finished his work, and secured a magnificent future for Washington by saddling the city with a debt it could not pay, that the first assault was made upon the suffrage. By the Constitution Congress is given absolute authority over the affairs of the District of Columbia, and as a temporary expedient a commission was created, consisting of three well-known citizens, to manage the affairs of the city until a permanent form of government should be devised. Such was the opportunity that caste needed to establish itself in a free city. The commissioners managed Washington well. We should be loath to attribute to them any sinister motives; but they managed it better than it had been managed before. As absolute rulers have done before, they pandered to the people's love of ease and security. They reduced the debt; they collected and disbursed the revenues of the city honestly; they prevented jobs in contracts, and rendered capital less timid and protected labor. In the enjoyment of these material advantages the people forgot about the primaries, overlooked the principles involved, and soon ceased even to regret the loss of the right to vote The very foundations of universal suffrage were in this way sapped, and when the present Congress met to discuss a permanent form of government it was found that the House of Representatives took a far deeper interest in the right of the Washingtonians to suffrage than they did themselves. The House felt that a principle was at stake, and that people who did not want to vote must be made to vote, and accordingly inserted a clause in the bill providing for suffrage. Shocking as it must seem to any free man, the Washingtonians, instead of being pleased with this, professed great alarm, and protested that they did not want any more suffrage, and the Senate struck out the clause providing for it. The House basely accepted the Senate's amendment, and the result is that a bill has passed both houses and been signed by the President putting the entire government of a city of 150,000 inhabitants in the hands of an appointed commission. It should not be overlooked, either, that it is expressly provided that one of the commissioners shall be selected from the only class in the republic which is wholly removed from the influence of popular feelings and opinions and dominated by the spirit of caste —the officers of the army. Under this bill not a vestige is left of popular municipal government: aldermen, common councilmen, mayors, boards of works, school boards, police boards, primaries, conventions, all are swept away, and the entire government is handed over to three men, appointed by a foreign authority, responsible not to their fellow-citizens, but to the President and Senate.

The feeble attempt of the House to put the unfortunate property-holders back under the yoke of universal suffrage and its Boss was not really sincerely made. It was simply intended to save "the record" of the majority in the eyes of their own constituents, many of whom would sooner have ten distant cities ruined than see one breach made in the rule that the majority must govern directly and under all circumstances. But if there is a word of truth in what both Republican and Democratic politicians have been saying in opposition to the constitutional amendments in this State, the creation of the new government of Washington is "a crime against the suffrage" such as has not hitherto been attempted or suggested. In this city, where universal suffrage has produced a system of government which may be called communism tempered by indictment, we have "robbed the poor man of his vote" also, but in a much milder and more carefully-designed way, by cutting down the number of elected officials to a minimum, and putting the power so taken away into the hands of appointed boards, with complete control over the finances.

VICTOR HUGO'S 'PAPE.'

PARIS, June 14.

THE last volumes of Victor Hugo are all of the kind which makes bookbinders very unhappy. They are heavy, thick, ponderous. The 'Contemplations' makes you think of the volumes which the monks threw at each other's heads in Boileau's 'Lutrin.' How different it is in its outside appearance from the small volume of the 'Châtiments' which appeared in Belgium during the author's exile! There is something gigantic in these 'Contemplations' as there is in the 'Légende des Siècles.' When I found on my table the 'Art d'être grandpère' I could not help sighing, Is it so difficult to be a grandfather? and Is there so much in the smile of old age on infancy? Victor Hugo has of late years been affected with a terrible fecundity. He is like those old olive-trees I have seen in Sicily, which are still called the *Saraceni*; they bear no fruit for two or three years, then they cover themselves with a great load which almost breaks their boughs; it is what the Sicilians call the *carica*. The *carica* of Hugo is perpetual; he always emits smoke or fire like an active volcano. He is like an unconscious force; he cannot rest.

It was some satisfaction to me when I received his new volume, 'The Pope,'* to find that it was light, that it had those slender forms which seem to promise easy and agreeable reading. I said to myself: Well! the old poet has been merciful to the old priest. He has felt that

* 'Le Pape. Par Victor Hugo.' Paris: Calmann Lévy; New York: F. W. Christern. 1878.

this is perhaps not the time to throw stones at the Papacy. He is, after all, too much of a poet not to feel that Pio Nono was not a vulgar figure, one that can be despised and treated with contempt. In our materialistic world, and among all our engines, the spiritual forces are still visible to the poet, whether they are the forces of religion or the forces of philosophy. Victor Hugo made a great speech a few days ago on the centenary of Voltaire. "A hundred years ago there died a man named Voltaire. He died immortal (*Il mourut immortel.*)" This antithesis, which can only be well felt in French, is in itself an assertion of spiritualism. It also required a great faith in ideas to consent to celebrate the centenary of Voltaire in a vulgar circus, and to place the statue of the defender of Calas where clowns are accustomed to play. The whip of the stable became the whip of satire; Victor Hugo did not feel the absurdity of a ceremony which had very little in common with the coronation of Voltaire at the Théâtre-Français (a ceremony which has been so admirably engraved by Moreau le jeune); he never had much sense of the ridiculous; the pleasantries in the comical parts of his dramas are ponderous and often pitiful. The sphere in which Victor Hugo's genius moves well is the sphere of what I must call the sublime, for want of any other name. But if you read the 'Treatise on the Sublime' by Longinus, and the additions by our Boileau, you will see that the sublime is essentially idealistic. It gives forms and very vivid forms to ideas, as the Greeks used to give the finest forms to their gods; but this translation, if I may say so, of ideas, of forms, into symbols and traditions could hardly find a more astonishing and more sublime expression than in the Catholic Church. Rome and its daily life, the pomp of its churches and all its religious life, which speaks of time, of eternity, of the vanity of human history—what finer subject could be found by a real poet?

Victor Hugo was never insensible to the grandeur of the Papacy. Remember the famous passages in "Hernani" when young King Charles is waiting for the result of the imperial election; speaking before the tomb of Charlemagne, Charles says:

> "Ah! c'est un beau spectacle à ravir la pensée,
> Que l'Europe, ainsi faite, et comme il l'a laissée!
> Un édifice, avec deux hommes au sommet,
> Deux chefs élus aux quels tout roi né se soumet.
> . . . . . .
> Electeurs de drap d'or, cardinaux d'écarlate,
> Double sénat sacré, dont la terre s'émeut,
> Ne sont là qu'en parade, et Dieu veut ce qu'il veut.
> . . . . . .
> Le pape et l'empereur sont tout. Rien n'est sur terre
> Que par eux et pour eux . . . .
> L'un est la vérité, l'autre la force. Ils ont
> Leur raison en eux-mêmes, et sont parce qu'ils sont.
> Quand ils sortent, tous deux égaux, du sanctuaire,
> L'un dans sa pourpre, et l'autre avec son blanc suaire,
> L'univers éblouï contemple avec terreur
> Ces deux moitiés de Dieu, le pape et l'empereur."

What verses! When they are recited with the manner and the voice of Worms, who now plays the part at the Théâtre-Français, it really seems as if you heard the ambitious youth who was to become Charles the Fifth. "Le pape et l'empereur sont tout!" Why? Because they represent one the truth, the other force. Fancy for a moment the marriage of the spiritual forces and of the material forces of the world, and the miserable divorce which is felt through all history would cease; nations would be good and strong. Hugo has always felt overpowered by this strange and, in so many eyes, miraculous personification of an eternal truth in one old man, called the Pope. He has, so far, never insulted the Church in all his vagaries; in his 'Misérables' he has given a touching part to his bishop. I have deeply regretted the tone of a letter which he wrote some time ago on the occasion of the Voltaire centenary to Bishop Dupanloup. The Bishop of Orleans, as was his perfect right, had protested against the doctrines of Voltaire. Victor Hugo answered him in a manner quite unworthy of him, even affecting to call him Monsieur instead of giving him the courtesy title habitual in France of Monseigneur.

I opened 'The Pope' with some fear, afraid, as I was, to find that it was a pamphlet in verse. The opening of the poem is odd, but you will see how convenient for the poet. The Pope is in the Vatican, in his bed, and says:

> "Ah! je m'endors!—Enfin!"

This is the first scene. Now, I will bring you at once to the last page of the poem; we are again in the Vatican, but it is now morning, and the Pope wakes up and says:

> "Quel rêve affreux je viens de faire!"

All the other scenes, in fact the whole book is this "rêve affreux," and I have myself thought it *affreux* at times. You will readily understand that such a plan gives much facility to the poet; nobody has ever maintained that there was much logic in dreams, that the various acts of a nightmare need to be tied together by reason. The dream admits of every possible incident, and if the poet opens a drawer and finds some forgotten verses, why should they not find a place in the dream, though it is a Papal dream? The beginning of the dream is an abdication. The Pope renounces his temporal power; he discovers that

> "Le sceptre est vain, le trône est noir, la pourpre est vile."

He is afraid of the splendor of the Vatican:

> "Je ne sais pas pourquoi j'habite ce palais;
> Je ne sais pas pourquoi je porte un diadème;
> On m'appelle Seigneur des Seigneurs, Chef suprême,
> Pontife souverain, Roi par le ciel choisi;
> O peuples, écoutez, j'ai découvert ceci,
> Je suis un pauvre."

The Pope becomes a beggar, a monk; he walks the earth, going from place to place, not knowing in the morning where he will sleep at night; he wanders like Jesus, the "va-nu-pieds divin." This poem ends thus:

> "Je prends la terre aux rois, je vends aux Romains Rome,
> Et je rentre chez Dieu, c'est-à-dire chez l'Homme.
> Laissez-moi passer, peuple. Adieu, Rome."

Such is the doctrine of the whole book. In the "Synode d'Orient" there is a long apotheosis of poverty, in that apocalyptic style which is becoming the last manner of the poet; a Pelion upon Ossa of epithets, of adverbs, of words, and phrases. The Pope, meeting the Patriarch of the East, uses such language as this:

> "Le jour où dans le ciel que d'autres cieux pondèrent,
> Les formidables vents démusclés grondèrent."

It is all in this style: God is "cet être inconcevable-là." The Pope speaks as an Iconoclast of the "petit bon Dieu rose avec des yeux d'émail," of the "Jésus de carton," of the "Eternel de cire," of the

> "—bonshommes de bois au fond d'un corridor,
> Brodés d'or, cousus d'or, chaussés d'or, coiffés d'or;
> Nous avons des sainte-Jeans et des saintes-Maries
> Que nous emmaillotons dans des verroteries!
> Nous dépensons Golconde à vêtir le néant."

What! said I to myself, when I read these lines, is this the poet who wrote in "Hernani," when the pilgrim enters the castle of Don Ruy Gomez:

> "Où vas-tu, bon pèlerin?
> HERNANI.— Seigneur,
> Je vais à Saragosse.
> DON RUY GOMEZ.— Un vœu? Fait en l'honneur
> D'un saint? De Notre-Dame?
> HERNANI.— Oui, duc, de Notre-Dame.
> DON RUY GOMEZ.—Del Pilar?
> HERNANI.— Del Pilar.
>
> DON RUY GOMEZ.— Il faut n'avoir point d'âme
> Pour ne point acquitter les vœux qu'on fait aux saints.
> Mais le tien accompli, n'as-tu d'autres desseins?
> Voir le pilier, c'est là tout ce que tu désires?
>
> HERNANI.—Oui, je veux voir brûler les flambeaux et les cires,
> Voir Notre-Dame au fond du sombre corridor,
> Luire en sa châsse ardente, avec sa chappe d'or,
> Et puis m'en retourner."

This is poetry, if ever there was any poetry!—the candor, the simplicity, the depth of sentiment, all is here united. And who, even in this materialistic world of ours, has not his Pilar, the place far concealed from the profane eyes of the world, where the eyes get moist, where our ideas cease to flow, as it were, from the brain, but from the heart before some cherished symbol? Call it by whatever name you like, give it the form you like, there is the place where the real man throws off his load of conventionalities and becomes the real son of Adam. What I object to in so many passages of 'The Pope' is conventionalism, obedience to the ruling ideas of the day. The poet has nothing in common with the politician. What place would you assign to Tennyson in the House of Commons, or to Longfellow in Congress? The poet is the man who consoles us for politics, as the priest consoles us for the sins and vulgarities of the world.

The "divine" is never quite absent from Hugo: here and there are verses which are like electric flashes in a dark night. But how vulgar is this, for instance, in the 'Pape aux foules'! The people describes its sufferings; the "Misérables" show their wounds, their wrinkles, their tears, and thus ends the piece. One man asks the Pope:

> "Qu'est-ce que tu fais là vieillard?
> LE PAPE.— Je thésaurise."

I can imagine all the possible accusations against the Papacy; I can understand the Gallicans, and Bossuet, and Luther, and Calvin, and Théodore de Bèze when they accuse the Papacy of cruelty, of intolerance,

of ambition, of pride; speak of the Borgias and of the scepticisms of Leo X.; but to accuse the Papacy of "avarice" is simply ridiculous.

I cannot attempt to analyze the poems of "L'Infaillibilité," or "En voyant passer des brebis tondues," or "Pensif devant le destin." "On construit une église" has a fine sentiment; the Archbishop describes all the splendors of the new cathedral, the Pope adds quietly:

"Et mettez-y des lits pour les pauvres l'hiver."

"En voyant une nourrice" is completely out of place, and has nothing to do with the Pope; but are we not making a dream? The same might be said of the "Champ de bataille" and of the "Guerre Civile," which has quite a Communistic flavor:

"Toi, paysan, tu veux tuer cet ouvrier!
. . . . . .
Arrêtez, Arrêtez, Fraternité!"

We all know in what times fraternity becomes a cry in France!

You will find the true Hugo in "En voyant un petit enfant":

"Tout ce que les meilleurs font sur terre ou défont,
Ne vaut pas .le sourire ignorant et suprême
De l'enfant qui regarde et s'étonne et nous aime."

This is true—this is the eternal man, the immortal son of Adam; and here I will rest. I have come out of this book, as I do always from Hugo, with a sensation of heaviness and fatigue; I feel as I do after a day spent among the glaciers and the nevés of the Alps. How solemn are these mountains, but how terrible! Let me return to the plains, let me return to the "Prière pour tous."

Correspondence.

A CASE OF PLAGIARISM.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In the index which accompanies the May number of *Scribner's Magazine* a poem is accompanied by the curious remark: "Plagiarized from S. Dobell." I would like to call your attention to another article which, it seems to me, might have been described by the same epithet:

Scribner's Monthly, Vol. xv., page 76. Art. "Countess Potocka," by C. C. Buel.

"Within the decade of years preceding the outbreak of the French Revolution, the French ambassador was one day taking his customary morning walk through the streets of Pera. Near the grave of Count Bonneval, a French adventurer of the time of Louis XIV., he came upon a group of frolicking children. The extraordinary beauty of one of them, a little girl 12 or 13 years of age, excited the Frenchman's admiration. . . . 'Here,' he thought, 'is a jewel for my palace!' He called the child to him. She responded cheerfully, and stood before his excellency with the haughty self-possession of a born princess. . . . The mother let flow a whole reservoir of tears. She might be a poor bakerwoman, she said, but she had a good heart for all that, and came of an exceedingly good family. Her ancestor—and here she courtesied profoundly—was, indeed, no other than the celebrated Byzantine emperor, Manuel Kommenos. How could his excellency think for a moment that she, the mother, would sell her princely baker-daughter! . . . The marquis spared no expense to transform his beautiful Greek ward into a Parisian. . . . She was surrounded with servants and governesses, and, thanks to her ambition and spirit, soon acquired such accomplishments as French, music, etiquette, and dancing. At fifteen she could maintain herself . . . with the ladies who frequented the embassy. The sly beauty was not slow to note the impression her youthful personality made on the marquis. Her sweet disposition . . . won the love of the entire household, while . . . she literally commanded the palace, from the marquis down. . . . The marquis saw—nothing at all. He, too, lived in the seventh heaven. It sufficed for his unlimited pleasure that at the festival which the count gave in their honor, the beauty of Sophie threw a grateful shadow over all the other ladies," etc.

Ueber Land und Meer, Vol. xxxv., page 54. Art. "Gräfin Potocka," by N. von Gerbel.

"Kurz vor Ausbruch der ersten französischen Revolution, machte der französische Gesandte in Konstantinopel einen Gang durch die Strassen von Pera. Unweit des Grabes des französischen Abenteurers's Grafen Bonneval (der zu Ludwig's XIV. abwechslnd Christ und Muselmann gewesen) bemerkte er in einer munteren Kinderschaar ein Mädchen von 11 bis 12 Jahren, von einer auffälligen Schönheit. 'Das wäre etwas für dein Haus!' sagte sich der Franzose, und liess das Mädchen herantreten. Das Mädchen trat ganz munter, aber mit dem Anstande einer geborener Prinzessin, vor die Excellenz. . . . Die liebende Mutter fing an heftig zu lamentiren. Obwohl sie nur eine Bäckersfrau, habe sie doch ein Herz, und sei von ausgezeichnet guter Familie. Ihr Stammvater war natürlich kein anderer als der berühmte byzantinische Kaiser Manuel Komnenus. Wie könnte der Franzose nur denken, dass sie, die Mutter, ihr fürstliches Bäckermädchen verkaufen würde! . . . Der Marquis . . . scheute keine Mühe und keine Kosten um aus seinem Schützling eine vollkommene Französin zu machen. Er umgab die kleine Sophie mit Bonnen und Gouvernanten, mit Sprach- und Musiclehrern, mit Hof- und Tanzmeistern. Die Kleine lernte mit einem nicht zu ermüdenden Eifer, und als sie 15 Jahre alt geworden war, nahm sie es mit jeder Pariserin auf . . . In kurzer Zeit hatte die verschmitzte Fanariotin den Eindruck ihrer jugendlichen Persönlichkeit wahrgenommen Sie . . . das ganze Gesandschaftshotel, vom Marquis an, förmlich commandirte. Sie . . . erwarb sich . . . die Liebe des ganzen Hauses. . . . Er sah—gar nichts. Es gereichte ihm zu besonderem Vergnügen, dass auf den Festen welche der Graf ihm zu Ehren gab die Griechin alle Damen verdunkelte. . . . Der Marquis und der Graf schwelgten beide im siebenten Himmel," etc.

X.

Notes.

FORDS, HOWARD & HULBERT announce a 'Biographical Memoir of William Cullen Bryant,' from the pen of Gen. James Grant Wilson. It will be incorporated in a "memorial edition" of Mr. Bryant's 'Library of Poetry and Song.'——The second volume of 'Bryant's Popular History of the United States' is now in the binder's hands, and will be the first book to bear the imprint of Charles Scribner's Sons. The third volume will appear in a few months.——'American Colleges: their Students and their Work,' by C. F. Thwing; 'Almost an Englishman,' a novel; and two volumes of poetry, 'The Ring of Amethyst,' by Alice Wellington Rollins, and 'The Exile,' by Francis Fontaine, are announced by G. P. Putnam's Sons.——D. Appleton & Co. have issued a thin pamphlet descriptive of 'The Scenery of the Pacific Railways and Colorado,' with a map and 71 striking woodcut illustrations by J. D. Woodward.——Brown University is fortunate in having secured the services of Dr. Augustus Spring Packard, jr., for the chair of Natural History. Prof. Packard is a graduate of Bowdoin College, and, from the variety and popular character of his published writings, perhaps our best-known American entomologist. His departure from Salem, Mass., following on Prof. Morse's and Prof. Putnam's, is a serious loss to that scientific centre, and implies an inadequate endowment of the Peabody Academy of Sciences.——The first bestowal of degrees by the Johns Hopkins University took place on June 13. Four candidates were admitted to the degree of Ph. D. and M. A.——For the coming year the University of Michigan announces some important changes in its plan of work. These relate to the choice of studies, admission of students not candidates for a degree, and requirements for graduation and for the higher degrees.——'The Ten-Year Book of the Cornell University' (1868-1878) is a handsome product of the University Press, and contains lists (1) of the officers, with brief biographies of those deceased; (2) of graduates by classes and degrees; (3) of licentiates; (4) of matriculates, with notes of occupation, address, decease, etc.; an index of residences, and a summary of occupations. In view of the manual-labor feature of this university, it is interesting to observe that, at the utmost, ten per cent. of the graduates earn their living with their hands.——The Harvard Library *Bulletin* No. 8 announces that a sufficient subscription to Scudder's 'Catalogue of Scientific Serials' has been secured, and that the work will be immediately put to press. The *Bulletin* contains the first part of a calendar of the Arthur Lee MSS. in the library (1774-1789), and continuations of the index of the Sumner collection and of the Michelangelo bibliography.——The July *Bulletin* of the Library Company of Philadelphia forms No. 1 of a new series. Typographically, it is much inferior to those issued by Eastern libraries of the same rank.——A chronological list of the works of the late Earl Russell (1819-1875) is printed in the London *Bookseller* for June 3.——A convenient map of the African Lake Region in the *Geographical Magazine* for June may be recommended to Mr. Stanley's readers.——In the *Zeitschrift*, No. 74, of the Berlin Geographical Society, a beautiful rain-map of Europe accompanies an article on the subject by Dr. Otto Krümmel. It lends meteorological support to Russia's pretensions to make the Carpathians and the Balkans her new boundaries.——Mr. Henry Blackburn sends us his 'Grosvenor Notes,' or illustrated catalogue of the summer exhibition at the Grosvenor Gallery (Chatto & Windus). It differs from our own Academy catalogue in the greater skill and effectiveness of the sketches (which are, however, far from being of even quality), and in the latitude allowed the artist in describing and almost praising his own work.——Mr. F. W. Christern has received Renan's 'Caliban,' of which our Paris correspondent gave an account last week, and the first ten *livraisons* of M. V. Duruy's 'Histoire des Romains.' This work, begun more than thirty years ago, is now put forth again, revised, enlarged, and illustrated with a profuseness of maps and woodcuts which only a house of the resources of Hachette could afford. The designs are all of a serious order ("rien ne sera donné à la fantaisie ni à l'imagination"), and are especially rich in coins, medals, cameos, and other archæological objects, for the most part inedited. The work will fill six or seven volumes of 800 pages each, at 25 francs the volume.——In the Berlin *Archäologische Zeitung* G. Hoffmann calls attention to a mummy, the face of which was covered with a gold mask, found on the Euphrates some thirty years ago, as furnishing an analogy to the similarly employed masks found at Mycenæ.

—"M." writes us from Cambridge:

"It is with much pleasure that those persons who are interested in the constitutional history of the United States look forward to a second volume from the pen of Dr. von Holst. While this volume is in the hands of the translators it may not be a useless task to call attention to some defects in the first volume—defects which cannot be overlooked in a book destined to hold a permanent place in our literature. The translators have not always been too careful either in the choice or the arrangement of words. On page 381, for instance, we find the expression, 'men had *fought shy*,' etc. ('evaded' is a good word, certainly); on page 347 we

get a hint as to 'the *right bower* of the Southern politicians'; and on page 405 we find that 'the North had a *trump card, which it did not fail to play.*' Again, the word 'entail' is used in all senses other than the right one. It is true, furthermore, that Browning and Herbert Spencer have placed the adverb between the parts of the infinitive; still, such use must continue to be regarded as a solecism. The publishers, too, deserve a word, for in the first volume it is as pleasant as it is unusual to find a page free from typographical errors. By taking a little more care the translators can make the work in all respects what it should be."

—*Harper's* for July opens with an agreeable paper, by Mr. A. C. Redwood, on that part of tide-water Virginia known as "Northern Neck," or the peninsula lying between the Potomac and Rappahannock Rivers. The ancestral home of the Lees is there, and other families not inferior in local rank have left traces of themselves, some of which can be and are here delineated with the graver. Virginia, too, is the scene of "Porte-Crayon's" not overdrawn description of "Old-time Militia Musters"; but the militia system, in its decay, presented much the same phases everywhere. Dr. Abel Stevens contributes "Anecdotes of Voltaire among the Swiss," as a sort of complement to the last chapter of Morley's study of the great Frenchman whose centenary has just been celebrated. In the main he relies on Pastor Gaberel's 'Voltaire et les Génevois,' and he succeeds in giving the salient features of that wonderful career at Ferney, so inexplicable in some ways, so little edifying at times, but on the whole of such immense importance to the progress of the human mind. "Hospital Life in New York" and the fourth paper on "Old Flemish Masters" (Van Dyck) add a varied interest to this number, whose illustrations show the healthy influence of competition from the side of *Scribner's*.

—In *Lippincott's* we have found specially readable Mr. L. W. Bacon's "Real Prisoner of Chillon," which takes away from Bonivard what Byron's muse invested him with, and still leaves him an interesting and to some extent admirable character; a timely article, by Mr. Henry Stone, on the Census of 1880; "An Atelier des Dames," by Margaret B. Wright, whose narrative would have borne lengthening; and "Popular Marriage Customs of Sicily," by Giuseppe Pitrè, than whom no better authority could be listened to. One of these amusing customs is the ceremony known as *stima*, or formal appraisal in detail of the bride's trousseau, which is sometimes announced openly and sometimes secretly to the accountant, but is always final, "and generally in favor of the fiancée, for the value of the trousseau goes to increase the dower." Odd, too, is the small account made of the civil marriage which precedes the religious, for the evening after it "the groom goes about his business as though he were not yet married." Then there are the various substitutes for the slipper thrown after the departing couple. In one place the bride has orange-leaves tossed in her face by an intimate of her own sex, who exclaims, "Contentment and sons!" The author of the entertaining paper called "A Levantine Picnic," namely, to Ephesus, conceals himself behind initials and no date, but we hazard the guess that he is Captain Strong, then in command of the *Canandaigua*, and that the visit to Retimo, in the island of Crete, was made in the spring of 1867. The insurrection was then in full force, as it is at this moment again, and in his official capacity "sympathies had no play," as Captain Strong justly observes. But, to his credit be it said, the "red-hot consul" whom he met at Canéa seemed to find him more sympathetic than the rest of his officers, and that alone detracted from the recorded satisfaction with which this consul saw the *Canandaigua* sail out of the harbor on its way to Smyrna and the Levantine picnic.

—The refusal of Congress to carry out the stipulations of the Convention of Saratoga is probably the most serious blemish upon the good faith of our Government during the Revolutionary War; it has hardly been defended by any historian except Mr. Bancroft. The subject has been freshly examined by Mr. Charles Deane, in a paper read before the American Antiquarian Society of Worcester last October, nearly upon the hundredth anniversary of the surrender, and he arrives at the conclusion that the acts of Congress "are not marked by the highest exhibition of good policy or good faith." In his careful narration of the events, it appears that the terms of the capitulation were themselves more liberal than Gen. Gates need have granted, and that from the first leading members of Congress felt apprehensive that Great Britain would not carry them out in good faith—apprehensions shared by Washington, and supported, if not justified, by attempts on the part of Burgoyne to get the port of embarkation changed. Add to this that it was highly for the interest of this country that the troops should not return to England, where they—at least the British troops—could take the place of others that could be sent here. The various pretexts under which the embarkation was delayed were not at all to the credit of the Government; and the final demand, that the British Government should ratify the Convention before the troops should be allowed to sail, was unreasonable, inasmuch as a convention of this sort did not require ratification; and, moreover, its formal ratification would have been a tacit acknowledgment of the independence of the United States. After all, there is no doubt that there was a real feeling of distrust on the part of our statesmen (Richard Henry Lee appears to have taken the leading part in the measures), which led them to insist that the conditions of the surrender should be definitely agreed to by the British Government; and this is the only excuse—by no means a justification—of the policy pursued.

—A correspondent who has taken the trouble to traverse the West, beyond the Mississippi, estimating the advantages and the disadvantages of the different parts of that country as homes for those who ought to "go West" while there is a West to go to—that is, while there is good land to be had for the taking—sends us the following summary of his observations, which we print without prejudice and without endorsement:

"In Texas I found some of my old acquaintances. They were doing well as a general thing. Their daughters were nice girls, though a little 'loud' and rather forward; their boys given to shooting, fishing, loafing around generally, and on the whole becoming very much like their neighbors, who were mainly of the poor-white kind—ignorant, immoral, vicious fellows. So I decided against Texas; for what is prosperity worth if it brings with it the ruin of the young? In Arkansas and Kansas I found much the same state of things—less in degree in the latter State; still, few persons would suspect that the people of Kansas, the younger people, were of New England or New York stock. They do not seem to like work, but are given to gregarious meetings, hunting, merry-making, and loafing, and not given to intellectual pursuits as a general thing. The necessaries of life are easily obtained; as to the refinements of life, they are not much prized. Cooking and the niceties of housekeeping are unknown arts in all the West and Southwest below the northern lines of Iowa and Nebraska. This I assert and will stand by it. It will always be so, until both the women and the men are better educated, more carefully taught, and, to use a homely phrase, brought up.

"The mass of the people in Minnesota, particularly northern Minnesota, and in northern Dakota, in the famous Red River valley, seem very superior people, quick, bright, energetic, intelligent, and busy; not loafing, little idling; seemingly well educated. Even the foreigners appear unlike those of their own nationality I found in Kansas and Texas, for they are bright, quick, and apparently industrious. All these differences, I think, are climatic; the people must have plenty of clothing; they have cold winters, and have little to do in that season, except to study and stay at home. The lack of forests prevents hunting and idling; there is little temptation for loafing around; they cultivate their intellects. The crops are sure, and give wealth; little of their gains is wasted in getting them to market. There are more and better schools in Minnesota than are to be found in the lower States; they seem to care more for them. Altogether there is no doubt in my mind that the extreme Northwest is the best part of our country to emigrate to, everything considered."

—The death of Charles James Mathews takes from the English stage its best comedian. The memory of the elder Mathews has so almost entirely faded away that it is impossible to make any comparison between the acting of the father and that of the son, though the resemblances and differences must have been marked enough to make the parallel an interesting one. Except his father there was no one to compare him with; his school of acting was peculiarly a family school. Americans had an excellent opportunity of judging of his merits, as he made three separate visits to this country—in 1839, 1858, and 1871. A good proof of the excellence of his acting was that although his first appearance here was (owing to a variety of causes which are hardly worth a posthumous examination) nearly a failure, he so won his way that his last visit was a great stage triumph. Perhaps, however, more striking evidence was furnished by his remarkable success in France, where, notwithstanding the difficulties of the language and the thousand other obstacles, he made an extraordinary hit in "L'Anglais Timide," a version of a capital farce now seldom acted—"Cool as a Cucumber." To any one who knows what the French stage is, and how little resemblance there was until a very recent date between the traditions of that and the English theatre, Mr. Mathews's success in France must seem hardly short of miraculous. France, it should be remembered, is not a country in which, as with us, the public is accustomed to having managers impress actors and singers of all nations, and in which consequently an actor of whatever race, if sufficiently distinguished at home, may be sure of at least a hearing. The French stage, it is true, draws on some few foreign countries for its actors, but we believe most of those who have succeeded on it have usually relinquished their connection with everything not French at an early age and adopted the country of their profession. Such a career on it as Fechter's

here, for instance, would be quite out of the question. The marked success of an English actor, therefore, on the French as well as on the English stage, may safely be attributed to the inherent merits of his performance. There was, however, something in Mr. Mathews's acting which must have prepossessed French audiences above all others in his favor. He had a delicacy and refinement which the present generation of theatre-goers are not likely to see equalled, though there is now a generation of actors vieing with one another in trying to be delicate and refined. His range, it must be confessed, was very limited, his parts being chiefly those of the lightest comedy, in which the development of absurdities of situation had much more to do with the effect than anything in the character or action properly so called. He had no tragic power, and not even what most English comedians possess—pathos. He never lost himself either, so far as we remember his acting, in his part. All his "business" was inimitable, and his acting had one virtue which that of so many actors lacks—there were no gaps in it. It was a continuous performance from the rising of the curtain to its fall, in which every word, motion, gesture, and act had some connection with the central idea of the part. It was a natural consequence of this professional devotion to dramatic unity that he had a horror of that bane of the modern stage—"gags"—the introduction of casual remarks for the amusement of the audience. It is said that of late years he objected to playing *Dazzle*, on the ground that it had been so stuffed with "gags" that the original part had been lost.

—M. Emile Augier has just published his drama of "Les Fourchambault," which is at present in the enjoyment of high success at the Théâtre Français, and forms, obviously, the most important contribution to the French stage—in other words, to the contemporary stage—during the present year. If to see a play from one of the best French hands acted as such things are acted at the Maison de Molière is one of the greatest possible pleasures, we may perhaps say that in the case of this pleasure being inaccessible by reason of remoteness, a fair substitute for the entertainment may be found in reading the published drama. "Les Fourchambault," at any rate, reads extremely well, and forms a worthy supplement to that collective edition of the author's works which has been issued during the past year, in seven substantial volumes, by Calmann Lévy. In these seven volumes, by the way, M. Emile Augier makes a very honorable show; the modern theatre has few stronger pieces than "L'Aventurière" and "Le Mariage d'Olympe," "Les Lionnes Pauvres" and "Maître Guérin," just as it has nothing more charming than "Philiberte." Alexander Dumas the younger, alone, can contest the supremacy on their common line of the author of these masterly dramas. The two writers have many points of contact. The list of their works is of about equal length; both are members of the Academy; both are would-be moralists; both attempt the social, it may even be said the didactic, rather than the romantic or the simply entertaining, drama. In Paris there is scarcely any event so important as the appearance of a new play by one of these gentlemen, unless it be the production of a piece by the other. M. Emile Augier, on his social side, is preoccupied with the sanctity of the family, as they say in France; he "goes in," as they say in England, for the importance of the domestic affections. This is his most frequent thesis. He does not wage war quite so unremittingly as his brilliant rival upon misplaced gallantry and the encroachments of mercenary wiles; but the most earnest effort of his muse may be said to be to keep the family well together. In "Les Fourchambault," thanks to a variety of causes, it is in terrible danger of falling apart; but cohesion is ultimately restored—the manner in which it is restored forming the subject of the play. In French plays these results are sometimes brought about very oddly. Here, for instance, the good example is set to the household of M. Fourchambault by a lady who has been M. Fourchambault's mistress and by her son, who is also that of M. Fourchambault. This is a curious example of the assumption, so frequent in French novels and plays, that to take a high attitude one must have done something very improper. Upon the didactic properties of these productions English readers are always certain to make their own reflections; they think it strange to see so much pleading of causes which, among themselves, are not in the way of being lost. They reflect, too, doubtless, upon some of their other properties—their finish and shapeliness, their neat, artistic, scientific form. Only, if on one side they feel no need of learning the lesson, on the other, too often, they seem unable to apply it.

—*L'Art* has never been, in its short term of existence, more diligent in adding to artistic bibliography than in the last quarterly volume, the twelfth since the beginning. The by-ways of professional research have been carefully explored by patient investigators, and "inedited" documents produced to explain the career of such masters as Filippo Lippi, Franz Hals, Callot, Guardi, Rubens, Rosalba Carriera, and Leone Leoni, the sculptor who has left a whole gallery of images of Charles V. and his family. Of contemporaries, the volume contains analytic notices of Viollet-le-Duc, of Courbet, of Brion, and of Léon Belly. The brilliancy of the illustrations in this greatest of periodicals somewhat eclipses the excellence, at once historical and critical, of its text, which forms as it runs a serial biographic dictionary, elsewhere unmatched. The gentle but persistent malice of *L'Art* towards its older colleague, the *Gazette des Beaux-Arts*, seems to have diminished to a rather humble willingness to use material formerly employed by its rival; at any rate, it now introduces one of the most charming etchings of Jacquemart's ever published in the *Gazette*, the lovely "Infanta Isabella," after Simon de Vos. It is true that this plagiary is made apropos of an auction sale of the painting, and with a veiled apology to somebody—certainly not to the original publisher. In the productions of its own etchers, *L'Art* assuredly shows no diminution of excellence, and no necessity of relying on borrowed skill. There is, for example, a large aqua-fortis (plate 10 by 13 inches) called "Une Mauvaise Plaisanterie," representing a court violinist suddenly overthrown in a crowded audience by the hasty withdrawal of his chair at the hands of a fair joker. It is quite surprising how M. Lalauze has here suggested, by mere trick of the etching-needle, the blaze of color, the play of changeable tissues, and the broad beaming vulgarity of glossy floors, altogether making up one of the modern popular kaleidoscope pictures of the "Roman School." In severer workmanship, just after this plate, is inserted an etching of one of the great Velasquez full-length subjects of the Museo del Prado, the "Menippus," described by Beulé as "one of those beggars who have of old formed the glory of Spain, bold, cynical, ready for anything, draped in a tattered cloak, red of nose and caustic of lip." Lhuillier's etching has the brushwork of Velasquez in its breadth, its simplicity, its mystical method wrapped up in frankness. The portrait of the Parisian etcher, Bracquemond, by Rajon, is a study in another style, showing the incisiveness and intricate detail, the blond serenity of light, of Holbein, along with his jeweller-like superficiality, which seems to play upon surface without developing structure. The largest plate in the volume, needing for its accommodation the full folio page, is the "Delivering of Andromeda," by Rubens, one of the treasures of Madrid. Here the etcher, Milius, enamored of the rich contrast between the dark armor of Perseus and the fruity flesh of Andromeda, seems positively to work with the juices and glazes of the palette rather than with the dry-point and the acids of the plate. The variety and great perfection of these and other etchings in the present instalment of *L'Art* are a powerful argument for the claims of aqua-fortis as a method. A series of line-engravings, taken from however great a variety of paintings, will look like nothing on earth but line-engravings. A uniform web of strokes, a contracted range of processes, gives a family likeness and an identity of color to plates from Flemish work, Bolognese work, Venetian work, Dutch work. It is for etching, with its inspired haste, its immediate transfer of the impression of eye and brain, to change from style to style, and fulfil for the most widely-separated mannerists the office of interpreter. For the public who do not see the original masterpieces, the intelligible critic, and the only adequate and eloquent critic, is the etcher. Another method, however, employed by *L'Art* with unsurpassable tact and liveliness, is the photo-engraving process, by which is repeated, absolutely without loss, the artist's sketch for the reader's eye; in this kind, the seven large facsimiles of Millet's drawings, the repetitions of Brion's expressive types and of Belly's poetic orientalisms, make the originals, in every artistic sense, the property of the subscriber. *L'Art* is now preparing very full pictorial reports of the Paris Exposition, a feature which will constitute the specialty of the coming volume. The price to subscribers has been reduced by the American publisher, Mr. J. W. Bouton, from $36 to $32 per annum.

—A careful study of the history and remains of the Phœnicians in France is made by the Abbé Barges, Professor of Hebrew in the Sorbonne, in his 'Les Colonies Phéniciennes sur le littoral de la Celtoligurie.' Marseilles has furnished what is, next to the Moabite stone and the Sidonian inscription of Eshmunazar, the most important relic of the Phœnician alphabet and language; indeed, M. Barges, with some pride, insists that it is a more important monument than that from Sidon, and thinks it probable that the remaining quarter of the stone will be discovered whenever the old house is torn down in whose foundation it was found. With good reason our author is convinced that the Phœnicians occupied the coast long before the Phocæan invasion, and many of the

names he traces to Phœnician sources. Massalia, the older form of Massilia and Marseilles, however, he makes of Celtic origin, and does not seem to think the Semitic derivation from *Mazzâl*, a dwelling, a settlement, suggested by so good a Phœnician scholar as Schröder, even worth mentioning, if he has ever heard of it. It will be a surprise to not a few well-informed scholars to learn how many and valuable Phœnician monuments have been found in Marseilles. Several altars of Baal and several steles of Baal-Hammon and of Tanith, with figures of these divinities in relief, are given in plates scattered through the volume. One of Baal-Hammon represents the divinity standing in a niche, with a very sun-like face, while above, near the top of the stone, in a circle by itself, is the same round head surrounded by rays, sufficiently explaining how the Greeks identified him with Apollo, and rendering it quite superfluous to suggest, as M. Barges does, a resemblance of sound between the names of Apollo and Baal-Hammon. The column also explains what were the *Hammânim* destroyed by the pious kings of Judah. While reading this volume we hear the news of the discovery of another Phœnician (!) monument in America, this time in the city of Boston. Seeing that the ancient Athens has produced several valuable Phœnician monuments, it seems reasonable that the modern one should do as much. It certainly should not fall behind Brazil, which afforded our last Phœnician inscription.

NEVILE'S HORSES AND RIDING.*

THE interest felt in this country in things pertaining to saddle-work is largely a matter of tradition, but it is a vital interest nevertheless, and an enthusiasm for horsemanship is by no means confined to those who are able to indulge in its practice. Just as the traditional instinct which leads boys to look with delight upon the idea of killing something with a weapon is an inheritance from the time when the pursuit of game was the pursuit of food, so does the instinct of horsemanship trace back to the horse-riding race from which we are so largely descended. We have little more than the tradition left, and it is undoubtedly true that Americans get far more delight, in the aggregate, from thinking about riding than from riding itself. Climate, close occupation, want of means, and want of company, all tend to restrict the number of those who keep saddle-horses and who ride regularly. The supply, keeping pace with the demand, has reduced itself to such narrow limits that it is a matter of real difficulty to buy a thoroughly good saddle-horse in any American city.

Although there is little call for saddle-horses themselves, there is a considerable public which is interested in books about saddle-horses. We do our cross-country work in the library, but we do a good deal of it, and those who in this way keep pace with the literature of the art will welcome with real satisfaction the book under consideration. Indeed, its claim upon our attention is justified by the single outline sketch, entitled "The Right Sort of Horse to Buy." This is not much more than an outline of a horse, saddled and bridled and ready to mount; but of all the pictures of saddle-horses that we have seen it is by far the best—perfect in all that it shows and charming in all it suggests.

Mr. Nevile gives as the reason for writing his book "a genuine fondness for horses, combined with a recollection of the falls I have had, the good runs I have lost, and the disappointments I have met with from want of the knowledge contained in its pages." His qualifications for his work are based mainly upon a shrewd judgment, much careful observation, and an inborn talent for directness of statement. He has obviously written with little regard to what others have written before him, and he sometimes runs counter to the accepted belief, and fails always to convince us that he is wise in so doing. Any defect of this sort is much more than compensated for by his originality. Incidentally, many of his sentences are revelations as to what may be done with words of a single syllable. Concerning most of the books about horsemanship, he refers to Macaulay's remark about officers and gentlemen, and says: "There are good horsemen and there are good authors, but as a rule the horsemen are not authors, and the authors are not horsemen."

The instructions given for the choosing of a horse are valuable. For example: "A horse's back ribs should be large—that is, his body should look as big near the hind legs as near the fore legs. A horse which looks light in the stomach when he is fat in his limbs will not be so enduring as a horse which looks thick in the middle at all times." Speaking of the top view of a horse, such as the view of the wheelers from a high coach-box: "The horse's body should be the same shape as a hen's egg, with the broad end towards the tail. The back ribs will then be the broadest part of him, which they ought to be." . . . "The ears should be near together and curved slightly inwards."

The following quotations give a good idea of the character of the book, and are worth making for their own sake:

"The top of a horse's neck where the mane grows should be thick and hard, and the mane itself thin and light."

"If you are doubtful as to a horse's shoulder, don't go and look at another horse's shoulder, and particularly not one of a horse belonging to the same owner as the first, for if he is not a good judge of a shoulder, he is just as likely to buy two horses with indifferent shoulders as one. . . . Now, there are three ways of finding out what a horse's shoulder is like. First, looking at him when he is standing still; secondly, watching him while in motion; and thirdly, riding him yourself and *feeling* his action. Of these plans all should be used; but the third is better than the second, and the second better than the first.

"The upper bone of the leg, from the knee to the horse's body, is called the radius; and between this bone and the scapula or shoulder is a shorter bone called the humerus. The humerus is slanting as well as the scapula, but in the contrary direction; that is, the bottom of the scapula and the top of the humerus are the forwardest. Now it must be borne in mind that while the scapula is better placed the more it slants, and the less upright it is, the humerus, on the other hand, is better placed the *less* it slants and the *more upright* it is.

"I would here say that as the only reason why a good shoulder is better for riding is because the horse will have better and safer action with a good shoulder; therefore if you are certain that a horse's action is good there is no need to go any further."

"Now, to judge of a horse's shape, draw two imaginary lines from this corner [where the rear edge of the flap meets the body of the saddle], one to the lowest part of the horse's breast and the other to the furthest part of his hind quarters. These two lines with an ordinary saddle ought to be, but rarely are, nearly of equal length. Generally the line drawn from this corner to the hind quarter is much longer than the line drawn to the breast; and the more difference there is the worse the horse's action will be as regards safety on uneven ground. This is as good a method of forming an opinion of a horse at a glance as I know: Ride the horse along the road until you come somewhere where there is a foot-path or piece of grass raised six or eight inches above the road. Now ride the horse quietly a few yards along the raised edge of the foot-path at a walk, and then, letting his head remain quite loose, turn him slightly so that he steps off the foot-path slant-ways on to the road. If his shoulders are good he will step off without any difficulty, and if you had your eyes shut you would not be able to tell when he did so. If his shoulders are bad he will either stumble or drop heavily on to the foot he first puts on the road, so that he gives you a disagreeable shock up your backbone. . . . When a horse's shoulders are good he can step down a foot, or nearly so, and reach the ground with one foot before he takes the weight off his other foot."

"A good horse's value increases very much for each inch that he measures over fifteen hands, or five feet, up to sixteen hands and an inch, or five feet five. . . . Horses above sixteen-one are of no greater value than horses of that height or an inch less. . . . As a rule, a man will have more pleasure in possessing a good small horse than a moderate horse of greater size. Therefore, settle what is the *most* money you can give and what is the *least* size you can do with, and then get the best you can of that size and at that price." "As a rough-and-ready rule, if a horse, well formed and in fair hunting condition, is weighed, he will be found able to carry about nineteen per cent. of his own weight [across country is meant]. The better bred a horse is, the better he will carry any weight that he *can* carry; and the less blood there is in a horse's breeding, the greater weight they can carry *at their own pace*. . . . As a rule, the harder the rider, and the more open the country, the better bred the horse ought to be. Fences stop hounds more than they do horses, and the smaller the enclosures and the larger the fences, the easier it is for a horse that can jump to keep pace with the hounds, and the less speedy and, therefore, the less well bred is it necessary for the hunter to be."

On the subjects of road-riding, cross-country-riding, and leaping, Mr. Nevile is particularly satisfactory:

"Now, what is the first requisite to enable you to ride a horse with pleasure and safety? The first requisite is, I take it, that you should be quite certain that you can stop him if you want to stop him. The second requisite is that you should always be able to make him go on when you want him to go on. I have given the first the precedence for this reason, that if you can't make a horse go on when you want, you only suffer inconvenience as a rule; whereas, when you can't stop a horse when you want, your safety may be endangered." "One of the best ways of teaching a horse not to do anything you don't want him to do is to arrange matters so that it is difficult if not impracticable for him to do what you don't want him to do. Now, it is impossible for a horse to move forward when there is a brick wall immediately in front of his head, and therefore, when you want to cure him of moving forward as you are getting up, you should turn him with his head to a wall. A horse mounted a few times in this manner will acquire the habit of standing still while he is being mounted, even with his head loose. In mounting on the road, stand him with his head in the opposite direction from that toward which you intend him to go. If he then moves forward, he will find that he has to turn round and go back again, and will learn from experience to await directions."

* 'Horses and Riding. By George Nevile, Esq., M.A. With numerous illustrations by the author.' Second edition. London: Longmans, Green & Co.; New York: Scribner, Welford & Armstrong. 1877. Pp. 211.

"It is difficult to define or classify a good rider; but in order to give my readers an idea of what I mean, I will divide men who can ride into two classes, a good rider and a good horseman. . . . A good rider can ride a horse when he has got one, while a good horseman can make a good hunter out of a horse that knows nothing about it. . . . As a rule, what is called a hard rider is not a very good horseman. . . . Again, being able to ride anything, which some people think is a test of a good rider, is little or no test of a good horseman. . . . If any one wishes to form an opinion as to how good a rider or horseman he is, let him try the following experiment: Let him take the handiest horse in his stable, and take it alone to a moderately-sized hedge and ditch. Then let him put half a crown between each leg and the saddle wherever he thinks best, and tie his reins with a bit of pack-thread to the breastplate, so that they will not fly over the horse's head when he jumps, and then let him see if he can take his horse up to the hedge and jump him over it with his hands in his pockets without dropping the half-crowns. If he cannot do this, or if his horse will not allow him to do this, both he and his horse have still something to learn. My readers must not think that if they cannot do this they are not good riders. Very many good riders could not do it. I only give this as a specimen of what a good horseman can teach himself and his horse to do."

"People often ride a young horse at a fence, holding him tight by the head for fear he should spin round, and spurring him for fear he should stop, and as often as not striking him just as he is taking off, for fear he should not jump high enough. Now, a young horse dislikes all three of these things excessively, and if he has at all a tender mouth, all three of them hurt him in different places at once. No wonder, then, that he acquires the habit of going as hard as he can pelt at a fence to get over with as little punishment to himself as possible, and soon acquires the habit of doing this even if he is neither spurred nor whipped."

The chapter on leaping is full of good sense. Its instructions are quite different in many respects from those to which we are accustomed. The fundamental principle is that a horse should be taught to leap or to do anything else quite as a matter of course, and that no difference of opinion between him and his rider should be emphasized and impressed on his memory. A horse will sometimes refuse a fence and then jump it on being taken to it a second time; "but if he refuses it the second time you ought not to ride him at it a third time." If the fence is too large, he may be taken to a smaller one and kept at it with only a gentle kicking of the heels and allowed to take it in his own way. If he still refuses, he should be taken away. If he jumps it, he should be allowed to go his own pace for a bit and then pulled up gently. "He should not be encouraged or petted as though he had done something wonderful," but should be made to think that you wanted to get into the next field and that he had to jump the fence to get there. "For this reason it is highly wrong to strike your horse after he has got over the fence, and it is decidedly foolish to turn him around and make him jump back again. A horse soon learns that you want him to get into the next field; but if you strike him when he has got there, he does not know what you want him to do, and if you turn him round and jump him back, he does not know where you want him to go." This, of course, applies to the education of young horses. To a well-trained and spirited fencer the mere act of leaping is a sufficient reward, and the same leap will be taken over and over again with delight.

The following point we have not seen suggested elsewhere. "When a horse jumps a small fence or ditch he lights on his fore legs and picks them up again before his hind feet come to the ground. . . . If a horse comes down on his fore feet after a large jump there is danger of his not getting his fore feet out of the road of his hind ones and thus getting a fall." A horse which has his head held when he jumps is more likely to fall from this cause than when he goes with his head loose.

We have sufficiently indicated above Mr. Nevile's manner of treating some of the more interesting parts of his subject. He is equally sensible and suggestive as to the more prosaic details of saddlery, stabling, feeding and shoeing, and unsoundness.

ADAMS'S GREAT CAMPAIGNS.*

THE preface to this large and handsome book informs us that its subject-matter "has been compiled from a long series of printed and manuscript works left by the late Major Charles Adams." It is a book to which the reviewer desires to do full justice, and yet the task is unusually difficult. Many hours of attentive examination leave but uncertain impressions upon the mind. It is plain that the author was a man of extensive knowledge of military history, of untiring industry in the collection of material, and of laborious thought; and yet it seems to us extremely doubtful whether his book will be of much service. If the great mass had been worked over by the editor with the same skill which he has shown in "introducing new matter necessary for continuity," the result might have been very different.

There are three classes of readers who may like to know what manner of book this is. These are the general reader, the amateur military student, and the thorough professional student of the art of war. The general reader must not touch it. He could hardly find a page which he would have the patience to read through. If he has had enough of Marengo and Austerlitz and Friedland and Waterloo, and fancies he would find in Gravelotte a "fresh field and pasture new," and turns to the chapter entitled, "Campaign of 1870–1871—Gravelotte," he will find that though this is the running title of more than one hundred pages, the battle itself is described in half a page—that is to say, it is not described at all. The great battle of Königgrätz is described at greater length, but the description only occupies five pages of the one hundred and thirty-six of which the running title is "Campaign in Bohemia—1866—Königgrätz." The amateur military student will be better off; but if he opens these pages with his mind full of pleasant memories of Napier and Hozier and Kinglake, and of lives of Marlborough and Wellington and Grant, his surprise and disappointment will be great. He will speedily discover that he has entered upon no primrose path; that he must advance painfully and slowly, with his faculties awake and his attention concentrated, and even so we think he may go further without faring worse. The third class to which we have referred must pronounce for themselves upon the merit of this book. They are not numerous, and the writer is not one of them, but even to them a finger-post is useful, and such we may hope to furnish.

The book treats of campaigns in Italy, North and South Germany, Poland, Saxony, France, Belgium, and Bohemia, from 1796 to 1870, and especially of the operations connected with the battles of Montenotte, Marengo, Ulm, Austerlitz, Jena, Friedland, Dresden, Montmirail, Waterloo, Novara, Magenta, Königgrätz, Custozza, and Gravelotte. The author's attention is mostly occupied with strategy. He has comparatively little to say about tactics, and next to nothing of logistics. He is satisfactorily full in his statements of the geography and topography of the regions which are the scenes of the operations that he describes, and of the courses of political events which led to the collisions above mentioned. He has also much to say about the national characteristics of the peoples who furnish the armies which took part in those collisions, and of the composition, organization, force, and efficiency of those armies. But, upon the whole, it seems to us that the motto of the book might well be "materiam superabat opus" reversed.

We are surprised to find in a book published since the entry of the Prussians into Paris that in 1866 Austria was "the one Power most interested in all that pertained to military progress in Prussia." We are confused by reading how a general reached a place after we have read what he did after getting there, as in the case of General Beyer's movements before and after reaching Cassel, in the campaign of 1866. In the same campaign there was a Crown Prince in each army, the Crown Prince of Prussia and the Austrian Crown Prince; and each is mentioned simply as "the Crown Prince," and it is not always easy to tell which is meant. So the two Frankfurts are not distinguished; but perhaps this should not be censured, as the context will resolve the doubt for every one who has something more than a smattering of geography. And here, by the way, it may fairly be said that many of the obscurities which make this book disappointing might not be obscurities to a reader who was already really familiar with the territory and the events described. It is not so easy to excuse the mention of "the unavoidable consequences of the battle of Borny," when no battle of Borny has been mentioned and the index does not contain the name. Nor can we understand the process by which MacMahon's army of, "in all, about 120,000 men," after gathering in, "in addition, some 12,000 of the cavalry reserve and one division of Canrobert's corps," still amounted to only about 120,000 men (p. 551). The value of the book as a book of reference is impaired by the omission from the maps of the names of places which have possessed at times considerable military importance. We look in vain upon them for Langensalza, Göttingen, Riesa, Pirna, Pardubitz, and the names of many places in France at which there was fighting in the campaign of 1870. There are no lines upon the maps to mark the boundaries of Galicia, Silesia, Moravia, and Bohemia.

The style of a work like this is a matter of secondary importance. Major Adams's composition shows plain marks of carelessness. He says that the absence of certain intelligence was "compensated for by the loss

* 'Great Campaigns: A Succinct Account of the Principal Military Operations which have taken place in Europe from 1796 to 1870. Edited from the Lectures and Writings of the late Major C. Adams, Professor of Military History at the Royal Military and Staff Colleges. By Captain C. Cooper King, R. M. Artillery, Instructor of Tactics Royal Military College.' Edinburgh and London: William Blackwood & Sons; New York: Scribner, Welford & Armstrong. 1877.

of 40,000 soldiers"; "it was clear that the plan had crossed"; "the companies were to be strengthened and brought up to that of the Prussian army, 1,000 strong"; "Bazaine had only taken over supreme command thirty-six hours before." In the third of these examples, 1,000 is probably an error for 100; but with that correction made, the sentence is very defective. Here should be mentioned the author's partiality for the word "genial," and the singular use he makes of it. He speaks of "want of geniality in the conception of the Austrian plan"; "the want of a genial appreciation of the military situation"; "the imperishable doctrines which the genial spirit of Clausewitz bequeathed." This is good German, but not English.

The chapter upon the operations for the reduction of Metz is one of the best in the book, so far as we have observed, and we advise the intending purchaser to begin with that. It gratifies our national pride to learn that an English military writer is willing to find anything good in American warfare. Major Adams acknowledges the merit of the practice developed in our war of secession of covering our lines, whenever we halted in presence of the enemy, with hastily-constructed earthworks. The author's remarks upon the general course of events in Europe; his estimate of Bismarck and of Louis Napoleon; his statement of the elements, other than physical, from which the fighting power of infantry is extracted; his criticism of the Austrian system of appointing competent officers for the inspiration of incompetent generals who owe their positions to hereditary influence; his comments upon the unwisdom of having a commander-in-chief who is simply a tactician, as in the case of Benedek, and of following the custom of throwing the shield, as he says Austria invariably has, over unfortunate generals, and of never disclosing, perhaps barely investigating, the causes of their mishaps; and his wise remarks upon the prevalent errors as to the theory of the concentration of force, in the course of which he says it is probably worse to over-concentrate than to disseminate, may all be read with pleasure, and most of them with profit, and they combine, with many other sensible utterances, to give a real value to the book. The patient reader who gives due attention to all such matter will gain something, and he who goes further and studies thoroughly the author's criticisms of what was done, and his statements of what might have been done, in the campaigns which he describes, will gain much from the use of this book, which, however, as we began with saying, is not to be taken lightly in hand.

Life and Letters of James Hinton. Edited by Ellice Hopkins. With an Introduction by Sir W. W. Gull. (London: C. Kegan Paul & Co. 1878.)—No reader of any one of Mr. Hinton's thoughtful and suggestive books, we are inclined to believe, could be otherwise than curious as to its author's personality; and the lady to whom we owe the graceful and genial memoir which we are about to notice will be allowed, by all who are thus curious, to have executed her task most ably.

Mr. James Hinton, who was born at Reading in 1822, was son of the Rev. Howard Hinton, a Baptist minister well reputed in his generation. On the paternal side, he was descended from the Taylors of Ongar; the Rev. Howard Hinton and the estimable author of 'The Natural History of Enthusiasm' both having been grandsons of Josiah Taylor, the engraver. The mental culture of Mr. Hinton, as a boy, seems to have been looked after somewhat negligently. When only sixteen, on his father's removing to London, he already ceased to attend school. His thirst for knowledge was, however, insatiable, and, as in his youth, so throughout his career. At the age of twenty he was entered at St. Bartholomew's Hospital, and began the study of medicine. After taking his diploma he spent several years, when not at sea, in China, Sierra Leone, Jamaica, and New Orleans. On his return to England, in 1850, his attention was specially directed to aural surgery by his success in curing the deafness of his mother. An introduction to Mr. Toynbee, the leading English aurist of the day, soon followed; and, on his death, he succeeded to his practice, having previously acted as his assistant, besides filling the post of aural surgeon to Guy's Hospital. A few years of steady application to his profession sufficed to place him in easy circumstances. In 1875 he emigrated to St. Michael, one of the Azores, where he had purchased an estate, and there, at Ponta Delgada, died suddenly, from inflammation of the brain, on the 16th of December, in the same year.

The details of his life and his numerous letters constitute an impressive picture of a man remarkable alike for intellectual vigor, activity, and independence, for rigid and lofty self-sacrifice, and for the most disinterested philanthropy. Almost from his boyhood, and to the very last, his thoughts were well-nigh engrossed by the radical problems of mind and matter, and by the incidence of a right appreciation of them on the welfare of humanity. During a period of five years, while he was engaged in active practice as an aurist, he resolutely abstained from using his pen, except in connection with his special profession. Had wealth been his aim, it was obviously within his easy reach. A moderate competency achieved, however, he hastened to withdraw from the world, with purpose to devote himself exclusively to the pursuit of philosophy. Much as he published, vastly more, only in a condition available by no one but himself, lay by him in manuscript, waiting to be modified by his riper reflection, and to be digested into the system which, as his friends well knew, had long been completed in his conception. But he had overtasked his physical strength, considerable as that was; and he must now be estimated as a thinker from that which, if he had lived and worked a few years more, would probably have seemed only rudimentary and tentative in comparison with his ultimate and matured conclusions.

Among the fundamentals of Mr. Hinton's philosophy a marked feature presents itself in his rejection of the atom, for which, with Faraday and other eminent modern scientists, he substituted a centre of force; herein following Boscovitch. Almost of necessity, he who sets out with this hypothesis must discard the sharp distinction which is ordinarily taken between what are popularly denominated matter and mind. That, in consequence of ignoring this distinction, mind is materialized, is not, however, an inevitable logical inference. On the contrary, matter may thereby be spiritualized, if we may be allowed the expression; and so it was in all the speculations of Mr. Hinton. It is, he contended, from our unreflecting deference to the dictates of authority, rather than from observing without prepossession for ourselves, and reasoning consequentially on what we observe, that we see in nature a counterpart of our own deadness, the offspring of sloth and wilful blindness. Moreover, he maintained that the physical, rightly apprehended, is the phenomenon of an actual. But on these and kindred views we shall not dwell; it being enough to note here that they involve nothing which fails to harmonize entirely with the deductions of the most advanced science.

Distinctly, yet not obtrusively, the philosophy of Mr. Hinton is found to permeate nearly all that he lived to publish. But, even if his philosophy be declined, his works will be shorn of nothing of their practical utility. Among these works we would particularly name 'The Place of the Physician,' 'Man and his Dwelling-Place,' 'Life in Nature,' 'Thoughts on Health and some of its Conditions,' and 'The Mystery of Pain.' Nor must we omit to mention 'Others' Needs,' a little lay sermon which he put forth anonymously in the form of a tract. No one, we are sure, could read it attentively without being induced to wish for further acquaintance with the thoughts of its writer.

The volume of which we now take leave exhibits an interesting consecutive record of the steps by which a man of exceptionally vigorous natural parts, alert and even fervid emotion, and intrepid devotion to the search of truth, strove—and triumphantly—to emancipate himself from a host of traditional and conventional prescriptions. Woman, with her manifold potentialities, will also be seen there to have a large measure of far-reaching consideration assigned her. The general impression which the memoir leaves, if saddening, is at the same time one which instructs. Mr. Hinton, even had his days been prolonged, might not have elaborated a system destined to be rated by others at the value set upon it by its originator. Yet, as it is, he has left behind him a plentiful store of striking hints and original suggestions which cannot fail of beneficial influence on our contemporaries, and, mediately or immediately, on our children as well.

Les Antiquités de la Troade et l'histoire primitive des contrées grecques. Par François Lenormant. (Part I. Paris. 1876.)—François Lenormant made his début as an archæologist at a very early age, and has since almost constantly been before the public. Of his more recent works his 'Manuel d'histoire ancienne de l'Orient,' 'Études accadiennes,' 'La langue primitive des Chaldéens et les idiomes touraniens,' and the book before us, are the most important. He is a very diligent but easy-going critic. He is inclined to accept as true what great authorities announce with sufficient positiveness as a new discovery. He examines the latest results with serious but good-natured inquisitiveness, applies the test of a criticism entirely free from captiousness, modifies his own former conclusions with the readiness of a disciple, and communicates the latest acquisitions with an obvious fondness for both learning and book-making. He elucidates the conceptions of others, adds observations of his own, and expatiates on the subject, always in a pleasant way. He enters perhaps too easily upon insecure paths through the

mazes of antiquity, but he follows sound guides; and if at the end of his search he finds not truth, but conjectures, the results are still interesting. In the study before us he moves on a firmer ground than is his favorite field of primitive Chaldea, and the conclusions which he propounds reflect the views of a large number of competent enquirers.

Dr. Schliemann's discoveries in the Troad M. Lenormant speaks of with high praise, but he stanchly refuses to acknowledge the identity of the sites and things discovered at the hill of Hissarlik with those sung in the 'Iliad.' Even if localities at Hissarlik fully corresponded to the Homeric description, they would prove that the bard or bards of the epic, centuries after the events immortalized, thus localized the Troy of vague traditions; but the question would remain, whether they did it with right judgment. The claims of neither Hissarlik nor Bunarbashi to the distinction of representing the city of Priam admit as yet of a final decision. But Hissarlik, in its various layers unearthed by Schliemann, presents the remains of several places built one on the ruins of the other, of which the uppermost was the Ilium of the Macedonian and Roman periods, the next the Ilium of the Æolian colonies, who thought they had established themselves on the site of the city destroyed by the Greeks, and one much lower, at the depth of sixteen metres, the primitive town, belonging to a remote period of indigenous civilization. This latter, however, does not reflect the stage of culture depicted in the 'Iliad'; its remains evidently betray a much ruder state of development. The people that inhabited it may be said to have lived in a period of transition from the age of stone to that of metals, a number of centuries before the fall of the Homeric Troy, which M. Lenormant, believing in the historical basis of the 'Iliad,' is inclined to assume with Clinton to have taken place in the last third of the twelfth century B.C.

M. Lenormant, however, does not doubt that Schliemann has discovered "the ruins of a town which, at an exceedingly remote age, was the capital of those Dardanians or Teucrians whose power is attested by monumental texts of Pharaonic Egypt ruled by the nineteenth and twentieth dynasties." The hieratic papyrus Sallier enumerates among the confederates who came to the aid of the Khetas on the Orontes, in the fifth year of Rameses II., a chief of the *Dardani* (Dardanians), who figures together with the chiefs of *Leka* (Lycians), *Masa* (Mysians), and *Akerit* (Carians), all peoples enumerated in the 'Iliad' among the defenders of Troy. Inscriptions at Medinet Abu, which immortalize the deeds of Rameses III., mention among his adversaries, allies of the Libyans, "the *Pelesta* of the middle of the sea—Pelasgians of Crete, ancestors of the Philistines—*Te'kkri*, Teucrians, the *Daanau*, Peloponnesian Danai, the *Tursha* or Tyrrhenians," etc., and the Teucrians appear among the naval combatants of the enemies of the Pharao. These Teucrians, like their allies the Lycians, Danai, Tyrrhenians, were of the Pelasgic race, to which M. Lenormant also assigns, without any qualification, not only the Phrygians and Carians, but also the Lydians and Philistines, rejecting the Semitic Lud of Genesis, and ignoring the purely Semitic character of all Philistine history. The Pelasgo-Hellenic character of the language of the primitive inhabitants of the Troad he believes to have been established by the deciphering of an inscription—in characters resembling the Cypriote alphabet—repeatedly found among the remains in baked clay dug up by Schliemann at Hissarlik. This inscription the late Prof. Haug, a high authority, read thus: *ta-a-o* or *ta-i-o Si-go-o*, corresponding to θεῶ or θείῳ Σιγῶ, to the god, or to the divine, Sigus; which explains the name of the Sigæan promontory, near Troy, as consecrated to a divinity formerly unknown to Hellenists. The same name is presumed to be contained also in another inscription, and possibly also in the *πύλαι Σκαιαί* of the 'Iliad.'

Altogether, the remains unearthed by Schliemann prove that the primitive town to which they belonged had not yet come in contact with either Egyptians, Phœnicians, or Assyrians, all of whom had extended their influence and civilization to the confines of the Pelasgic peoples of Asia Minor long before the Trojan war of Greek tradition. About the spread of Phœnician colonies and Phœnician culture over the islands of the Ægean and many coasts of the Hellenic mainland—while the coasts of Asia Minor remained almost exclusively under the sway of the "Eastern Pelasgians"—our book contains interesting particulars, which will, however, not appear new to those familiar with the author's former productions. Repetition, especially if rendered excusable by amplification or modification, is not among the things which he avoids. Of the very illustrations of the book before us—and they form a valuable part of it—one is twice given in it (p. 38 and p. 80). The work is in every way executed so as to be generally attractive, and is therefore free from displays of erudition, which may explain the absence of references to the many authors introduced as authorities. That among these the name of Ebers does not occur, especially in connection with such topics as the abovementioned origin of the Philistines and the Caphtor of Scriptures, on which that German scholar has written so learnedly, is rather surprising. Those topics are, however, sweepingly dealt with altogether.

Pensées of Joubert. Selected and translated, with the original French appended. By Henry Attwell. (London and New York: Macmillan & Co.)—Many readers will remember the graceful sketch of Joubert in Mr. Matthew Arnold's 'Essays in Criticism,' and the claim for urbanity, sweet reasonableness, the academic quality, and other cognate virtues made by the English critic on behalf of his French precursor. The impression of most of such readers will perhaps have been that Joubert was a singularly ingenious and delicate writer—a literary man of exquisite taste—but that he was not quite the high authority which Mr. Matthew Arnold appeared to deem him. The latter writer, however, has hitherto remained the chief source of information for English readers about the author of these carefully-elaborated 'Pensées.' To-day Mr. Attwell publishes a version in our own less pensive tongue of the maxims and reflections which are Joubert's chief title to distinction. Assuming that it was wise to attempt to translate them, the work has been very neatly and happily performed. The translator has evidently weighed his English equivalents patiently, and has rarely contented himself with a vague or a rough rendering. At the same time that he has been literal, he has succeeded in making Joubert's superior epigrams appear natural and free, and as he has reprinted the French originals at the end of his pretty volume, we are able to measure his fidelity as we go.

We question to a certain extent, however, whether the task was worth performing, and whether Joubert's aphorisms may not be said to do a certain violence, at the best, to English ways of thinking and expressing things. English, as compared with French, is a very unepigrammatic tongue, and it was to the resources of his native language for epigram that Joubert constantly appealed. How abundant these are is proved by the degree to which the writing of maxims and aphorisms has always flourished in France. It is a favorite amusement of what may be called amateur thinkers; where an English mind relieves itself in a copy of verses, a thoughtful French person, of either sex, is very likely to commit to paper a dozen or two of more or less pregnant and studiously concise prose reflections. Of course Joubert was not what we have called an amateur; he was rather a professional producer of maxims. "If ever," he says, "a man was tormented by the accursed ambition of putting a whole book into a page, a whole page into a phrase, and that phrase into a word, I am that man." The skill with which he compresses a great deal of suggestion into a very few words is often most noticeable. He is extremely serious; if he is not so serious as Pascal, he strikes us as much more serious than La Rochefoucauld; but it must be said that his aphorisms also strike us as being sometimes much more fanciful than substantial.

This, however, is inevitable in all makers of *pensées*, and Joubert made a great many on many different subjects, though what Mr. Attwell has published is but a selection. A real *pensée*, like a real lyric, should be born of a particular occasion or of a strong emotion. But a great many of those of Joubert are real. "There is in the soul a taste for the good" (*un gout qui aime le bien*), says Joubert, "just as there is in the soul an appetite for enjoyment." "One may err once—nay, a hundred times—without being double-minded (*sans avoir l'esprit faux*); there can never be mental duplicity where there is sincerity." "We may convince others by our arguments; we can only persuade them by their own." "The simple-hearted and sincere never do more than half deceive themselves." "The punishment of bad princes is to be thought worse than they really are." These are specimens of Joubert's happy hits, as we may say—things in which the neatness and what the French call the *justesse* are equal. The thought which follows the last quoted, by the way, runs in the original, "Toute autorité légitime doit aimer son étendue et ses limites"; or, as we should put it, "All legitimate authority should take satisfaction in its limits as well as in its extent." Mr. Attwell's rendering—"Every legitimate authority should *respect* its extent and its limits"—makes the idea more trivial than need have been. Sometimes, on the other hand, Joubert strikes us rather as playing with words than as really thinking thoughts; as, for instance, "It is good and beautiful that thoughts irradiate; but they should rarely glitter. It is best that they shine." For the most part, however, his *pensées* highly repay thinking over again. This is especially the case with the thoughts upon literary subjects, many of which are exceed-

ingly sagacious and penetrating. As we said at the beginning, if Joubert's reflections have, in the translator's hands, lost their verbal foreignness, they have often kept a certain foreignness of essence; but this volume would still be welcome, if on no other grounds than for the pages containing the original *pensées*.

A Commentary on the Law of Evidence in Civil Issues. By Francis Wharton, LL.D. In two volumes. (Philadelphia: Kay & Brother.)—Dr. Wharton is well known among lawyers as an industrious compiler of treatises on a variety of legal topics. His work on Evidence is, like his other books, compiled on the plan followed by most English and American legal book-makers—that is, of collecting all the decisions that are to be found in the volumes of reports, and stringing them together with a running comment, in which the law they are supposed to lay down is stated in a more or less coherent and consecutive manner. The collection of cases is often a monument of painstaking research. In these two volumes, for instance, there are collected some 17,000 cases, and the labor involved in writing anything at all about this mass of decisions may be shown from a very simple calculation. Allowing five pages of the original volume of reports to a case (and this is certainly a small allowance as an average), we find that to know what these 17,000 cases really are the author must have read 85,000 pages—pages, too, of not over-easy reading. Allowing six hours of steady reading to the day, and supposing twenty pages to be got through in an hour (taking it for granted, of course, that the reader makes *précis* of the decisions as he goes along), it would take two good years of work merely to find out what the cases on which the book is based really contained. Two years more to digest them thoroughly, extract the principles of decision from them, and so on, would hardly be more than a fair allowance. Not that this amount of labor is generally expended on legal treatises, or that we infer that Dr. Wharton has expended it. Owing to the peculiarity of our system of law, which makes judicial decisions and statutes alone of binding authority, the author knows that to find a market it is not absolutely necessary to do much more than to get all the cases together, so that the practising lawyer may feel in getting up his authorities that he is reasonably sure of finding the decisions he wants collated under particular heads, titles, and sub-titles.

We do not by any means wish to imply that Dr. Wharton has confined himself to a mere collection of cases. His aim is always more ambitious, and we infer from the philosophical discussion as to the nature of evidence in his "Preliminary Considerations" that he has honestly attempted to produce a treatise of lasting value. There are certain defects in Dr. Wharton's mind, however, which seriously interfere with his ability to carry out his intention, and the first of these is that he is not clear. Now, clearness is what is most needed in writing upon the law of evidence, and is the quality in which all the greatest writers on the subject, from Bentham to Sir James Stephen, have excelled. It is particularly necessary with regard to this branch of the law, for in this more than in any other there is a continual warfare between the natural and the actual legal system. Owing principally to our institution of trial by jury, certain classes of facts have from time immemorial been excluded from consideration, in the trial of cases in Anglo-Saxon countries, which in every other system of law, and in the formation of our private judgments, are admitted as a matter of course. Matters of opinion, facts as to character, hearsay, and matters similar to but not specifically connected with the matters in issue, are every day excluded from the consideration of juries in our court-rooms, though they are matters which, were the issue not in court, every juryman would inevitably take into account in making up his mind. This is not the case with any other branch of the law, and it makes the rules of evidence the most technical and the most difficult to follow with which a lawyer has to deal. They constitute the larger part of what now is left of the mystery which once surrounded our system of law and made the operation of its rules a hundred years ago absolutely unintelligible to laymen. Under the influence of Bentham and the spirit of reform which he represented, many of the irrational peculiarities of the law of evidence have been swept away. Whether further steps are needed is, perhaps, an open question; but there is no question that in legal writing about evidence nowadays the first requisite is a clear conception, first, of the true *rationale* of judicial evidence: second, of the precise character of the technical rules under our system; and third, of the modification of these rules actually accomplished in the interest of reform. Of the first two of these we think Dr. Wharton has ideas altogether vague. We cannot make out, for instance, what he understands to be the rule about "hearsay" or "res gestæ," nor how far either of them is in accordance with true principles. His language is the echo of his predecessors in the same field, and shows little or no originality. Those who are in search of an analysis of the law of evidence at once philosophical and technical must turn to Sir James Stephen's Digest, founded on his Indian Code (New York: Macmillan & Co.; St. Louis: Soule, Thomas & Wentworth), the most remarkable work on the subject which has appeared within the last half-century.

Old Homes Made New; being a Collection of Plans, Exterior and Interior Views, illustrating the alteration and remodelling of several suburban Residences. With Explanatory Text. By William M. Woollett, F.A.I.A. Author of "Villas and Cottages." (New York: A. J. Bicknell & Co. 1878.)—This book contains drawings and descriptions illustrating the alterations made to some half-dozen dwelling-houses by the author, who is an architect in Albany. These are fair examples of a class of work which has been very common all through the Eastern and Middle States for the past ten years, and not unknown before. The owners of old-fashioned farm-houses have been uneasy until they could give them an "architectural" and pretentious character; and a more worthy feeling has led them to require more convenient and agreeable interiors—so that, between the two, the old houses have had to undergo complete renovation. Mr. Woollett is quite right in saying that the buildings called into existence during the last thirty years "are not such as we desire to preserve." And yet the altering to-day of a house built in 1848 is apt to involve one change for the worse. The old house was generally simple, few in its parts, a four-cornered box with a gambrel roof and veranda; the modified exterior is too apt to be broken up into a score of gables and towers, ins and outs—

> "All up and down and here and there,
> With Lord-knows-what of round and square
> Stuck on at random everywhere."

This rage for picturesqueness has been carried to a sad extreme; the demand for little turrets and irregular projections and dormer-windows bursting out in unexpected places, like fungi, is not to be resisted; and if we take Mr. Woollett's designs as the occasion for these brief strictures, it is not that they are worse than others (for we find much to like in them), but because they do represent the tendency we deplore. This tendency is seen the most strongly in the last design in the book, plates 21 and 22, residence at Ridgefield, Conn., and it must be said that the old house seems in the photographic representation of it very much more interesting and more satisfactory, as a suburban family residence, than the new one. The design which is the most agreeable in exterior effect is the one shown in plates 8, 9, and 10; and this also exhibits a very ingenious and successful development of the original commonplace arrangement of rooms into an unusually pleasant one. Plates 11 and 12 are views of the interior of the same house. It is not to be denied that the uneasy and fidgetty style of design now in vogue, and finding its most common expression in the absurd furniture absurdly called "Eastlake," is to be found in these interiors, which would assuredly have been lovelier if more simple. But there are evidences of thought and care, and the effects produced have not involved any considerable expenditure of money. The worst faults, after all, are the faults of popular taste, the merits are the designer's own. His independence, and willingness to arrange rooms, stairs, and chimneys as shall be convenient and seemly, and not always in the common way, and the unaffected simplicity of the descriptive text, are all worthy of notice.

Einfluss des englischen Quäkerthums auf die deutsche Cultur und auf das englisch-russische Project einer Weltkirche. Von Bruno Bauer. (Berlin, 1878. New York: L. W. Schmidt. 1878. Pp. 235.)—When Herr Teufelsdröckh declared so many years ago that the most remarkable incident in modern history was not the battle of Waterloo, Peterloo, or any other battle, but George Fox's making to himself a suit of leather, he could hardly have anticipated that a brother professor, acting upon the hint, would one day trace the spiritual seed of the inspired shoemaker in Madame Krüdener and the Emperor Alexander, and connect in a train of historical sequences events seemingly so unlike as the founding of Philadelphia and the conference of Old-Catholics at Bonn. This the veteran biblical critic, Bruno Bauer, has attempted in a brochure of rather less than two hundred pages, in which, with the ingenuity characteristic of his countrymen, he undertakes to show that the yearning for ecclesiastical unity which in so many ways has found expression during the past few years is the legitimate working out of a tendency which found its first conspicuous representatives in George Fox and William

Penn. At the outset the author intimates that the coupling upon his title-page of English Quakerism with the projected union of the English and Greek churches will rather surprise his readers; and this surprise, we are quite sure, will not be lessened as they open the volume and see in what novel and unexpected companionship some familiar names are placed. Beginning with a few paragraphs setting forth the sharp contrasts between Lutheranism and Calvinism, the author asserts that the great movement by which the dead Lutheran orthodoxy of the seventeenth century was quickened with new life came from the West, and was due to the Quakers, then fresh from the victory they had won over the Puritan churches of the new world. The battle had been fought in Boston, and Mary Dyer was its heroine. Two years later the charter granted by Charles II. to Rhode Island established the precedent of which Penn availed himself for securing legal countenance to his unique colonial experiment, and Philadelphia at once became a shining star not less for the eastern than for the western hemisphere. The point of contact between Quakerism and the East was supplied in the personal intercourse of Penn with Peter the Great, when the latter was in England. The Russian in his way was not less a religious reformer than the Englishman, although his temper inclined him at times to somewhat more summary methods. The author holds that Penn made a deep impression on the Czar, and declares that there is no risk in the assumption that the prince who aimed to make Russia a great European power, recognizing religious liberty, must have found in Penn a cognate spirit, and have seen in the settlement on the banks of the Delaware the type of the polity which he was himself aiming to set up. In Peter's brain notions of autocratic rule and of spiritual liberty were intermingled. But before the latter could be clothed with new shape in the dreams of Alexander I., a long modifying process was required; and to the tracing of this process the principal portion of this essay is devoted. The medium by which the English original was translated into the dialect of the princes and nations of the continent was furnished in the Pietists and Moravians, which gives occasion for a somewhat extended and interesting account of Spener, Edelmann, and Zinzendorf. This pietistic tendency is further traced through Kant and Jacobi to Schleiermacher; and at this point the author makes an easy transition to Frau von Krüdener and the Holy Alliance. But for the majority of his readers the especial value of Herr Bauer's book will be found in the chapters in which he unfolds the distinct part which Russia has played in the ecclesiastical life of Europe since the memorable interview between Alexander and Bishop Eylert at Potsdam. His account of the various proposals and negotiations to which the yearning for ecclesiastical unity has given rise is minute and interesting; and whatever we may think of his attempt to connect this movement with the teachings of William Penn, all must admit that he has made a useful contribution to recent religious history. Nothing has escaped his inquisitive survey, even the founding of the Greek church in this city claiming attention as one of the signs of the times. Those, however, who have fondly dreamed of a possible union between the Anglican and Russian communions will derive but little comfort from his caustic dissection of the abortive experiments that have thus far been made.

La Satire en France au Moyen Age. Par C. Lenient. (Paris: Hachette & Cie.; New York: F. W. Christern.)—This new and corrected edition of a work crowned by the French Academy on its first appearance will be welcomed by all students of mediæval literature, for, although limited to French satire, it contains the manifestations of a spirit common in a certain degree to the rest of Europe. The author disclaims for his work the character of pure erudition; he has endeavored to make a readable but not superficial book. He has succeeded, we think, admirably, and the reader is carried on from chapter to chapter by the clear and skilful narration of a multitude of interesting facts, evincing the writer's thorough acquaintance with his subject. M. Lenient sees in the whole domain a vast trilogy, of which, as he says, each century is an act and each act has its principal hero: In the thirteenth century *Renart;* in the fourteenth, the Devil; in the fifteenth, Death. These three figures represent the transformation of French satire. The starting point is the twelfth century, when, with the universities and communes, the secular and *bourgeois* spirit awakened; the limit of the work is the sixteenth century, the age of the Renaissance and Reformation. The period between these limits the author examines in a thorough manner; nothing escapes him that reveals, however slightly, the spirit of free thought and opposition to established institutions. He gives the broadest definition to the word satire, and follows his subject into many obscure corners of literature and art. We see unfolded before us a picture of popular mediæval thought, manifested not only in prose and poetry, in romance and drama, but in architecture and painting, in the ceremonies and festivals of the populace.

With so vast a subject the author is sometimes forced to treat meagrely some of the details, and, as it seems to us, he does not emphasize sufficiently the satire directed against Rome, both in the vernacular and in the curious Latin poems of the vagrant scholars. This may arise from the fact that M. Lenient lays the greatest stress on the opposition between the *bourgeoisie* and the nobility; but one of the most important factors in the Renaissance and Reformation was the secular spirit, which owed no small degree of its development to the satire directed against the practices of the Romish Church.

M. Lenient deserves great credit for his mode of treating many difficult portions of his subject, notably the *fabliaux* and similar compositions, and for his clear account of the interminable romances of 'Renart' and of the 'Roman de la Rose.' The new edition has experienced some changes. A few things have been omitted which recent investigation has proved incorrect, and notice has been taken of the latest works in this field. For affording even scholars a clear view of the whole territory M. Lenient's book is invaluable, while the general reader can peruse it with pleasure as well as with profit.

Biographies of Francis Lewis and Morgan Lewis. By their granddaughter, Julia Delafield. (New York: Anson D. F. Randolph & Co. 2 vols. 12mo.)—Francis Lewis was a Welshman who emigrated to this country early in the last century, full of animosity against England as the traditionary enemy of his native country. He led an adventurous life, became rich, and was one of the most influential citizens of New York at the outbreak of the Revolution, representing that colony in Congress, and enjoying the honor of signing his name to the Declaration of Independence. The details of his life are meagre, and only fifty-six pages are devoted to his memoir. The rest of the first volume and the whole of the second is occupied with the life of his son, Morgan Lewis, who served in the Revolutionary War with the rank of colonel, was afterwards Governor of New York, and in the war of 1812 was quartermaster-general, and afterwards held command as major-general. Like his father, he had a long and honorable career, and one well worthy of commemoration. A book which, like this, refreshes in the minds of the present generation the memory of a half-forgotten man who did good service to an earlier generation is always welcome.

There are a considerable number of letters of General Lewis written during his command on Lake Ontario, but the book is chiefly devoted to personal and family reminiscences. Points of genealogy are worked out with considerable detail; especially the Livingston family, with which General Lewis was connected by his marriage with a sister of Chancellor Livingston, receives a large share of attention. One is especially interested here in following the history of a family of great proprietors; the Livingston manor was perhaps the most typically feudal estate in the North. The extent of the family possessions may be illustrated by the fact that when Chancellor Livingston succeeded, by the law of primogeniture, to the whole of his father's estate, he gave each of his three brothers thirty thousand acres of land and each of his six sisters twenty thousand; and he was only of a younger branch, his cousin being the lord of the manor. It is an interesting fact that this family of feudal proprietors—perhaps from the traditions of their descent from Scotch Covenanters—attached themselves to the Republican party of the day rather than the Federalist, as their aristocratic standing might have seemed to make probable. The family appears throughout as ardent patriots, and in one year the whole income of their estate of Clermont was paid into the public treasury.

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ERRATA.

Page 20, col. ii, line 1. For "fight" read "flight."

Page 114, col. ii, line 9 from bottom. For "styles" read "stages."

Page 151, col. ii, line 9 from bottom. For "J. N. Toner" read "J. M. Toner."

Page 168, col. i, line 17. For "expense" read "instigation."

Page 192, col. ii, line 9. Omit all after "before."

Page 253, col. i, line 15 of first paragraph. For "101⅔" read "100."

Page 277, col. i, line 30 from bottom. For "1860" read "1864."

Page 294, col. i, line 15 from bottom. For "primitive" read "punitive."

Page 303, col. i, line 25 from bottom. For "to Baltimore" read "and Baltimore."

Page 326, col. ii, line 29. Omit all after "Fourchambault."

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